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PROFESSOR E.W. BANTING
A NEW
GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL,
AND
COMMERCIAL
GRAMMAR;
EXHIBITING THE
PRESENT STATE
OF THE SEVERAL
KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD:
AND CONTAINING,
I. The Figures, Motions, and Distances, of
the Planets, according to the Newtonian
System, and the latest Observations.
II. A general View of the Earth, considered
as a Planet; with several useful Geogra-
phical Definitions and Problems.
III. The Grand Divisions of the Globe into
Land and Water, Continents and Islands.
IV. The Situation and Extent of Empires,
Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies.
V. Their Climate, Air, Soil, Vegetable Pro-
ductions, Metals, Minerals, Natural Curio-
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VI. The Birds and Beasts peculiar to each
Country.

VII. Observations on the Changes that have
been any where observed upon the Face of
Nature, since the most early Periods of
History.
VIII. The History and Origin of Nations,
their Forms of Government, Religion,
Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Mili-
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IX. The Genius, Manners, Customs, and Ha-
bits of the People.
X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences,
Manufactures and Commerce.
XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and
artificial Curiosities.
XII. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and
Distances of principal Places from London.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,
I. A GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX, with the Names of Places alphabetically arranged.
II. A TABLE of the COINS of all Nations, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY.
III. A TABLE of WEIGHTS and MEASURES. IV. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of
remarkable Events, from the Creation to the present Time.

BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, ESQ.
THE ASTRONOMICAL PART BY JAMES FERGUSON, FRS.
TO WHICH HAVE BEEN ADDED,
The late Discoveries of Dr Herschel, and other eminent Astronomers.

ILLUSTRATED WITH
A CORRECT SET OF MAPS,
ENGRAVED IN A VERY SUPERIOR MANNER, BY KIRKWOOD & SONS.

A NEW AND ENLARGED EDITION,
BROUGHT DOWN TO THE PRESENT TIME.

EDINBURGH:
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1807.
ADVERTISEMENT.

The importance of Geography, as a Science, and the variety of knowledge and amusement which it exhibits, needs no illustration. That a work, combining with Geography the invaluable stores of History, should have met with the uniform public patronage, which Guthrie's Grammar has experienced, will be no matter of surprise; but it is truly astonishing, that so thoroughly has that work been adapted to answer the ends proposed, that it has not been in the power of any rival to abridge, much less to supersede it, in the public estimation.

The Editor and Publishers of this Edition lay no claim to any other merit than that of accommodating it to the present day; and this they trust they will be found to have done, in various important respects. A year never passes, without some addition to our acquaintance with the Globe which we inhabit. It is not merely to a Cooke, a Peyrouse, a Pallas, a Park, or a Rennell, that we are indebted on this head,—it is a very uninteresting Navigator or Traveller, who brings nothing with him to enrich our Geographical Stores. To select with prudence from the inundation of this class of books, required not a little care and circumspection. But a more difficult task awaited us; every year produces changes and revolutions in the history and circumstances of the principal States, Kingdoms, and Islands, in the civilized world, more remarkable than almost a century formerly would effect. To mark the rise and fall of Empires,—the overwhelming torrents of anarchy,—the devastations of ambition,—and all that train of evils, of which every new day brings a fresh instance to our ears, required more exertion, observation, and attention, to compress, yet not overlook, than may perhaps appear from the first glance of our pages.

In its external execution, we hope our labours will be more readily appreciated. The constant additions to every new Edition of Guthrie, had at length brought it to so unwieldy a bulk, that no exertions of the Binder could make it a volume which could be looked into with any comfort. By enlarging our pages, without losing the advantages attending the Octavo size, we trust the Work will not now disgrace a Gentleman's Library, nor tease the Student to peruse its inner pages. The Type and Paper are also respectable. But, in a particular manner, the Maps, which in a work of this kind are so important, are executed in a very superior manner to those in any former edition of the work. They are engraved in Arrow-smith and Lovrie's new style, and have been taken from the most approved copies. Should these improvements meet the public approbation, the Publishers will be amply gratified. They have only to add, that the additions have been chiefly executed by a Gentleman, whose name, were they at liberty to use it, would be sufficient of itself to stamp this Edition with a decided superiority over every other.

Perth, 16th March 1807.
PREFACE.

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

This general diffusion of knowledge is one effect of that happy constitution of government which, towards the close of the seventeenth century, was confirmed to us, and which constitutes the peculiar glory of this nation. In other countries, the great body of the people possess little wealth, have little power, and consequently meet with little respect: in Great Britain the people are opulent, have great influence, and claim, of course, a proper share of attention. To their improvement, therefore, men of letters have lately directed their studies, as the great body of the people, no less than the dignified, the learned, or the wealthy few, have an acknowledged title to be amused and instructed. Books have been divested of the terms of the schools, reduced from that size which suited only the purses of the rich, and the avocations of the studious, and are adapted to persons of more ordinary fortunes, whose attachment to other pursuits admitted of little leisure for those of knowledge. It is to books of this kind, more than to the works of our Bacons, our Lockes, and our Newtons, that the generality of our countrymen owe that superior improvement which distinguishes them from the lower ranks of men in all other countries. To promote and advance this improvement, is the principal design of our present undertaking. No subject appears more interesting than that we have chosen, and none seems capable of being treated in a manner that may render it more generally useful.

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

The compendium of Geography now offered to the Public differs in many particulars from other books on that subject. Besides exhibiting an easy, distinct, and systematic account of the theory and
practice of what may be called Natural Geography, the Author
has attempted to render the following performance an instructive,
though compendious, detail of the general history of the world.
The character of nations depends on a combination of a great num-erman, &c. of a state, than most people seem to apprehend. In
a work of this kind, the object of which is to include moral, or po-
tical, as well as natural Geography, no one of these subjects should
pass unnoticed. The omission of any one of them would, in reality,
deprive us of a branch of knowledge, not only interesting in itself,
but which is absolutely necessary for enabling us to form an adequate
and comprehensive idea of the subject in general. We have
thought it necessary, therefore, that this work should comprehend
the history and present state of learning in the several countries we
describe, with the characters of such persons as have been most
eminent in the various departments of letters and philosophy. This
will, on a little reflection, appear altogether requisite, when we con-
sider the powerful influence of learning upon the manners, govern-
ment, and general character of nations. These objects, indeed, till
of late, seldom found a place in geographical performances; and,
even where they have been introduced, are by no means handled
in an entertaining or instructive manner. Neither is this to be
altogether imputed to the fault of geographical writers. The
greater part of travellers, acting solely under the influence of ava-
rice, the passion which first induced them to quit their native land,
were at little pains, and were indeed ill qualified, to collect such
materials as are proper for gratifying our curiosity, with regard to
these particulars. The geographer, then, who could only employ
the materials put into his hands, was not enabled to give us any
important information upon such subjects. In the course of the
present century, however, men have begun to travel from different
moters. A thirst for knowledge, as well as for gold, has led many
into distant lands. These they have explored with a philosophic
attention, and, by laying open the internal springs of action, by
which the inhabitants of different regions are actuated, exhibit to
us a natural and striking picture of human manners, under the va-
rious stages of barbarity and refinement. Without manifest im-
propriety, we could not but avail ourselves of their labours, by
means of which we have been enabled to give a more copious and
a more perfect detail of what is called Political Geography, than
has hitherto appeared.

In considering the present state of nations, few circumstances are
of more importance than their mutual intercourse. This is chiefly
produced by commerce, the prime mover in the economy of mo-
dern states, and of which, therefore, we have never lost sight in the
present undertaking.
We are sensible that a reader could not examine the present state of nations with much entertainment or instruction, unless he were also made acquainted with their situation during the preceding ages, and of the various revolutions and events, by the operation of which they have assumed their present form and appearance. This constitutes the historical part of our work, in which, instead of a meagre index of incoherent incidents, we have drawn up a regular and connected epitome of the history of each country; such an epitome as may be read with equal pleasure and advantage, and which may be considered as a proper introduction to more copious accounts.

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

In the execution of our design, we have constantly endeavoured to observe order and perspicuity. Elegance we have sacrificed to brevity: happy to catch the leading features which distinguish the characters of nations, and by a few strokes to sketch, though not completely to finish.

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

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

Next to Great Britain we have been most particular upon the other states of Europe, and always in proportion as they present us
with the largest field for useful reflection. By comparing together
our accounts of the European nations, the important system of
practical knowledge is inculcated, and a thousand arguments will
appear in favour of a mild religion, a free government, and an ex-
tended, unrestrained commerce.

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

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

America, whether considered as an immense continent, inhabit-
ed by an endless variety of different people, or as a country inti-
mately connected with Europe by the ties of commerce and go-
vernment, deserves very particular attention. The bold discovery
and barbarous conquest of this New World, the manners and preju-
dices of the original inhabitants, and description of the country, are
objects which deservedly occupy no small share of this performance.

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

We cannot, without exceeding the bounds of a Preface, insist up-
on the other parts of our plan. The Maps, which are executed
with care, by the ablest artists, will, we hope, afford satisfaction.
The science of Natural Geography still remains in a very imperfect
state, and the exact divisions and extent of countries, for want of
geometrical surveys, are far from being well ascertained. With re-
spect to these we have, however, constantly resorted to the best au-
thorities which, in the present state of geographical science, we
have been able to procure.
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INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

SECT. I.

Of the Planets, the Comets, the Fixed Stars, and the different Systems of the Universe.

The Science of Geography cannot be completely understood without considering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a considerable distance from it. But the science which treats of the planets, and other heavenly bodies, is called Astronomy. Hence the necessity of beginning this work with an account of the heavenly bodies. Of these the most conspicuous is that glorious luminary the Sun, the fountain of light and heat to the several planets which move round it; and with them compose what astronomers call the Solar System. The way, or path, in which the planets move round the sun, is called their Orbit; and there are nine planets which move round the sun, each in its own orbit. The names of these, according to their nearness to the centre, or middle point of the sun, are, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Ceres, Pallas, * Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus. The two first, because they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the sun) are called inferior planets, or, perhaps more properly, interior or inner planets; the six last, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called superior, or, perhaps more properly, exterior or outer planets.

The earth upon which we live was long considered as one large extensive plane, of no remarkable thickness; and the regions below it were supposed to be the habitations of spirits. The heavens, in which the sun, moon, and stars, appeared to move daily from east to west, were conceived to be at no great distance from it, and to be only designed for the use or ornament of our earth; several reasons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable: it is needless to mention them, because we have now a sufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators who have actually sailed round it.

The roundness of the earth being thoroughly established, a way was thereby naturally opened for the discovery of its motion. For while it was considered as a plane, mankind had an obscure notion of its being supported, like a scaffold, on pillars, though they could not tell what supported these. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed by considering, that, if the earth did not move round the sun, not only the sun but all the stars and planets must move round the earth. Now, as philosophers, by reckonings founded on the surest observations, have been able to guess pretty nearly at the distances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, just as every body that knows the first elements of mathematics can measure the height of a steeple, or any object placed on it; it appeared that, if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we must suppose them endowed with a motion or velocity so immense as to exceed all conception; whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the sun in the space of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in 24 hours.

The earth, in the space of 24 hours, moves from west to east, while the inhabitants on the surface of it, like men on the deck of a ship, insensible of their own motion, think

* Ceres and Pallas have been recently discovered. The former was first observed by M. Piazzi, Astronomer Royal at Palermo, on the 1st of January 1801. It is not visible to the naked eye, and is so very small that glasses of a very high magnifying power will not show it with a distinctly defined diameter. The discovery of Pallas is due to Dr Olbers at Hamburg. It is still smaller than Ceres.
that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, conceive that the sun and the stars move from east to west in the same time of 24 hours, in which they, along with the earth, move from west to east. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us easily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the sun. For as that luminary seems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occasioned by the daily motion of the earth round its axis, so, in the course of a year, he seems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to rise and set in different points of them, which is really occasioned by the daily motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the sun, which it completes in the time of a year. Now as to the first of these motions we owe the the difference of day and night, so to the second we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the seasons of the year.

The Planets.] Besides the nine planets already mentioned, which move round the sun, there are eighteen other bodies which move round four of these, in the same manner as they do round the sun; and of these our earth has one, called the Moon; Jupiter has four, Saturn has seven (two of these being lately discovered by the celebrated Dr Herschell); and the Georgium Sidus has six, as has been proved by that excellent astronomer. These are all called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was first attended to; and sometimes they are called secondary planets, because they seem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, about which they move, and which are called primary.

We have already said that the annual motion of the earth occasions the diversity of seasons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, or in a line with the axis of its orbit; because then the same parts of the earth would be turned towards the sun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful vicissitudes of the seasons, arising from the difference in length of the days and nights. This therefore is not the case—the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth’s orbit, which we may conceive by supposing a spindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the spindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards some quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth’s axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the spindle to the ground. The same observation applies to some of the other planets, as may be seen from the table below.

As the orbit of a planet does not form a circle, but an ellipsis, it is not always at the same distance from the sun, and the distance which is exactly betwixt its greatest and least distance, as called the mean distance.

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

<table>
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<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sun</td>
<td>890,000</td>
<td>25,841,406</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>29,988</td>
<td>22,010</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mercury</td>
<td>5845</td>
<td>68,891,406</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3,485</td>
<td>2,800</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venus</td>
<td>7,949</td>
<td>95,173,000</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28,288</td>
<td>21,211</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Earth</td>
<td>1,262</td>
<td>145,014,128</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22,400</td>
<td>17,333</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mars</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>250,000,000</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22,400</td>
<td>17,333</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceres</td>
<td>55,287</td>
<td>970,956,000</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22,400</td>
<td>17,333</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pallas</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>270,000,000</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22,400</td>
<td>17,333</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jupiter</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>494,990,976</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22,400</td>
<td>17,333</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturn</td>
<td>9,600</td>
<td>907,956,120</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22,400</td>
<td>17,333</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgium Sidus</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>1,815,912,260</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>22,400</td>
<td>17,333</td>
<td>0° 0' 0&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Comets.} Comets, as they revolve round our sun, are consequently a part of the Solar System. These descending from the far distant parts of the system with great rapidity, surprise us with their singular appearance of a train or tail, which accompanies them; become visible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a short stay, go off again, to vast distances, and disappear. Though some of the ancients had more just notions of them, yet the opinions having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to those we see in it every night, and in a few moments vanishing, no care was taken to observe or record their phenomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of astronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are solid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the same laws of gravity, so as to describe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the sun in very eccentric ellipses, and are of much greater density than the earth; for some of them are heated in every period to such a degree as would vitrify or dissipate any substance known to us. Sir Isaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when nearest the sun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron; and that, being thus heated, it must retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period should be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. The number of comets in our system is very great. Of fifty-nine only of the vast number which have been observed, have the orbits been settled with sufficient accuracy to ascertain their identity, reckoning as late as the year 1771. All those which have been observed have moved through the ethereal regions and the orbits of the planets, without suffering the least sensible resistance in their motions, which sufficiently proves that the planets do not move in solid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of these, that which appeared in 1680 is the most remarkable. This comet, at its greatest distance, is about 11 thousand 200 millions of miles from the sun, while its least distance from the centre of the sun is about 490 thousand miles; within less than one third part of the sun's semidiameter, from his surface. In that part of its orbit which is nearest the sun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the sun, as seen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, consequently 46,000 times as large as he appears to us. The astonishing distance that this comet runs out into empty space, naturally suggests to our imagination, the vast distance between our sun and the nearest of the fixed stars, of whose attraction all the comets must keep clear, to return periodically, and go round the sun.

The fixed stars.] Having thus briefly surveyed the solar system, which, though great in itself, is small in comparison of the immensity of the universe, we next proceed to the contemplation of those other vast bodies called the fixed stars; which being of infinite use in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. These fixed stars are distinguished by the naked eye from the planets, by being less bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the stars. This arises from their being so extremely small, that the interposition of the least body, of which there are many constantly floating in the air, deprives us of the sight of them; when the interposed body changes its place, we again see the star, and this succession being perpetual, occasions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed stars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their situation, with regard to each other; as the planets, from what we have already said, must evidently be always changing theirs. The stars which are nearest to us seem largest, and are therefore called of the first magnitude. Those of the second magnitude appear less, being at a greater distance; and so proceeding on to the sixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed stars that are visible without a telescope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night, without moonshine, they seem to be innumerable, which is owing to their strong sparkling, and our looking at them in a confused manner: yet when the whole firmament is divided, as it has been done by the ancients, into signs and constellations, the number that can be seen at a time, by the bare eye, is not above a thousand. Since the introduction of the telescopes, indeed, the number of the fixed stars has been justly considered as immense; because the greater perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars always appear to us. Mr
INTRODUCTION.

Flamstead, late royal astronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 2000 stars. These are called telescopic stars, from their being invisible without the assistance of that instrument. Dr Herschell, to whose ingenuity and assiduity the astronomical world is so much indebted, has evinced what great discoveries may be made by improvements in the instruments of observation. In speaking here of his discoveries, I shall use the words of M. de la Lande. "In passing rapidly over the heavens with his new telescope, the universe increased under his eye; 44,000 stars, seen in the space of a few degrees, seemed to indicate that there were seventy-five millions in the heavens." But what are all these when compared to those that fill the whole expanse, the boundless fields of Æther? Indeed the immensity of the universe must contain such numbers, as would exceed the utmost stretch of the human imagination; for who can say how far the universe extends, or point out those limits, where the Creator "stayed his rapid wheels" or where he "fixed the golden compasses."

The immense distance of the fixed stars from our earth, and one another, is of all considerations the most proper for raising our ideas of the works of God. For notwithstanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at least 190 millions of miles in diameter) round the sun, the distance of a fixed star is not sensibly affected by it; so that the star does not appear to be any nearer to us when the earth is in that part of its orbit nearest the star, than it seemed to be when the earth was at the most distant part of its orbit, or 100 millions of miles farther removed from the same star. The star nearest us, and consequently the largest in appearance, is the dog-star, or Sirius. Modern discoveries make it probable that each of these fixed stars is a sun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as our sun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-star appears 27,000 times less than the sun; and, as the distance of the stars must be greater in proportion as they seem less, mathematicians have computed the distance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thousand millions of miles. The motion of light, therefore, which, though so quick as to be commonly thought instantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the stars to us than we do in making a West India voyage. A sound would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is considered as the quickest body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The stars being at such immense distances from the sun, cannot possibly receive from him so strong a light as they seem to have; or any brightness sufficient to make them visible to us. For the sun's rays must be so scattered and dissipated before they reach such remote objects, that they can never be transmitted back to our eyes, so as to render these objects visible by reflection. The stars therefore shine with their own native and unborrowed lustre, as the sun does; and since each particular star as well as the sun, is confined to a particular portion of space, it is plain that the stars are of the same nature with the sun.

It is no way probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wisdom, and does nothing in vain, should create so many glorious suns, fit for so many important purposes, and place them at such distances from one another, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, must have a very superficial knowledge of astronomy, a mean opinion of the Divine Wisdom; since, by an infinitely less exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one single additional moon.

Instead then of one sun and one world only, in the universe, as the unskilful in astronomy imagine, that science discovers to us such an inconceivable number of suns, systems and worlds, dispersed through boundless space, that if our sun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more missed by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of sand from the sea-shore; the space they possess, being comparatively so small, that it would scarcely be a sensible blank in the universe, although the Georgium Sidus the uttermost of our planets, resolves about the sun in an orbit of 10,930 millions of miles in circumference, and some of our co-
mets make excursions upwards of ten thousand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Georgium Sidus.

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

Since the fixed stars are prodigious spheres of fire, like our sun, and at inconceivable distances from one another, as well as from us, it is reasonable to conclude they are made for the same purposes that the sun is: each to bestow light, heat, and vegetation, on a certain number of inhabited planets, kept by gravitation within the sphere of its activity.

What an august! what an amazing conception, if human imagination can conceive it, does this give of the works of the Creator! Thousands and thousands of suns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immense distances from each other, attended by ten thousand times ten thousand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths prescribed them; and these worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings formed for endless progression in perfection and felicity.

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

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

Different systems of the universe. — Mankind must have made a very considerable improvement in observing the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could so far disengage themselves from the prejudices of sense and popular opinion, as to believe that the earth, upon which we live, was not fixed and immovable. We find accordingly, that Thales the Milesian, who, about 580 years before Christ first taught astronomy in Europe, had gone so far in this subject as to calculate eclipses, or interpositions of the moon between the earth and the sun, or of the earth between the sun and the moon (the nature of which may be easily understood from what we have already observed.) Pythagoras, a Greek philosopher, flourished about 50 years after Thales, and was no doubt equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. This led Pythagoras to conceive an idea, which there is no reason to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itself was in motion, and that the sun was at rest. He found that it was impossible, in any other way, to give a consistent account of the heavenly motions. The system, however, was so extremely opposite to all the prejudices of sense and opinion, that it never made great progress, nor was ever widely diffused in the ancient world. The philosophers of antiquity, despairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reason, set themselves to adapt the one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the case with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philo-
sopher, who flourished 138 years before Christ. He supposed with the vulgar, who measure every thing by themselves, that the earth was fixed immovable in the centre of the universe, and that the seven planets, considering the moon as one of the primaries were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed stars, then the crystalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, last of all, the coelem empyreum, or heaven of heavens. All these orbs he supposed to move round the earth once in 24 hours; and besides that, in certain stated and periodical times. To account for these motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles called eccentrics and epicycles, crossing and interfering with one another. The system was universally maintained by the peripatetic philosophers, who were the most considerable sect in Europe from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the sixteenth century.

Length, Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean or true system of the universe; and published it to the world in the year 1530. This doctrine had been so long in obscurity, that the restorer of it was considered as the inventor; and the system obtained the name of the Copernican philosophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe however was still immersed in ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with those of a refined philosophy.

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

About this time, after a darkness of a great many ages, the first dawn of learning and taste began to appear in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate astronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the use of telescopes, which discovered new arguments in support of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy, indeed, had almost checked this flourishing bud: Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican system as a damnable heresy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed the one half of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the scriptures were not given for explaining systems of natural philosophy, but for a much nobler purpose, to make us just, virtuous, and humane: that, instead of opposing the word of God, which in speaking of natural things suits itself to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to God himself, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are considered, afford us the greater reason to admire his glorious attributes of power, wisdom, and goodness. From this time, therefore, noble discoveries were made in all the branches of astronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was discovered and illustrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called Gravity, or Attraction, and is the same by which any body falls to the ground, when disengaged from what supported it. It has been demonstrated, that this same law which keeps the sea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the surface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the universe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preserves the whole fabric of nature from confusion and disorder.
SPHERE, which ought alway to be premised before that of the Globe or earth, as we shall see in the next Section. In handling this subject, we shall consider the earth as at rest, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any mistake, since we have previously explained the true system of the universe, from which it appears, that it is the real motion of the earth, which occasions the apparent motion of the heavenly bodies. It is besides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our senses, which always leads us to conceive the matter in this way. The imagination therefore is not put on the stretch; the idea is easy and familiar, and, in delivering the elements of science, this object cannot be too much attended to.

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

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

SECT. III.

The Doctrine of the Globe.

By the doctrine of the Globe is meant the representation of the different places and countries, on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Now the manner in which geographers have represented the situation of places upon the earth, has been by transferring the circles of the sphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ.

Figure of the Earth.] Though in speaking of the earth, along with other planets, it was sufficient to consider it as a spherical or globular body; yet it has been discovered, that this is not its true figure; and that the earth, though nearly a sphere or ball, is not perfectly so. It has been ascertained, by measurement of a degree at the poles and at the equator, that the earth has the figure of an oblate sphere, viz. flattened at the poles, and consequently that its longest diameter passes through the equator.

Measurement of the Surface of the Earth.] The circumference of the earth is conceived, for the convenience of measuring, to be divided into three hundred and sixty parts or degrees, each degree containing sixty geographical miles, or sixty nine, English miles and a half. These degrees are in the same manner conceived to be divided each into sixty minutes.

Axis and Poles of the Earth.] The axis of the earth is that imaginary line passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to turn round once in 24 hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the earth; one on the north and the other in the south, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles.

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

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

Horizon.] This great circle is represented by a broad circular piece of wood encompassing the globe and dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres. Geographers very properly distinguish the horizon into the sensible and rational. The first is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight, when we view the heavens around us, apparently touching the earth or sea. This circle determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eastern edge, we say they rise; and when they go beneath the western, we say they are set. It appears that each place has its own sensible horizon. The other horizon, called the rational, encompasses the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is, two points in its axis, each ninety degrees distant from its plane, as those of all the circles are) are called the Zenith and Nadir; the first exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle which represents it on the globe, has several circles drawn upon it; of these the innermost is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve signs of the Zodiac (of which hereafter), viz. thirty to each sign. Next to this, you have the names of these signs. Next to this, the days of the months according to the old style, and then according to the new style. Besides these, there is a circle representing the thirty two rhumbs, or points of the mariners compass.

Meridian.] This circle is represented by the brass ring, on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; so that, counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eastern and western
ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

hemispheres. This circle is called the meridian, because when the sun comes to the south part of it, it is then meridies or mid-day, and then the sun has its greatest altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now as the sun is never in its meridian altitude at two places east or west of one another at the same time, each of these places must have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

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

1. Aries ♒ — — March 7. Libra О — — September
2. Taurus ♒ — — April 8. Scorpio ☉ — — October

CoLURES.] If you imagine two great circles passing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points, Aries and Libra, and the other through the solstitial points, Cancer and Capricorn, these are called the Colures; the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solstitial Colure.

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

Polar Circles.] If two other circles are supposed to be drawn at the like distance of twenty-three degrees, thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, these are called the Polar Circles. The northern is called the Arctic, because the north pole is near the constellation of the Bear; the southern, the Antarctic, because opposite to the former. And these are the four lesser circles.

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

The torrid zone is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and called by the ancients torrid, because they conceived, that, being continually exposed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the sun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and sandy deserts. This notion, however, has long since been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almost throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but so fruitful, that in many places they have two harvests in a year; all sorts of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes more perfect metals, precious stones, and pearls, than all the rest of the earth together. In short, the countries of Africa, Asia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all respects the most fertile and luxuriant upon the earth.

The two temperate zones are comprised between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, because, meeting the rays of the sun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat.

The two frigid zones lie between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are inclosed within the polar circles. They are called the Frigid or Frozen, because most part of the year it is extremely cold there, and every thing is frozen so long as the sun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However, these zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much less fit for living in than the torrid.
None of all these zones are thoroughly discovered by the Europeans. Our knowledge of the southern temperate zone is very scanty; we know little of the northern frigid zone; and still less of the southern frigid zone. The northern, temperate, and torrid zones, are those we are best acquainted with.

CLIMATE.] To ascertain more precisely the situation of places, the earth has also been divided into still narrower zones called Climates. Each are included between two parallels of Latitude, at such a distance, that the longest day under that nearest the pole, exceeds the length of that under the others by half an hour. As the length of the day under the equator is always 12 hours, and that of the longest day under the polar circles always more than 24, there must consequently be 24 Climatic Parallels between each polar circle and the equator. Within the polar circles, the Climates are reckoned by the increase of the day by months, till we reach the pole, where the year consists only of one day and one night, each enduring six months. There are consequently six within the polar circle, making in all 30 between either pole and the equator.
ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

TABLE OF CLIMATES,

SHEWING

The Length of the Longest Day in most of the Principal Places in the World.

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<td>12 30</td>
<td>I. The Gold and Silver Coast in Africa; Malacca in the East Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in Terra Firma, S. America.</td>
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<td>16 25</td>
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<td>II. Abyssinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicherry in the East Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes in the W. Indies.</td>
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<td>23 50</td>
<td>7 25</td>
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<td>III. Mecca in Arabia: Bombay, part of Bengal, in the East Indies; Canton in China; Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadeloupe, in the West Indies.</td>
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<td>30 25</td>
<td>6 30</td>
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<td>IV. Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Delhi, capital of the Mogul Empire in Asia; Gulf of Mexico, and East Florida, in North America; the Havanana, in the West Indies.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>36 28</td>
<td>6 8</td>
<td>14 30</td>
<td>V. Gibraltar, in Spain, part of the Mediterranean sea; the Barbary coast, in Africa; Jerusalem, Isaphan, capital of Persia; Nankin in China; California, New Mexico, West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>41 22</td>
<td>4 54</td>
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<td>VI. Lisbon, in Portugal; Madrid in Spain: Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Asia Minor, part of the Caspian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Pekin, in China; Corea, and Japan; Williamsburg, in Virginia; Maryland and Philadelphia, in N. America.</td>
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<td>45 29</td>
<td>4 7</td>
<td>15 30</td>
<td>VII. Northern provinces, of Spain; southern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome in Italy; Constantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caspian sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boston in New England, North America.</td>
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<td>VIII. Paris, Vienna, capital of Germany; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada, in N. America.</td>
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<td>2 57</td>
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<td>IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dresden; Cracow in Poland; southern provinces of Russia; part of Tartary: north Part of Newfoundland.</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>54 27</td>
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<td>X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Warsaw, in Poland; Labrador, and New South Wales, in North America.</td>
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<td>XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moscow in Russia.</td>
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<td>XII. South part of Sweden, Tobolski, capital of Siberia.</td>
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<td>1 29</td>
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<td>XII. Orkney Isles; Stockholm, capital of Sweden.</td>
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<td>XIV. Bergen in Norway; Petersburg cap. of Russia.</td>
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<td>XV. Hudson's Straights, North America.</td>
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<td>57 20</td>
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<td>XVI. Siberia, and the S. part of West Greenland.</td>
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<td>64 06</td>
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<td>XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.</td>
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<td>43 21</td>
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<td>XVIII. Part of Finland in Russia.</td>
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<td>XIX. Archangel on the White sea, Russia.</td>
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<td>XX. Hecla, in Iceland.</td>
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<td>XXI. Northern parts of Russia and Siberia.</td>
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<td>XXII. New North Wales in North America.</td>
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<td>XXIII. Davis's Straits, in ditto.</td>
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<td>XXVI. West Greenland.</td>
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<td>XXVII. Zembla Australis.</td>
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<td>XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.</td>
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<td>XXXIX. Spitzbergen or East Greenland.</td>
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</table>
INTRODUCTION.

LATITUDE.] The distance of places from the equator, or what is called their Latitude, is easily measured on the globe, by means of the meridian above described. For we have only to bring the place, whose latitude we would know, to the meridian, where the degree of latitude is marked, and it will be exactly over the place. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, it is either northern or southern, and the nearer the poles the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, because the poles, where they terminate, are at that distance from the equator.

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

LONGITUDE.] The longitude of a place is its situation with regard to its first meridian, and consequently reckoned towards the east or west; in reckoning the longitude there is no particular spot from which we ought ought to set out preferably to another, but, for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary Islands, was considered as the first meridian in most of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be so many degrees east or west of the meridian of Ferro. The modern globes fix the first meridian from which the degrees of longitude are reckoned, on the capital city of the different kingdoms where they are made, viz. the English globes date the first meridian from London or Greenwich, the French globes from Paris, &c. These degrees are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be moved from another above half that distance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence in 60 degrees of latitude, a degrees of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are set down in the table, in the following page.

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE FOUND.] To find the Longitude and Latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we shall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of these degrees into miles, according to the table given below, and remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 60 geographic miles, or 69 and a half English, we shall be able exactly to determine the distance between any places on the globe.

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

The Number of Miles contained in a degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degrees of Latitude</th>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>100th parts of a mile.</th>
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**Quadrant of Altitude.**] In order to supply the place of the compasses in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of brass, screwed on the brazen meridian, which contains 90 degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the distances and bearings of places are measured without the trouble of first extending the compasses between them, and then applying the same to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

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

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

Prob. 1. *To rectify the globe.*

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

Prob. 2. *To find the longitude and latitude of any place.*

For this, see page 12.

Prob. 3. *The longitude and latitude of any place being given, to find that place on the globe.*

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

Prob. 4. *The latitude of any place being given, to find all those places that have the same latitude.*

The globe being rectified (a) according to the latitude of the given (a) Prob. 2. place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the same, and turning the globe round, all those places passing under the said mark have the same latitude with the given place.

Prob. 5. *To find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic at any time.*

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

Prob. 6. *The month and day being given, as also the particular time of that day, to find these places of the globe to which the Sun is in the meridian at that particular time.*

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

Prob. 7. *To know the length of the day and night in any place of the earth at any time.*

(a) Prob. 2. Elevate the pole (a) according to the latitude of the given place;
(b) Prob. 6. find the Sun's place in the ecliptic (b) at that time, which being brought to the east side of the horizon, set the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII. and turning the globe about till the aforesaid place of the ecliptic touch the western side of the horizon, look upon the horary circle, and wheresoever the index points, reckon the number of hours between the same and the upper figure of 12; for that is the length of the day, the complement whereof to 24 hours is the length of the night.
Astronomical Geography.

Prob. 8. To know what a clock it is by the globe in any part of the world, and at any time, provided you know the hour of the day where you are at the same time.

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

Prob. 9. A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find those two days of the year in which the Sun shall be vertical to the same.

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

Prob. 10. The month and day being given, to find by the globe those places of the North Frigid Zone, where the Sun then begins with to shine constantly without setting, as also those places of the South Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally absent.

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

Prob. 11. A place being given in the North Frigid Zone, to find by the globe what number of days the sun doth constantly shine upon the said place, and what day he is absent, as also the first and last day of his appearance.

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and observing its latitude, (e) elevate the globe accordingly; count the same number of degrees upon the meridian from each side of the equator as the place is distant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully observe what two degrees of the ecliptic pass exactly under the two points marked in the meridian; first for the northern arch of the circle, namely, that comprehended between the two degrees marked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the sun doth constantly shine above the horizon of the given place; and the opposite arch of the said circle will in like manner give the number of days in which he is totally absent, and also will point out which days those are. And in the interval he will rise and set.

Prob. 12. The month and day being given, to find those places on the globe, to which the sun, when in the meridian, shall be vertical on that day.

The sun's place in the ecliptic being (b) found, bring the same to the (b) Prob. 6, brazen meridian, in which make a small mark with chalk, exactly above
INTRODUCTION.

the Sun’s place. Which done, turn the globe, and those places which have the Sun vertical in the meridian, will successively pass under the said mark.

PROB. 13. The month and day being given, to find upon what point of the compass the sun then riseth in any place.

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

PROB. 14. To know by the globe the length of the longest and shortest days and nights in any part of the world.

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

PROB. 15. The hour of the day being given in any place, to find those places of the earth where it is either noon or midnight, or any other particular hour at the same time.

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

PROB. 16. The day and hour being given, to find by the globe that particular place of the earth to which the Sun is vertical at that very time.

The Sun’s place in the ecliptic (a) being found and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the same with chalk; then (b) PROB. 16. find those places of the earth in whose meridian the Sun is at that instant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, observe narrowly that individual part of the earth which falls exactly under the foresaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the Sun is vertical at that very time.

PROB. 17. The day and hour at any place being given, to find all those places where the Sun is then rising, or setting, or on the meridian; consequently, all those places which are enlightened at that time, and those which are in the dark.

This problem cannot be solved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour circle fixed upon the brass meridian; unless the Sun be on or near some of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up according to Mr. Joseph Harris’s invention, where the hour circle lies on the surface of the globe, below the meridian, it may be solved for any day in the year, according to his method; which is as follows.
Having found the place to which the Sun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemisphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon, as are equal to the latitude of that place; if the place be in the southern hemisphere, elevate the south pole accordingly, and bring the said place to the brazen meridian. Then, all those places which are in the western semicircle of the horizon, have the Sun rising to them at that time; and those in the eastern semicircle have it setting; to those under the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, it is noon; and to those under the lower semicircle, it is midnight. All those places which are above the horizon, are enlightened by the Sun, and have the Sun just as many degrees above them as they themselves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the Sun is vertical; and then laying it over any other place, observe what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the said place and the horizon. In all those places that are 18 degrees below the western semicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is just beginning; in all those places that are 18 degrees below the eastern semicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all those places that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

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

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

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

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

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

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true distance from each other, reckoning every degree to be $69\frac{1}{2}$ English miles.

Prob. 21. A place being given on the globe, and its true distance from a second place, to find thereby all other places of the earth that are at the same distance from the given place.

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

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Hence, if two ships should set out at the same time from any port, and sail round the globe, one eastward and the other westward, so as to meet at the same port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they sailed twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then six, &c.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

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

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

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

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

The description of a continent resembles that of an ocean; an island encompassed with water resembles a lake encompassed with land. A peninsula of land is like a gulf or inland sea. A promontory or cape of land, is like a bay or creek of the sea: and an isthmus, whereby two lands are joined, resembles a strait which unites one sea to another.

To this description of the divisions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water, which correspond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we shall subjoin a table, exhibiting the superficial contents of the whole globe in square miles, sixty to a degree, and also of the seas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewise of the great empires and principal islands, which shall be placed as they are subordinate to one another in magnitude.
To these islands may be added the following, which have lately been discovered, or more fully explored. The exact dimensions of them are not ascertained; but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largest, which is supposed to be nearly equal in size to the whole Continent of Europe.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Islands</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>Islands</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Globe</td>
<td>148,510,627</td>
<td>Hispaniola</td>
<td>36,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seas and unknown Parts</td>
<td>117,843,821</td>
<td>Newfoundland</td>
<td>35,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Habitable world</td>
<td>30,666,906</td>
<td>China</td>
<td>27,730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>2,719,389</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>27,457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>10,257,487</td>
<td>Formosa</td>
<td>17,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>8,506,208</td>
<td>Anian</td>
<td>11,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>America</td>
<td>9,153,762</td>
<td>Gilolo</td>
<td>10,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persian Empire under Darius</td>
<td>1,650,000</td>
<td>Socotra</td>
<td>5,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rom. Em. in its utmost height</td>
<td>1,610,000</td>
<td>Timor</td>
<td>7,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>4,564,000</td>
<td>Sardinia</td>
<td>6,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1,298,000</td>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>6,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Mogul</td>
<td>1,116,000</td>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>652,960</td>
<td>Flores</td>
<td>6,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British, exclusive of Settlements in Africa and Gibraltar</td>
<td>317,196</td>
<td>Geram</td>
<td>5,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Persian</td>
<td>800,000</td>
<td>Socotra</td>
<td>3,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>1,350,000</td>
<td>Candia</td>
<td>2,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*Borneo</td>
<td>383,000</td>
<td>Porto Rico</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar</td>
<td>168,000</td>
<td>Corsica</td>
<td>2,320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sumatra</td>
<td>129,000</td>
<td>Zealand</td>
<td>19,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>118,000</td>
<td>Majorca</td>
<td>14,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great Britain</td>
<td>77,248</td>
<td>St. Jago</td>
<td>14,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celebes</td>
<td>68,400</td>
<td>Negropont</td>
<td>13,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manilla</td>
<td>58,500</td>
<td>Teneriff</td>
<td>12,720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>46,000</td>
<td>Gothland</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terra del Fuego</td>
<td>42,075</td>
<td>Madeira</td>
<td>9,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mindinao</td>
<td>39,200</td>
<td>St. Michael</td>
<td>9,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>38,400</td>
<td>St. Vincent</td>
<td>9,200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Java | 38,250 | }

* The number of inhabitants computed at present to be in the known world at a medium, taken from the best calculations, are about 700 millions.

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

**Winds.** The earth on which we live is everywhere surrounded by a fine invisible fluid, which extends to several miles above its surface, and is called Air. It is found by experiments, that a small quantity of air is capable of being expanded, so as to fill a very large space, or to be compressed into a much smaller compass than it occupied before. The general cause of the expansion of the air is heat; the general cause of its compression is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmosphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compressed. But when air is put in motion, we call it wind in general; and a breeze, gale, or storm, according to the quickness or velocity of that motion. Winds, therefore, which are commonly considered as things extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cause, and act with more or less uniformity, in proportion as the action of this cause is more or less constant. It is found, by observations made at sea, that from thirty
degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees south, there is a constant east wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the Trade Wind. This is occasioned by the action of the sun, which, in moving from East to West, heats, and consequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a stream or tide of air always accompanies him in his course, and occasions a perpetual east wind within these limits. This general cause however is modified by a number of particulars; the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our present plan; which is to mention facts rather than theories.

The winds called the Tropical Winds, which blow from some particular points of the compass without much variation, are of three kinds: 1. The General Trade Winds, which extend to near thirty degrees of latitude on each side of the equator in the Atlantic, Ethiopian, and Pacific seas. 2. The Monsoons, or shifting trade-winds; which blow six months in one direction, and the other six months in the opposite direction. These are mostly in the Indian, or Eastern Ocean, and do not extend above two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinox, and is accompanied with terrible storms of thunder, lightning, and rain. 3. The Sea and Land Breezes, which are another kind of periodical winds that blow from the land from midnight to mid-day, and from the sea from about noon till midnight; these, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from shore. Near the coast of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows nearly always from the west, south-west, or south. On the coast of Peru in south America, the wind blows constantly from the south-west. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and south, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the west than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Ver and the eastermost of the Cape Ver Islands, there is a tract of sea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and such rains, that this sea has acquired the name of the Rains.

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

To Boston in New England, and Halifax in Nova Scotia, from 42 to 43 degrees.
To New York by the Azores, or Western Islands, 39 degrees.
To Carolina and Virginia by Madeira, which is called the upper course, 32 degrees:
but the usual course, to take advantage of the trade-winds, is from 16 to 23 degrees:
and in this course they frequently touch at Antigua; it is this course our West India ships sail in.

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

Tides. By the tides are meant that regular motion of the sea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obscurity, till the immortal Sir Isaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For having demonstrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the solar system, by which they mutually draw or attract one another, in proportion to their distance; it follows, that those parts of the sea which are immediately below the moon, must be drawn towards it; and consequently, wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the sea will be raised, which occasions the flowing of the tide there. A similar reason occasions the flowing of the tide likewise in those places where the moon is in the nadir, and which must be diametrically opposite to the former: for in the hemisphere farthest from the moon, the parts in the nadir being less attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate less towards the earth's centre, and consequently must be higher than the rest. Those parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir rise at the same time, the waters in their neighbourhood will press towards those places to maintain the equilibrium; to supply the places of these, others will move the same way, and so on to the places ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be lowest. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we
shall be sensible of the reason why the tides ebb and flow twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on this globe.

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

**Currents.** There are frequently streams or currents in the ocean, which set ships a great way beyond their intended course. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Islands, which always runs from north to south. A current runs constantly from the Atlantic, through the straits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean.

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

**Maps.** A map is the representation of the earth, or a part thereof, on a plane surface. Maps differ from the globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth; but a map, no more than a plane surface, can represent one that is spherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of several of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the representation will not fall very much short of the globe for exactness; because such maps, if joined together, would form a spherical convex nearly as round as the globe itself. The north is considered as the upper part of the map; the south is at the bottom, opposite to the north; the east is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the west on the left hand opposite to the east. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or lines of longitude: and from side to side, parallels of latitude. The outermost of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distance, &c. of places, may be found as on the artificial globe. Thus, to find the distance of two places, suppose London and Paris, by the map, we have only to measure the space between them with the compasses, or a bit of thread, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which shows that London is 210 miles distant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or south east or west, from one another, we have only to observe the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by turning these into miles, we obtain the distance without measuring. Rivers are described in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head of the spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests and woods are represented by a kind of shrub; bogs and morasses, by shades; sands and shallows are described by small dots; and roads usually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expressed by figures representing fathoms.

Maps and Charts, but particularly the latter, are sometimes drawn on Mercator’s projection, that is to say, with the meridians and parallels straight lines, and the former equidistant from one another. The degrees of longitude in every meridian are the same, while those of latitude are all unequal, being lengthened towards the poles. A chart of the world is annexed on this projection. We may farther remark, that in charts the sea is never shaded, in order that the rocks, islands, &c. may be more preceptible. The
admirers of elegant engraving will observe, that on the other hand the sea is entirely a shade in all the maps that illustrate this book, in order to afford a stronger contrast, and make the land more conspicuous.

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

The English statute mile consists of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs,
The Russian verst is little more than $\frac{3}{4}$ English.
The Turkish, Italian, and old Roman lesser mile, is nearly one English.
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.

PART. II.

OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

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

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

It appears, in general, from the first chapters in Genesis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous; that mankind had made considerable improvement in arts, and were become extremely vicious, both in their sentiments and manners. Their wickedness gave occasion to a memorable catastrophe, by which the whole human race

* The Samaritan copy of the Bible makes the antediluvian period only 1307 years, 349 short of the Hebrew Bible computation; and the Septuagint copy stretches it to 2262 years, which is 606 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of superior authority.
except Noah and his family, were swept from off the face of the earth. The
deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very
considerable change in the soil of the atmosphere of this globe, and gave
them a form less friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the
abridgement of the life of man, and that formidable train of diseases which has ever
since made such havoc in the world. A curious part of history follows that of the de-
lude, the re-peopling of the world, and the rising of a new generation from the ruins of
the former. The memory of the three sons of Noah, the first Founders of Nations, was
long preserved among their several descendants. Japhet continued famous among the
western nations, under the celebrated name of Iapetus; the Hebrews paid an equal ve-
neration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and among the Egyptians, Ham
was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter Hammon. It appears that
hunting was the principal occupation some centuries after the deluge. The world
seemed with wild beasts; and the great heroism of those times consisted in destroying
them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown; and, by the admiration which his
courage and dexterity universally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority
over his fellow creatures, and to found at Babylon the first monarchy whose ori-
gin is particularly mentioned in history. Not long after the foundation of Ni-
neveh was laid by Assur; in Egypt the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Mem-
phis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. That these
events should have happened so soon after the deluge, whatever surprise it may have
occassioned to the learned some centuries ago, need not in the smallest degree excite the
wonder of the present age. We have seen, from many instances, the powerful effects of
the principles of population, and how specially mankind increase, when the generative
faculty lies under no restraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incompara-
bly more extensive than those of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during that early age;
and yet these kingdoms are not supposed to have existed four centuries before the dis-
covery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and
to separate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated
or obscured. This occasioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a
chosen people. From this period the history of ancient nations begins a little B.C.
to expand itself; and we learn several particulars of very considerable im-
portance.

Mankind had not long been united into societies before they set themselves to op-
press and destroy one another. Chaderlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Persians, was
already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, must not have been very
considerable, since, in one of his expeditions, Abraham, assisted only by his household,
set upon him in his retreat, and after a fierce engagement, recovered all the spoil that
had been taken. Abraham was soon after obliged by a famine to leave Canaan, the
country where God had commanded him to settle, and to go into Egypt. This jour-
ney gives occasion to Moses to mention some particulars with regard to the Egyptians
and every stroke discovers the characters of an improved and powerful nation. The
court of the Egyptian monarch is described in the most brilliant colours. He is sur-
rounded with a crowd of courtiers, solely occupied in gratifying his passions. The par-
cular governments into which this country was divided, is now united under one
powerful prince: and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, became the founder of
a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine that all the laws which took place
in Egypt, and which have been so justly admired for their wisdom, were the work of
this early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many successive princes,
who laboured for their establishment and perfection. But, in the time of Jacob, two
centuries after, the first principles of civil order and regular government seem to have
been tolerably understood among the Egyptians. This country was divided into sev-
eral districts or separate departments; councils, composed of experienced and select per-
sons, were established for the management of public affairs; granaries for preserving
corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in this age enjoyed a commerce far from

* According to Dr Playfair's Chronological Tables, the birth of Abraham is fixed at before Christ 2030, and his being called out of Ur, at 1986.
INTRODUCTION.
inconsiderable. These facts, though of an ancient date, deserve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians, that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; and the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the present inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained separate for several centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, unless it be Ninus, the successor of Assur, who, fired with the spirit of conquest, extended the bounds of his kingdom, added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of that monarchy, which, raised to its meridian splendor by his enterprising successor Semiramis, and distinguished by the name of the Assyrian empire, kept Asia under the yoke for many ages. Javan, son of Japhet, and grand-son of Noah, is the stock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are descended. Javan established himself in the islands in the western coast of Asia Minor, from whence it was impossible that some wanderers should not pass over into Europe.

The kingdom of Sicyon near Corinth, founded by the Pelasgi, is generally supposed to have commenced in the year before Christ 2090. To these first inhabitants succeed a colony from Egypt, who, about 2000 years before the Christian era, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to establish monarchy in this country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was soon dissolved; and the ancient Greeks, who seem at this time to be as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again fell back into their lawless and savage manner of life. Several colonies, however, soon after passed over from Asia into Greece, and, by remaining in that country, produced a more considerable alteration in the manners of its inhabitants. The most ancient of these were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former settled in Argos and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his successors. Those of Inachus endeavoured to unite the dispersed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpose were not altogether unsuccessful.

But the history of the Israelites is the only one with which we are much acquainted during those ages. The train of curious events which occasioned the settling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt, of which Tanis was the capital, are universally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint version, 1794 years before Christ; but according to the Hebrew Chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the world 2335. This is a remarkable era with respect to nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks considered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly disfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period then in another point of view, and consider what we can learn from the sacred writings, with respect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations.

It is a common error among writers on this subject, to consider all the nations of antiquity as being on the same footing with regard to these matters. They find some nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude that all were in the same situation. They discover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wisdom of the first ages. There appears however to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in point of art and refinement, as between the civilized kingdoms of modern Europe, and the Indians in America, or the Negroes on the coast of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world: these he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their posterity. Those nations, therefore, who settled nearest the original seat of mankind, and who had the best opportunities to avail themselves of the knowledge which their great ancestor was possessed of, early formed themselves into regular societies, and made considerable improvements in the arts which are most subservient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the first ages of the world, Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan, and the instruments of husbandry, long before the discovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in sacred
writings. It is hardly to be supposed, that the ancient cities, both in Asia and in Egypt, whose foundation, as we have already mentioned, ascends to the remotest antiquity, could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations who live by hunting or pasturage only, lead a wandering life, and seldom fix their residence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture; and though we cannot trace the steps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached passages in sacred writ, ascertain the progress which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the history of civil society, that the commercial intercourse between men must be pretty considerable, before the metals came to be considered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the case even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which established this fact, that the use of money had not been of ancient date; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave silver, the metal is weighed in presence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this sort became more common, this practice was laid aside, and the quantity of silver was ascertained by a particular mark, which saved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the second from Abraham. The resitah, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, stamped with the figure of the lamb, and of a precise and stated value. It appears, from the history of Joseph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Ishmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, resembling the modern caravans, who carried spices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The same observation may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the best writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and also a contemporary with Jacob. He speaks of the roads of Tema and Saba, i.e. of the caravans which set out from those cities of Arabia. If we reflect, that the commodities of this country were rather the luxuries than the conveniences of life, we shall have reason to conclude, that the countries into which they were sent for sale, and particularly Egypt, were considerably improved in arts and refinement. That branch of the posterity of Noah who resided on the coasts of Palestine, were the first people of the world among whom navigation was made subservient to commerce; they were distinguished by a word which in the Hebrew language signifies merchants, and are the same nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phenicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they set themselves to better their situation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object; and with all the writers of Pagan antiquity, they pass for the inventors of whatever is subservient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his last words to his children; and, if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of such remote antiquity, the Phenicians had by this time navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, suppose the knowledge of several others; astronomy, for instance, or a knowledge of the situation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is necessary both to agriculture and navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and so of other arts. In fact, we find that before the death of Jacob, several nations were so well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to measure by them the duration of their year. It had been an universal custom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into the portion of a week, or seven days: this undoubtedly arose from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for those nations who led a pastoral life, or who lived under a serene sky, to observe that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks; hence the division of a month. Those people again who lived by agriculture, and who had gotten among them the division of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of these brought back the temperature of the air, or the same seasons: hence the origin of what is called the lunar year, which has every where taken place in the infancy of science. This, together with the observation of the fixed stars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, must have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the discovery of the solar year, which at that time would be thought an immense improvement in as-
tronomy. But with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered, that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Asia. Europe offers a frightful spectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in latter ages became the patterns of politeness and of every elegant art, were descended from a savage race of men, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and sometimes to one another! This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. Those descendants of Noah, who had removed to a great distance from the plains of Shinar, lost all connection with the civilized part of mankind. Their posterity became still more ignorant; and the human mind was at length sunk into an abyss of misery and wretchedness.

We might naturally expect, that from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and Assyria would emerge from their obscurity. This, however, is far from being the case: we only get a glimpse of them, and they disappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninus, who succeeded B.C. 1895. Semiramis and Ninus in the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the history of this empire, for no less than eight hundred years. The silence of ancient history on this subject, is commonly attributed to the softness and effeminacy of the successors of Ninus, whose lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wise princes pass unobserved and unrecorded. Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is supposed to have mounted the throne of Egypt, after Amenophis, who was swallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Christ 1492. By his assiduity and attention, the civil and military establishments of the Egyptians received very considerable improvements. Egypt, in the time of Sesostris, and his immediate successors, was, in all probability, the most powerful kingdom upon earth, and, according to the best calculation, is supposed to have contained twenty-seven millions of inhabitants. But ancient history often excites without gratifying our curiosity; for, from the reign of Sesostris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Christ 1781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge however from collateral circumstances, the country must still have continued in a very flourishing condition; for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into distant nations. Athens, that seat of learning and politeness, that school for all who aspire after wisdom, owes its foundation to Ceurops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilize the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the institutions which Ceurops established among the Athenians, it is easy to infer in what a condition they must have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are so barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beasts of the field, were propagated by accidental encounters, and with little knowledge of those to whom they owed their generation. Cranaus, who succeeded Ceurops B.C. 1276. in the kingdom of Attica, pursued the same beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wise institutions, to bridle the keen passions of a rude people.

Whilst these princes used their endeavours for civilizing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the East, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphiictyon, one of those uncommon geniuses who appear in the world, for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of posterity, to think of some expedient by which he might unite in one plan of politics the several independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from those intestine divisions which must render them a prey to one another, or to the first enemy who might think proper to invade them. These reflections he communicated to the kings, or leaders of the different territories; and by his eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preservation. Two deputies from each of those cities assembled twice a year at Thermopylae, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphiictyonic council. In this assembly, whatever related to the general interest of the confederacy, was discussed and finally determined. Amphiictyon likewise, sensible that those political connections are the most lasting which are strengthened by religion; committed to the Amphiictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which
from the dedications of those who consulted the oracle, had been amassed in it. This assembly, constituted on such solid foundations, was the great spring of action in Greece, while that country preserved its independence; and by the union which it inspired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties against all the force of the Persian empire. Considering the circumstances of the age in which it was instituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the most remarkable political establishment which ever took place among mankind. In the year before Christ 1322, the Isthmian games were instituted at Corinth; and in 1303 the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian, and Nemean, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar.

The Greek states, who formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual inroads and hostilities, soon began to act with concert, and to undertake distant expeditions for the general interest of the community. The first of these was the famous expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece appears to have been concerned. B.C. 1265. The object of the Argonauts, was to open the commerce of the Euxine sea, and to establish colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ship Argo, which was the Admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer, and other ancient writers, that several sail were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of those who conducted it, long tossed about on different coasts. The rocks, at some distance from the mouth of the Euxine sea, occasioned great labour; they sent forward a light vessel, which passed through, but returned with the loss of her rudder. This is expressed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their sending out a bird which returned with the loss of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obscurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at Eon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage which, considering the mean condition of the naval art during this age, was not less considerable than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern discoverers. From this expedition to that against Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, son of the Trojan king, the Greeks must have made a wonderful progress in power and opulence; no less than twelve hundred vessels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. These vessels, however, were but half decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their construction. If we add to these circumstances, that the Greeks had not the use of the saw, an instrument so necessary to the carpenter, a modern must form but a mean notion of the strength or elegance of this fleet.

Having thus considered the state of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumstances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our present undertaking, because it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progress of government, arts, and manners, which compose so great a part of our present work. There appears originally to have been a very remarkable resemblance between the political situation of the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who presided in the administration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being absolute. In each society there were a number of other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans, or tribes, was not less considerable than that of the king over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with one another, and sometimes with their sovereigns. Such a situation was, in all respects, extremely unfavourable; each particular state was, in miniature, what the whole country had been before the time of Amphipton. They required the hand of another delicate painter to shade the opposite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The history of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which these states, that, for want of union, were weak and insignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Thereus, king of Attica, about the year before Christ, 1234, had acquired great reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He saw the inconveniences to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed; and he conceived, that by means of the influence which his personal character, united to the royal authority with which he
was invested, had universally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpose he endeavoured to maintain, and even to encrease, his popularity among the peasants and artisans; he detached, as much as possible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them; he abolished the courts which had been established in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theseus, however, did not trust solely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by establishing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither strangers from all quarters, by the prospect of protection and privileges, he raised this city from an inconsiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The splendour of Athens and of Theseus now totally eclipsed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the state was united in one city, and under one sovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occasioned so much confusion, by being divested of all influence and consideration, became humble and submissive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

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

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian states, much about the same time assumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnecia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the last sovereign being overcome in single combat by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans abolished the regal power. Till the days however of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of seven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican spirit. Other cities of Greece, after the example of Thebes and Athens, erected themselves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival states, which, by means of the superiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deserve our particular attention. We have seen a tender shoot of liberty spring up in the city of Athens upon the death of Codrus, its last sovereign. This shoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be pleasant to observe its progress. The Athenians, by abolishing the name of king, did not entirely subvert the regal authority: they established a perpetual magistrate, who, under the name of Archon, was invested with almost the same rights which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians, in time, became sensible that the archonlic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free state. After it had continued, therefore, three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to lessen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by shortening its duration. The first period assigned for the continuance of the Archonship in the same hands, was three years. But the desire of the Athenians for a more perfect system of freedom than had hitherto been established, increased in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again called out for a fresh reduction of the power of their Archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual ma-
His laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again returned into confusion and disorder, and remained so till the time of Solon, who died in the year before Christ 549. The gentle manners, disinterested virtue, and wisdom more than human, by which this sage was distinguished, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the most important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, though this employment was assigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he should undertake it. At length, however, the motives of public utility overcame all considerations of private ease, safety, and reputation, and determined him to enter an ocean pregnant with a thousand dangers. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, excepting those relative to murder. The punishment of this crime could not be too great; but to consider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of right and wrong, and to render the law ineffectual by means of its severity. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law; his establishments on this head remained among the Athenians while they preserved their liberties. He seems to have set out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen should have an equal political importance, was a system of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed, and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office.

They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the last resort. But lest this assembly, which was composed of all the citizens, should, in the words of Plutarch, like a ship with too many sails, be exposed to the gust of folly, tumult, and disorder, he provided for its safety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The first of these courts consisted of four hundred persons, a hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the assembly of the people; the second, though but a court of justice, gained a prodigious ascendancy in the republic, by the wisdom and gravity of its members, who were not chosen, but after the strictest scrutiny, and the most serious deliberation.

Such was the system of government established by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will afford the more matter for our admiration. Upon the same plan most of the other ancient republics were established. To insist on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor instructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedaemon, had something in it so peculiar, that the great lines of it at least, ought not to be omitted even in a delineation of this sort. Sparta, like the other states of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the jurisdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is said to be the first king, about the year B. C. 1516. At length, the two brothers, Euristhenes and Procles, getting possession of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and, what is extremely singular, their posterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Christian era. The Spartan government, however, did not take that singular form which renders it so re-
INTRODUCTION.

B.C. 394. The plan of policy devised by Lycurgus, the celebrated legislator. The plan of Lycurgus, agreed with that already described in comprehend-
ing a senate and assembly of the people, and in general all those establishments which are deemed most requisite for the security of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whose office was hereditary, though their power was sufficiently circumscribed by proper checks and restraints. But the great characteristic of the Spartan constitution arose from this, that, in all laws, Lycurgus had at least as much respect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all sorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in short, which had the smallest tendency to soften the minds of the Spartans, was absolutely proscribed. They were forbidden the use of money, they lived at public tables on the coarsest fare, the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the more advanced in years, and all ranks capable to bear arms, were daily accustomed to the most painful exercises. To the Spartans alone, war was a relaxation rather than a hardship; and they behaved in it with a spirit of which hardly any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

In order to see the effect of these principles, and to connect under one point of view the history of the different quarters of the globe, we must now cast our eyes on Asia, and observe the events which happened in those great empires, of which we have so long lost sight. We have already mentioned in what obscurity the history of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period to the disso-
lution of their government by Cambyses of Persia, in the year B.C. 524, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wisdom of their laws, and political institutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of these seem to have been dictated by the true spirit of civil wisdom, and were admirably calculated for preserving order and good government in an extensive kingdom. The great empire of Assyria likewise, which had so long disappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the first instance we meet with in history, of a kingdom which fell asunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakness of its sovereigns. Sardanapalus, the last emperor of Assyria, neglecting the administration of affairs, and shutting himself up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his subjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raising their own fortune on the ruins of their master's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belesis governor of Babylon, conspire against their sovereign, set fire to his capital, in which Sardanapalus perished, B.C. 62, and divide between them his extensive dominions. These two kingdoms, sometimes united under one prince, and sometimes governed each by a particular sove-
reign, maintained the chief sway of Asia for many years. Phal revived the kingdom of Assyria, anno B.C. 777, and Shalmaneser, one of his successors, put an end to the kingdom of Israel, and carried the ten Tribes captive into Assyria and Media, B.C. 721. Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon also, in the year B.C. 587, overthrew the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and mastered all the countries around him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Persian yoke. The manners of this people, as brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its various departments, are elegantly described by Xenophon, a Grecian philosopher and historian. It is not necessary, however, that we should enter on the same detail upon this subject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, sufficient examples of monarchical governments; but how few are our republics! But the era of Cyrus is in one respect extremely remarkable, besides delivering the Jews from their captivity, because, with it the history of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention, may be supposed to finish. Let us consider then the genius of the Assyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and sciences; and if possible discover what progress they had made in those acquirements which are most subservient to the interests of society.

The taste for the great and magnificent, seems to have been the prevailing character of these nations; and they principally displayed it in their works of Architecture. There
are no vestiges, however, now remaining, which confirm the testimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works which adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finished. There are three pyramids, stupendous fabrics, still remaining in Egypt, at some leagues distant from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are supposed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largest is five hundred feet in height, and each side of the base six hundred and ninety-three feet in length. The apex is 13 feet square. The second stands on as much ground as the first, but is 40 feet lower. It was a superstition among this people, derived from the earliest times, that even after death the soul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the custom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body such vegetables as experience had discovered to be the greatest preservatives against putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the same view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as these superstitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably secure a safe and comfortable retreat for their souls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the East, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were really superb and magnificent structures, but totally void of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the constructing of vaults. The arts in which these nations, next to architecture, principally excelled, were sculpture and embroidery. As to the sciences, they had all along continued to bestow their principal attention on astronomy. It does not appear, however, that they made great progress in explaining the causes of the phenomena of the universe, or indeed in any species of rational and sound philosophy. To demonstrate this to an intelligent reader, it is sufficient to observe, that, according to the testimony of sacred and profane writers, the absurd reveries of magic and astrology, which always decrease in proportion to the advancement of true science, were in high esteem among them during the latest period of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and afforded without much labour all the necessaries, and even the luxuries of life. They had long been accustomed to a civilized and polished life in great cities. These circumstances had taintet their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an easy prey to the Persians, a nation just emerging from barbarism, of consequence brave and warlike.

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

Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, with an immense army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions one hundred thousand men. This account has been justly considered by some ingenious modern writers as incredible. The truth cannot now be ascertained; but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the most probable, from the great extent of his empire, and
the absurd practice of the eastern nations of encumbering their camp with a superfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated by sea and land, and escaped to Asia in a fishing-boat. Such was the spirit of the Greeks, and so well did they know that "wanting virtue, life is pain and woe; that wanting "liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks around for happiness in vain." But though the Persian war concluded gloriously for the Greeks, it is in a great measure to this war that the subsequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they suffered the loss of so many brave men, but those in which they acquired an immensity of Persian gold: It was not their enduring so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connexions with the Persians after the conclusion of it, which subverted the Grecian establishments, and ruined the most virtuous confederacy that ever existed upon earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories; delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another; their quarrels were fomented by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedaemonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other states of Greece. They continued to weaken themselves by these intestine divisions, till Philip, king of Macedon, (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of that prince, became important and powerful), rendered himself the absolute master of Greece, by the battle of Cheronea. But this conquest is one of the first we meet with in ancient history which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his scheme so deeply, and by bribery, promises, and intrigues, gained over such a number of considerable persons in the several states of Greece to his interest, that another day would have put in his possession what Cheronea had denied him. The Greeks had lost that virtue which was the basis of their confederacy. Their popular governments served only to give a sanction to their licentiousness and corruption. The principal orators, in most of their states, were bribed in the service of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demosthenes, assisted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more seductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, used the surest method of winning their affections.

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

The bare name of illustrious men who flourished in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the highest pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawning of this glorious day. Though the eastern nations had raised magnificent and stupendous structures, the Greeks were the first people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Ephesian Diana, are the first monuments of good taste. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who settled in Asia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the first sculptor whose works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Timanthes, during the same
SKETCH OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY.

age, first discovered the powers of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished 1000 years before the Christian era, the tragic poets, \( \text{\textalpha} \text{eschylus}, \) Sophocles, and Eury- pides, were the first considerable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave simplicity and elegance to prosaic writing. Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony, but it was left to Thucydides and Demosthenes to discover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not, however, in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every species of philosophy was cultivated among them with the utmost success. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtues of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration; his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be put on a footing with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which these philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could divine. But whatever some vain empirics in learning may pretend, the most learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking and manner of expression. But the Greeks were not less distinguished for their active than for their speculative talents. It would be endless to recount the names of their famous statesmen and warriors, and it is impossible to mention a few without doing injustice to a greater number. War was first reduced to a science by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardour for glory, and not from a dread of their superiors. We have seen the effects of this military virtue in their wars against the Persians; the cause of it was the wise laws which Amphictyion, Solon, and Lycurgus, had established in Greece. But we must now leave this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important as their territory was inconsiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are still more interesting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they stand to those of Modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman state, when we view him as the leader of a few lawless and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme insignificance. But when we consider him as the founder of an empire as extensive as the world, and whose progress and decline have occasioned the two greatest revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being interested in his conduct. His disposition was extremely martial; and the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts, afforded a noble field for the display of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandise themselves, but even to subsist. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may observe the same maxims by which the Romans afterwards became masters of the world. Instead of destroying the nations he had subjected, he united them to the Roman state, whereby Rome acquired a new accession of strength from every war she undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumstance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of the art or the arms they employed, any considerable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the use of that weapon, and improved the military system of the Romans by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both these maxims, by means of which the Roman state arrived at such a pitch of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, instantly threw aside the latter, and made use of the Sabine buckler; in fighting against other states. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He instituted what was called the Senate, a court originally composed of a hundred persons, distinguished for their wisdom and experience. He enacted laws for the administration of justice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly passions of his followers: and, after a long reign, spent in promoting
the civil military interests of his country, was, according to the most probable con-
jecture, privately assassinated by some of the members of that Senate which he
himself had instituted.

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

The Romans, now secure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turn their
eyes abroad, and meet with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This state had been
founded or enlarged on the coast of the Mediterranean in Africa, some time before
Rome, by a colony of Phenicians, anno B.C. 869, and, according to the practice of
their mother-country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatness.

Carthage, in this design, had proved wonderfully successful. She now commanded
both sides of the Mediterranean. Besides that of Africa, which she almost entirely pos-
sessed, she had extended herself on the Spanish sides through the Straits. Thus mistress
of the sea, and of commerce, she had seized on the islands of Corsica and Sardinia.

B.C. Sicily had difficulty to defend itself; and the Romans were too nearly threaten-
264. ed not to take up arms. Hence a succession of hostilities between these rival
states, known in history by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians,
with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage
was a powerful republic when Rome was an inconsiderable state; but she was now be-
come corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political constitution.

Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already men-
tioned, was composed of soldiers. The first war with Carthage lasted twenty-three
years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea, with which they had hith-
terto been unacquainted. A Carthaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used
it for a model; in three months fitted out a fleet, and the consul Duilius, who
fought their first naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpose to men-
tion all the transactions of these wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman
general, may give us an idea of the spirit which then animated this people. Being
taken prisoner in Africa, he is sent back on his parole to negotiate a change of pri-
soners. He maintains in the senate, the propriety of that law which cut off
from those who suffered themselves to be taken, all hopes of being saved; and
returns to a certain death.

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

After the conquest of Carthage, Rome had inconsiderable wars, but great victories; before this time its wars were great; and its victories inconsiderable. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander the Great. Their scene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the East. The states of Greece had once more disengaged themselves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Acheans, and Boiotians; each of these was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. The Etolians were the most considerable of them all. The kings of Macedon maintained that superiority, which, in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally possessed over his less powerful neighbours. Philip, the present monarch, had rendered himself odious to the Greeks, by some unpopular and tyrannical steps; the Etolians were most irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their assistance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garrisons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the states of Greece became their dependents. The Etolians, discovering their first error, endeavoured to remedy it by another still more dangerous to themselves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece; to defend them against king Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them against the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourse to the same prince, who was at this time the most powerful monarch in the East, and the successor to the dominions of Alexander in Asia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice so much as that of the Etolians; for, instead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be the most vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a small body of troops, and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Asia. In this war the Romans made use of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now pursue Antiochus, the last object of their resentment, into Asia, and having vanquished him by sea and land, compel him to submit to an infamous treaty.
In these conquests the Romans still allowed the ancient inhabitants to possess their territory: they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people; which denomination, however, under a specious name, concealed a condition very servile, and inferred that they should submit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on these easy conquests, we have reason to be astonished at the resistance which the Romans met with from Mithridates, king of Pontus, for the space of 26 years. But this monarch had great resources. His kingdom bordered on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, abounded in a race of men whose minds were not enervated by pleasure, and whose bodies were firm and vigorous, and he gave the Romans more trouble than even Hannibal.

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

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

Julius Caesar at length appears. By subduing the Gauls, he gained his country the most useful conquest it ever made. Pompey, his own rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharsalia. Caesar appears victorious almost at the same time all over the world: in Egypt, in Asia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain:
conqueror on all sides, he is acknowledged master at Rome; and in the whole empire. Brutus and Cassius think to give Rome her liberty, by stabbing him in the senate-house. But though they thereby deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls into the hands of Mark Antony; young Caesar Octavius, nephew to Julius Caesar, wrests it from him by the sea-fight at Actium, and there is no Brutus or Cassius to put an end to his life. Those friends of liberty had killed themselves in despair; and Octavius, under the name of Augustus, and title of Emperor, remained the undisturbed master of the empire. During these civil commotions, the Romans still preserved the glory of their arms among distant nations; and while it was unknown who should be master of Rome, the Romans were, without dispute, the masters of the world. Their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Persian, the Greek, the Assyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No sooner therefore, was Octavius established on the throne, than ambassadors from all quarters of the known world crowded to make their submissions. Æthiopia sue for peace; the Parthians, who had been a most formidable enemy, court his friendship; India seeks his alliance; Pannonia acknowledges him; Germany dreads him; and the Weser receives his laws. Victorious by sea and-land, he shuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power, and Jesus Christ comes into the world four years before the common era.

Having thus traced the progress of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to say a few words with regard to the arts, sciences, and manners of that people. During the first ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect, or rather contempt, of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politics, and agriculture, were the only arts they studied, because they were the only arts they esteemed. But, upon the downfall of Carthage, the Romans having no enemy to dread from abroad, began to taste the sweets of security, and to cultivate the arts. Their progress, however, was not gradual, as in the other countries we have described. The conquest of Greece at once put them in possession of every thing most rare, curious, or elegant. Asia, which was the next victim, offered all its stores; and the Romans, from the most simple people, speedily became acquainted with the arts, the luxuries, and refinements of the whole earth. Eloquence they had always cultivated as the high road to honour and preferment. The orations of Cicero are inferior only to those of Demosthenes. In poetry, Virgil yields only to Homer, whose verse, like the prose of Demosthenes, may be considered as inimitable. Horace, however, in his Satires and Epistles, had no model among the Greeks, and stands to this day unrivalled in that species of writing. In history, the Romans can boast of Livy, who possesses all the natural ease of Herodotus, and is more descriptive, more eloquent, and sentimental. Tacitus, indeed, did not flourish in the Augustan age, but his works do himself the greatest honour, while they disgrace his country and human nature, whose corruptions and vices he paints in the most striking colours. In philosophy, if we except the works of Cicero, and the system of the Greek philosopher Epicurus, described in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during the time of the republic, made not the least attempt. In tragedy they never produced any thing excellent; and Terence, though remarkable for purity of style, wants that vis comica, or lively vein of humour, that distinguishes the Greek comedians, and our Shakespeare.

We now return to our history, and are arrived at an era which presents us with a set of Monsters, under the name of Emperors, whose histories, a few excepted, disgrace human nature. They did not indeed abolish the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguished its liberties; and while they were practising the most unwarrantable cruelties upon their subjects, they themselves were the slaves of their soldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Augustus, became the most despotic empire that ever subsisted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only recall to our mind the situation of Turkey at present. It is of no importance therefore to consider the character of the emperors, since they had no power but what arose from a mercenary standing army; nor to enter into a detail with regard to the transactions of the court, which were direct.
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e] with that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which universally prevail under a despotic government. When it is said that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Asia. A more difficult task still remained for the emperors, to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though these countries had been discovered, they were not effectually subdued by the Roman generals. These nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the superiority of their discipline than of their courage that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are described by Tacitus, and from his accounts though a Roman, it is easy to discover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they submitted to a foreign yoke. From the obstinate resistance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in subduing the other nations of Europe. The contests were on both sides bloody; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste, the inhabitants perished in the field, many were carried into slavery, and but a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. The situation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happiness of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourse with the Romans, acquired some taste for the arts, sciences, language, and manners of their new masters. These, however, were but miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of their arms, for being overshadowed by mercenary soldiers kept in pay to restrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumstance which could support them under these complicated calamities, was the hope of seeing better days.

The Roman empire, now stretched out to such an extent, had lost its spring and force. It contained within itself the seeds of dissolution; and the violent irritations of the Gotis, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various parts of Germany, which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries in Europe, and the north-west of Asia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that restlessness, which actuates the minds of barbarians, and makes them move from home in quest of plunder, or new settlements. The first invaders met with a powerful resistance from the superior discipline of the Roman legions; but this, instead of daunting men of a strong and impetuous temper, only roused them to vengeance. They return to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniences and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or blessed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they have fought, or the friends they had lost, and warm them with resentment against their opponents. Great bodies of armed men (says an elegant historian, in describing this scene of desolation) with their wives and children, and slaves and flocks, issued forth, like regular colonies, in quest of new settlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deserted, were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. These in their turn, pushed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increasing, rolled on, and swept every thing before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred and what was profane. They respected no age, or sex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was the most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the Great, A. D. 395, to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The contemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, labour and are at a loss for expressions to describe the horror of it. *The scourge of God! the destroyer of nations!* are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders.

Constantine, who was emperor at the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Christianity, changed the seat of empire from Rome to that of Constan-
tinople. This occasioned a prodigious alteration. The western and eastern provinces were separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns. 

The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the East, threw down the western barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders. Rome (now known by the name of the Western Empire, in contradistinction of Constantiinothe, which, from its situation, was called the Eastern Empire,) weakened by this division, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, is seated on the throne of the Caesars. These irruptions into the empire were gradual and successive.

The immense fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages, and several centuries were employed in demolishing it. The ancient discipline of the Romans, in military affairs, was so efficacious, that the remains of it descended to their successors, and must have proved an overmatch for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the universal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loss to find new provocatives. The most distant regions were explored, the ingenuity of man-kind was exercised, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite dish. The tyranny and the universal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or, as they were called, Caesars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of those nations who overcame them.

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

From this period, till the 16th century, Europe exhibited a picture of most melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, science, taste, were words scarcely in use during these ages. Persons of the highest rank, and in the most eminent stations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not understand the Breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; some of them could scarcely read it. The human mind, neglected, uncultivated, and depressed, sunk into the most profound ignorance. The superior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the 9th century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the same century, endeavoured to dispel this darkness, and gave their subjects a short glimpse of light. But the ignorance of the age was too powerful for their efforts and institutions. The darkness returned, and even increased; so that a still greater degree of ignorance and barbarism prevailed throughout Europe.

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

The usurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a state of actual servitude. They were deprived of the natural and most unalienable rights of humanity. They were slaves fixed to the soil which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by sale or by conveyance. Every offended baron or chieftain buckled on his armour, and sought redress at the head of his vassals. His adversaries met him in like hostile array. The kindred and dependents of the aggressor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neutral.
The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachment of their nobles with impatience. In order to create some power that might counterbalance those potent vassals, who while they enslaved the people, controlled or gave laws to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. These privileges abolished all marks of servitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations or bodies politic, to be governed by a council, and magistrates of their own nomination. The acquisition of liberty made such a happy change in the condition of mankind, as roused them from the stupidity and inaction into which they had been sunk by the wretchedness of their former state. A spirit of industry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flourish.

Various causes contributed to revive this spirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourse between different nations. Constantinople, the capital of the Eastern or Greek empire, had escaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the West. In this city some remains of literature and science were preserved: this too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where some relish for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. They communicated some knowledge of these to their neighbours in Italy; and the crusades, which were begun by the Christian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jerusalem, opened a communication between Europe and the East. Constantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Christian armies in their way to Palestine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of these expeditions was conquest, and not commerce, and though the issue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were beneficial and permanent.

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

Whilst the Italians in the south of Europe cultivated trade with such industry and success, the commercial spirit awakened in the north towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations round the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infested that sea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, soon after they had begun to open some trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived such advantage from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a short time, eighty of the most considerable cities, scattered through those large countries of Germany and Flanders, which stretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the Hanseatic League; which became so formidable that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greatest monarchs. The members of this powerful association formed the first systematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general assemblies. They supplied the rest of Europe with naval stores, and pitched on different towns, the most eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, where they established staples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not less useful commodities of the North.

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

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

The Christian princes, after their great losses in the crusades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendship of the great khans of Tartary, whose fame in arms had reached the most remote corners of Europe and Asia, that they might be some check upon the Turks, who had been such enemies to the Christian name; and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers, serving occasionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the finest countries of Asia.

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

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the rising power of the Turks, had checked their progress, the Christian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vast riches of the East Indies, inspired their countrymen with a spirit of adventure and discovery, and were the first that rendered a passage thither by sea probable and practicable. The Portuguese had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

At first they contented themselves with short voyages, creeping along the coast of Africa, discovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progress southward, they in the year 1497, were so fortunate as to sail beyond the Cape, which opened a passage by sea to the eastern ocean, and all those countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portuguese were intent upon a passage to India by the east, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of sailing thither by the west. His proposal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and absurd, he laid his schemes successively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better success. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the heart of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expense, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only resource; and there after eight years attendance he at length succeeded, thorough the interest of queen Isabella. This princess was prevailed upon to patronize him by the representation of Juan Perez, guardian of the monastery of Rabida. He was a man of considerable learning, and of some credit with queen Isabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his personal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in con-
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In conjunction with a physician settled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his skill in mathematical knowledge. This investigation completely satisfied them of the solidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of success in executing the plan which he proposed; Perez, therefore, so strongly recommended it to queen Isabella, that she entirely entered into the scheme, and even generously offered, to the honour of her sex, to pledge her own jewels in order to raise as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the sum that was requisite, that the queen might not be reduced to the necessity of having recourse to that expedient.

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

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkness into which she had been sunk since the subversion of the Roman empire. These discoveries, from which such wealth was destined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were succeeded by others of unspeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and sciences; and, lastly, the happy reformation in religion, all distinguished A.D. the 15th and 16th centuries as the first era of modern history. It was in these ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political system, in which each took a station, wherein it has since remained, with less variation than could have been expected, after the shocks occasioned by so many internal revolutions, and so many foreign wars, of which we have given some account in the history of each particular state, in the following work.

PART III.

OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

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

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

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

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

One thing, however, may be observed, that the polytheism of the ancients seems neither to have been the fruit of philosophical speculations, nor of disfigured traditions concerning the nature of the divinity. It seems to have arisen during the rudest ages of society, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and passion. It was built, therefore, solely upon sentiment; as each tribe of men had their heroes, so likewise they had their gods. Those heroes who led them forth to the combat, who presided in their councils, whose image was engraven on the fancy, whose exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an existence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendship, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot easily conceive: but the power of imagination over the senses is what all men have in some degree experienced. Combine these two causes, and it will not appear strange that the image of departed heroes should have been seen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the same functions which they performed when alive. An appearance so unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil spirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity, and the testimony of those who had seen it, supported by the extreme credulity and romantic cast of those who had not, gained an universal assent among all the members of their society. A small degree of reflection, however, would be sufficient to convince them, that as their own heroes existed after death, it might likewise be the case of those of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be established, the propitious and the hostile; the gods who were to be loved, and those who were to be feared. But time, which wears off the impressions of tradition, and the frequent invasions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, desolated, or transplanted, made them lose the names and confound the characters of those two orders of divinities, and form various systems of religion, which, though warped by a thousand particular circumstances, gave no small indications of their first texture and original materials. For, in general, the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof of human infirmity. They were subject to all the passions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many instances discovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the same substances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambrosia; they had a particular pleasure in smelling the steam of the sacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worshipped, naturally resulted from their character. The most enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the same notion of gods and religion, with those that are to be met with in the poems of Hesiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flourished B. C. 430 years, was the first even in Greece that publicly announced the existence of one Creator and Governor of the universe.

It must be observed, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected, either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical societies, whose principles do not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined also had their's
INTRODUCTION.

and there was room enough in the universe for both to live together in good fellowship, without interfering or jostling with one another.

The introduction of Christianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the service he required of men, produced a total alteration in their religious sentiments and belief. But this is not the place for handling this sublime subject. It is sufficient to observe here, that a religion which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no association with false gods, must either be altogether destroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the case. Christianity made its way among the civilized part of mankind, by the sublimity of its doctrine and precepts; it required not the aid of human power; it sustained itself by the truth and wisdom by which it was characterised. But in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, of maxims very inconsistent with the precepts of its divine Author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

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

EUROPE, though the least extensive quarter of the globe, containing, according to Zimmerman, 2,627,574* square miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world, in the other quarters, are estimated at 27,987,457 square miles, is, in many respects, that which most deserves our attention. There the human mind has made the greatest progress towards improvement; and there the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the sciences both military and civil, have been carried to the greatest perfection. If we except the earliest ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greatest variety of character, government, and manners, and from whence we draw the greatest number of facts and memorials, either for our entertainment or instruction.

Geography discovers to us two circumstances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a considerable tendency in giving it the superiority over the rest of the world. First, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and secondly, the great variety of its surface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immense number of mountains, rivers, seas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from one another, is likewise extremely commodious for its inhabitants. These natural boundaries check the progress of conquest or despotism, which has always been so rapid in the extensive plains of Africa and the East; the seas and rivers facilitate the intercourse and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human industry and invention, than the natural unsolicited luxuriance of more fertile soils. There is no part of Europe so diversified in its surface, so interrupted by natural boundaries or divisions, as Greece: and we have seen that it was there the human mind began to know and to avail itself of its strength, and that many of the arts, subservient to utility or pleasure, were invented or at least greatly improved. What Greece therefore was with regard to Europe, Europe itself is with regard to the rest of the globe.

The Christian religion is established throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which speculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by persons of different educations and passions, that religion is divided into a number of different sects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1st, The Greek church; 2d, Popery; 3d, Protestantism: which last is again divided into Lutheranism and Calvinism, so called from Luther and Calvin, the two distinguished reformers of the 16th century.

The languages of Europe are divided into the six following: the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Schavonic, and Gothic.

EUROPE is situated between the 10th degree west, and 65th degree east longitude from London, and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen ocean; on the east by Asia; on the south by the Mediterranean sea, which divides it from Africa; and on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America, being 3000 miles long, from Cape St Vincent in the south, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-east; and 2500 broad from north to south, from the North Cape in Norway, to Cape Caglia or Mataphan in the Morea, the most southern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and states, which are placed in the table according to their relative situations, the most northerly being the first.

* See Zimmerman's Political Survey of Europe, p. 5.
### Table of the Kingdoms and States of Europe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Bth.</th>
<th>Len.</th>
<th>Chief City</th>
<th>Dist. &amp; Bear from London</th>
<th>Diff. of Time from London</th>
<th>Religions</th>
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<td><strong>Dan. Dom.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>Bergen</td>
<td>540 N.</td>
<td>0 24 bef.</td>
<td>Lutherans</td>
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<tr>
<td>Denmärk</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>Copenhagen</td>
<td>500 N. E.</td>
<td>0 50 bef.</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Sweden</strong></td>
<td>800</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>Stockholm</td>
<td>750 N. E.</td>
<td>1 10 bef.</td>
<td>Lutherans</td>
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<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>1100</td>
<td>Petersburgh</td>
<td>1140 N. E.</td>
<td>2 4 bef.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Scot.</strong></td>
<td>270</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>Edinburgh</td>
<td>400 N.</td>
<td>0 12 aft.</td>
<td>Calvinists, &amp;c.</td>
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<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>London</td>
<td>270 N. W.</td>
<td>0 26 aft.</td>
<td>Lutherans, Calvin. &amp;c.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>France</strong></td>
<td>660</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>Paris</td>
<td>260 S. E.</td>
<td>0 9 bef.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hol. or Batav. Republic.</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
<td>180 E.</td>
<td>0 18 bef.</td>
<td>Calvinists</td>
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<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>609</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>Vienna</td>
<td>600 E.</td>
<td>1 5 bef.</td>
<td>R. Cath. Luth. Calv.</td>
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<tr>
<td>K. of Prussia's Dominions</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>Berlin</td>
<td>510 E.</td>
<td>0 49 bef.</td>
<td>Lutherans, Calvinists</td>
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<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>Berne, Coire, &amp;c.</td>
<td>420 S. E.</td>
<td>0 28 bef.</td>
<td>Calvinists &amp; R. Cath.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>Madrid</td>
<td>800 S.</td>
<td>0 17 aft.</td>
<td>Roman Catholics</td>
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<td>Portugal</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Lisbon</td>
<td>650 S. W.</td>
<td>0 38 aft.</td>
<td>Roman Catholics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kingdom of Italy</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>Milan</td>
<td>550 S. E.</td>
<td>0 37 bef.</td>
<td>Roman Catholics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Etruria</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>Florence</td>
<td>690 S. E.</td>
<td>0 44 bef.</td>
<td>Roman Catholics</td>
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<tr>
<td>State of the Church.</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>820 S. E.</td>
<td>0 50 bef.</td>
<td>Roman Catholics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>910 S. E.</td>
<td>0 57 bef.</td>
<td>Roman Catholics</td>
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<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>690</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>Constantinople</td>
<td>1320 S. E.</td>
<td>1 56 bef.</td>
<td>Mahometan &amp; Gr. Ch.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Besides the **British Isles**, Europe contains the following principal Islands:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Islands</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
<th>Subject to</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>In the Northern Ocean.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>Skalhoit</td>
<td>Denmark.</td>
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<td>Zeeland, Funen, Als, Falster, Langland, Lapland, Fæmøren, Moen, Bornholm.</td>
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<td><strong>Baltic Sea</strong></td>
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<td>Gothland, Aland, Rugen, Osland</td>
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<td>Osel, Dagho,</td>
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<td>Usedom, Wollin,</td>
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<td><strong>Mediterranean Sea</strong></td>
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<td>Ivica</td>
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<td>Majorca</td>
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<td>Minorca,</td>
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<td>Corsica,</td>
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<td>Sicily,</td>
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<td><strong>Adriatic, or Gulph of Venice</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Congo, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, St Maura,</td>
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<td>Paxa, Theatic,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Candia, Rhodes, Nécropon, Lemnos, Tenedos, Sycros, Mytilene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Santorin, &amp;c. being part of ancient and modern Greece.</td>
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<td><strong>Archipelago, and Levant Seas.</strong></td>
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DANISH DOMINIONS.

The dominions of Denmark consist of Greenland, Iceland, and the Ferro Islands; Danish Lapland, Norway, Denmark Proper, and Holstein in Germany. The dimensions and Chief Towns of each are as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Breaths</th>
<th>Chief Cities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greenland, Iceland, Ferro Islands,</td>
<td>43,264</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>Skalholt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lapland, Norway, Denmark, Jutland, Sleswick, Zealand, Funen, Falster, Lolland, Langeland, Femeren, Alsen, Moen, Bornholm,</td>
<td>28,000</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>Wardhuys.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>112,000</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>Bergen.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>6,866</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>Viberg.</td>
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<td>2,640</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>Sleswick.</td>
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<td>2,112</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Copenhagen.</td>
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<td>1,376</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Odense.</td>
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<td>150</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Nykobing.</td>
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<td>210</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Naskow.</td>
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<td>70</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Rudkipping.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Burg.</td>
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<td>54</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sunderborge.</td>
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<td>40</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Stege.</td>
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<td>160</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Ronne.</td>
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<td>27,581</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>Gluckstadt.</td>
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</table>

GREENLAND

Is the first country in the above table. Its dimensions are not ascertained. It is more than probable that it is no island, as it was long supposed to be but united to the Continent of America. In either case it more properly belongs to that quarter of the globe; but we have preferred to follow the former editions of this work, in giving the short account obtained of it, under the territories of Denmark. To the south it terminates in a point called Cape Farewell, in north latitude 59° 38', west longitude 42° 40'; on the south-east it is washed by the Atlantic; and on the east it is bounded by the icy sea, and the strait which separates it from Iceland, from which it is distant about 200 miles; to the north its limits are not ascertained.

CLIMATE AND PRODUCTIONS.] The climate is extremely severe, the greater part of it being almost continually covered with ice and snow. Among the vegetables of this cold country are sorrell, Angelica, wild tansy, and scurvy grass. The trees are some small junipers, willows, and birch.

INHABITANTS.] By the latest accounts from the missionaries employed for the conversion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 stated inhabitants: Mr Crantz, however, thinks the roving southlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great resemblance between the aspect, manners, and dress of those natives, and the Esquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the pains which the Danish and German missionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They are low of stature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not so tall. The hair of their heads is long, straight, and of a black colour; but they have seldom any beards, because it is their constant practice to root them out. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the
women, who are obliged to carry great burthens from their younger years. They are
very light and nimble of foot, and can also use their hands with much skill and dexterity.
They are not very lively in their tempers, but they are good humoured, friendly, and un-
concerned about futurity. Their most agreeable food is the flesh of rein-deer; but that is
now scarce among them, and their best provisions are fish, seals, and sea-fowl. Their drink
is clear water, which stands in the house in a large copper vessel, or in a wooden tub,
which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fish bones and rings, and pro-
duced with a pewter ladle or dish. The men make their hunting and fishing implements,
and prepare the wood work of their boats: and the women cover them with skins.
The men hunt and fish, but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble
themselves no farther about it; nay it would be accounted beneath their dignity only to
draw the seal up upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and also the
curriers to dress the pelts, and make cloathes, shoes, and boots, out of them; so that
they are likewise both shoemakers and tailors. The women also build and repair the
houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenter's
work. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly severe; but Mr
Cranitz, who has given us the latest and best accounts of this country, says that, in their
longest summer days it is so hot, from the long continuance of the sun's rays, that the
inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments. They have no trade,
though they have a most improveable fishery upon their coasts; but they employ all
the year either in fishing or hunting; in which they are very dexterous, particularly in
catching and killing seals.

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

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

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

When they come near the whale, the harpooner strikes him with his harpoon (a bar-
bed dart), and the monster, finding himself wounded, runs swiftly down into the deep,
and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line fast enough; and
to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the
side of it, one wets it constantly with a mop. After the whale has run some hundred
fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes such a terrible noise with
his spouting, that some have compared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears
on the surface of the water, some of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, where-
upon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a second time, they pierce
him with spears in the vital parts, till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water,
beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is all in a foam, the boats continuing
to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength; and when he is dying he turns
himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore or to the ship, if they be at a distance from
the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if
they have conveniences on shore; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them
home; but nothing can smell stronger than these ships do. Every fish is computed to
yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. The Dutch
were formerly the greatest fishers, but the riches of these seas are now mostly gathered
by English vessels.
EUROPE... DANISH DOMINIONS.

Spitzbergen was long considered as united to this country, and was called East Greenland, but it is now known to be a cluster of islands between 76° and 80° North Latitude, and 0° and 24° East Longitude. It was discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; or, according to others, by Barenty the Dutch navigator in 1596. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from its lofty and rugged rocks: The principal island is about 300 miles in length. The Russians claim this country, and maintain a colony in it.

ICELAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles
Length 350 \{ between \{ 63° and 67° N. Latitude.
Breadth 240 \{ 16° and 25° W. Longitude.

Containing 43,264 square miles, with somewhat more than one inhabitant to each.

Climate.] THIS country, lying partly within the frigid zone, and being liable to be surrounded with vast quantities of ice that come from the Polar seas, is on account of the coldness of its climate very inhospitable, but much more so for other reasons. It is exceedingly subject to earthquakes; and so full of volcanoes, that the little part of it which appears fit for the habitation of man, seems almost totally laid waste by them. The climate of Iceland, however, is not unwholesome, or naturally subject to excessive colds, notwithstanding its northerly situation.

Population, inhabitants, manners, and customs.] At what time the island of Iceland was first peopled is uncertain. An English colony indeed is said to have been settled there in the beginning of the fifth century; but of this there are not sufficient proofs. There is, however, reason to suppose that the English and Irish were acquainted with this country under another name, long before the arrival of the Norwegians; for the celebrated Bede gives a pretty accurate description of the island. But of these original inhabitants we cannot pretend to say anything, as the Iceland chronicles go no further back than the arrival of the Norwegians. Besides the Norwegians, new colonies arrived from different nations, between whom wars soon commenced; and the Icelandic histories are full of the accounts of their battles. Notwithstanding these troubles, however, the Icelanders remained free from a foreign yoke till 1261; when the greatest part of them put themselves under the protection of Hakans king of Norway, promising to pay him tribute upon certain conditions agreed on between them; and the rest followed their example in 1264. Afterwards, Iceland, together with Norway, became subject to Denmark. They were at first governed by an admiral, who was sent there every year to make the necessary regulations; but for these many years, a governor has been appointed who is styled Stiftsamtmann, and who constantly resides in the country.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland is computed at about 60,000, which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been destroyed by contagious diseases. The plague carried off many thousands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have also been depopulated by famine; for though the Icelanders cannot in general be said to be in want of necessary food, yet the country has several times been visited by great famines. These have been chiefly occasioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the grass from growing, and puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small-pox has likewise been very fatal here; for in the years 1707 and 1768 that disease destroyed 16,000 persons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-sized, and well made, though not very strong. They are an honest, well intentioned people, moderately industrious, and are very faithful and obliging. Theft is seldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hospitality, and exercise it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fishing and the care of their cattle. On the coasts the men employ their
time in fishing both winter and summer, and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather, work at several mechanic trades, and some few work in gold and silver. They likewise manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, which they call Wadmal. They have an uncommonly strong attachment to their native country, and think themselves no where else so happy. An Icelandr, therefore, seldom settles in Copenhagen, though the most advantageous conditions should be offered him. Their dispositions are serious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never pass a river, or any other dangerous place, without previously taking off their hats, or imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preservation when they have passed the danger. The dress of the Icelanders is not elegant nor ornamental, but is neat, cleanly, and suited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear several gold, silver, or brass rings. The poorer women dress in the coarse cloth, called Wadmal, and always wear black: those who are in better circumstances wear broad cloth, with silver ornaments, gilt. The houses of the Icelanders are generally bad: in some places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raised over lava, with moss stuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with sods laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales. The walls are about three yards high, and the entrance somewhat lower. Instead of glass windows, they make use of the membranes which surround the womb of the ewe. These are stretched on a hoop, and laid over a hole in the roof. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel up the earth between three stones, and the smoke issues from a square hole in the top of the house. Their food principally consists of dried fish, sour butter, which they consider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is so scarce among them, that there is hardly any peasant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

RELIGION.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran, which was established in 1551. The churches on the east, south, and west quarters of the island, are under the jurisdiction of the bishop of Skallholt (the capital of the island), and those of the north quarter are subject to the bishop of Hoolum. The island is divided into 199 parishes, of which 127 belong to the see of Skallholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum.

LANGUAGE.] The language in Iceland is the same as that formerly spoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preserved so pure that any Icelandr understands their most ancient traditional histories: The Lord's prayer in Icelandic is as follows: Foder vor som est i Himlum; I hall gad warde thitt nana. Tilkomme thitt Rikie. Skie thitt vilie so som i Himi malam so og po Jordanne. Wort dachlicha Brodi gif os i dagh ogf forlat os Nora. Skildor so som ogf vi forlate them as Skildighe are Ogh inleid os ikkie i Frestalan. Utan frels os ifra ondo. Amen.

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

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

Mountains, volcanoes, and natural curiosities.] The mountains of Iceland range generally from the south-east to the north-west. The principal summits, covered with perpetual snow, are called yokuls; and of these, Snæfells, which projects over the sea in the south-west part of the island, is esteemed the loftiest: its height is computed at above 6800 feet. Almost all the Icelandic mountains either are, or appear to have been, volcanic. Of these, Heckla is most known to foreigners. This mountain is situated in the southern part of the island, about four miles from the sea-coast, and is divided into three points at the top, the highest of which is that in the middle, which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the sea. This mountain has frequently sent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occasioned terrible devastations, the ashes being thrown all round the island to the distance of 180 English miles. An eruption of Mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded from the mountain in December 1771, and 1772; but no streams of lava.

But the greatest of the eruptions of Iceland, and, in fact, the most tremendous of any recorded in history, was that in 1783, which, we are assured by the abbe Spallanzani*, who cites the authority of Mr Pennant, extended ninety-four miles in length, and fifty in breadth, dried up twelve rivers, and overwhelmed not only all the villages it found in its way, but likewise many hills. The perpendicular height of the sides of this current was from eighty to a hundred feet, so that the entire surface of the country was in a state of fluidity, and formed a lake of fire, resembling a mass of melted metal.

"In June 1783," says the abbe Ordinaire, in his Natural History of Volcanoes, "it was feared that this island (Iceland) would fall to pieces; and it was even reported for some days that it had been swallowed up, so dreadful and multiplied were the convulsions produced by its volcanoes and internal fires. A thick sulphurous smoke rendered the island absolutely invisible to mariners at sea, while the people on shore were all in danger of being suffocated by it. The fog, which about that time spread over all Europe, was considered as an effect of these exhalations. Frightful hollow roarings proceeded from the bottom of the sea. From Mount Shapton Glauer, a seventh volcano in the island, there poured a terrific torrent of fire, which flowed for six weeks. It ran a distance of sixty miles to the sea; its breadth was nearly twelve miles; and in its course it dried up the river Shaptaga, which in some places is thirty, and in others sixty-three, feet deep."

In the month of April of the same year, a volcanic island arose out of the sea, to the south of Iceland, which threw out fire from two of its eminences, and continued to increase in size for some time, but at length disappeared.

Of the lakes of Iceland, that called Thingvalla Vatu, in the south-west, said to be about forty miles in circuit, and My Vatu, in the opposite part of the island, appear to be the principal. The chief rivers are the Skalfanda, the Oxarfird, and the Brua, which flow from south to north.

Among the curiosities of Iceland—none are more worthy of attention than the hot spouting-water springs with which this island abounds. Some of these throw up columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height, as many affirm, of several hundred feet. They are of an unequal degree of heat. From some the water flows gently, as from other springs, and it is then called a bath: from others boiling water spouts with great noise, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr Van Trol says that he does not remember ever to have observed it under 188 of

Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyser, Rœyunm, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212
(the boiling heat); and in the last place, in the ground, in a small hot current of water,
at 213 degrees. It is very common for some of the spouting-springs to cease, and others
to rise up in their stead. Frequent earthquakes, and subterranean noises, heard at the
time, cause great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In several of
these hot springs the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging
a pot, into which the flesh is put in cold water, in the water of the spring.

The largest of all the spouting-springs in Iceland is called Geyser. It is about two
- days journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a
loud roaring noise is heard, like the rushing of a torrent precipitating itself from stu-
pendous rocks. The water here spouts several times a-day, but always by starts, and
after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed that it spouts to the height of
sixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at some times than at others:
when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmost height to which it mounted was computed to
be 92 feet.

Basaltine pillars are likewise very common in Iceland, which are supposed to have
been produced by subterraneous fires. They have generally from three to seven sides,
and are from four to seven feet in thickness, and from twelve to sixteen yards in length,
without any horizontal divisions. In some pieces they are only seen here and there
among the lava in the mountains; but in others they extend two or three miles in length,
without interruption.

Iceland contains great numbers of yawning fissures of the earth, and prodigious
caverns, formed by volcanic explosions. The largest of these, as yet described, is that
of Surttheller, which is above 5000 feet, or about an English mile, in length; above 50
feet high, and 35 feet broad. At Almengia, near the water of Tingalla, is a fissure of
a great but unmeasured length, from north to south, and 105 feet wide. Its western
side, or wall, is above 107 feet high, but its eastern only 45 feet.

Immense masses of ice are, every year, the cause of great damage to this country, and
affect the climate of it. They arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind
from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms' thickness, is separated by
the winds, and less dreaded than the rock or mountain ice, which is often seen fifty
and more feet above water, and is, at least, nine times the depth below water. These pro-
digious masses of ice are frequently left in shoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground;
and in that state remain many months, nay, it is said even years, undissolved, chilling
all the ambient part of the atmosphere for many miles round. When many such lofty
and bulky masses of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along be-
tween them is so much chafed, and pressed with so much violence together, that it is
said it sometimes takes fire; which circumstance has occasioned fabulous accounts of the
ice being in flames. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit
great ravages, particularly among the sheep; they are, however, commonly soon de-
stroyed, for the government allows a premium of ten dollars each, for killing them, be-
sides the price of the skins, which are purchased for the king, and not allowed to be
sold to any other person.

Minerals, Fossils.] No mines are worked in Iceland, though large pieces of
silver, copper, and iron ore, have been found on the surface of the ground. The prin-
cipal minerals are sulphur, pumice, zeolite, calcined, and malachite, or copper stalac-
tites. The substance called surturbrand is a remarkable fossil: it is evidently wood,
not quite petrified, but indurated, which drops asunder as soon as exposed to the air. It
is found at a great depth, and indicates trees to have been once much more plentiful in
the island than they are at present.

Vegetables, Animals.] In so rude a climate as that of this country, no species
of corn can be cultivated with advantage; and agriculture is hardly known, except in
the manuring of some pasture grounds, and the planting of a few potatoes, turnips, and
cabbages, that may be found in five or six small gardens.

Though there are indubitable proofs that Iceland formerly produced great quantities
of timber, there are now very few trees to be found on the whole island, and those of
very stunted growth.
Iceland has no wild quadrupeds, except rats, wild cats, and white and brown foxes. The horses are small, but stout and serviceable. Birds are extremely numerous; there are several kinds of falcons, swans, and eider-ducks, which furnish the inhabitants with eggs, and a very valuable down.

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

As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Danish majesty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to to about 30,000 crowns a-year.

The Faro or Ferro Islands.

So called from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one island to another. They are about 25 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 degrees north latitude, and 6° and 7° west longitude from London. The space of this cluster extends about 70 miles in length and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the westward of Norway: having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-west. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4000 or 5000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark. Only 17 are inhabited, and Stromoe, the longest, is 24 miles long and 8 broad.

Lapland.

Lapland has no peculiar government as a distinct nation, but is divided among the three great northern powers, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. But as the manners of the Laplanders under all these governments, are, as well as the characteristics of their countries, similar, we shall under this head treat of Lapland in general.

Name.] The name of Lappes was given to the Laplanders by the Swedes, and is of uncertain derivation. Some say that it signifies exiles or fugitives, because they are of the race of the Fins driven out of their own country; others, that it signifies sorcerers. The Laplanders call themselves Same, and their country Same-ednam; whence it has been conjectured that they are of the race of the Samoeds.

Extent and divisions.] The whole of Swedish, Danish, and Russian Lapland, extends from 64 to 71 degrees north latitude, and from 15 to 40 degrees west longitude, being in length about 600 miles, and in breadth 500; it may contain about 120,000 square miles. That part which appertains to Denmark, and is called Finmark, is about 280 miles in length, and 170 in breadth. The distinction between this and Swedish Lapland, as agreed on by treaty in 1750, is, that all that tract of country of which the rivers run into the Frozen Ocean, belongs to Denmark; and all that of which the rivers fall into the Gulf of Bothnia, is Swedish Lapland. It is the eastern extremity of Lapland which belongs to Russia, and makes a part of the government of Archangel.

Mountains, lakes, rivers.] Lapland is very mountainous. The principal rivers are the Tornea, the Tana, and the Alten. The Tornea springs from the lake of the same name, and, after a course of 300 miles, falls into the Gulf of Bothnia. The Tana and Alten fall into the Frozen Ocean. The Paae divides Russian Lapland from...
the part subject to Denmark. The lakes in Lapland are numerous; those of Hernsasha-
Stacer, or the Great Lake, Tornea, Lulea, and Enara in Russian Lapland, are the
chief.

Minerals, metals.] Metals and minerals of all kinds are plenty. Gold has
been found at Svappawara; copper, iron, lead, zinc, and plumbago, or black-lead, are
found in various parts; and in the south of Swedish Lapland there are mines worked by
the Swedes. Limestone, marble, gypsum, rock-crystal, jasper, amethysts, and garnets,
are also among the mineral productions of this country. Pearls of considerable value
are produced in the rivers.

Climate, soil, and productions.] The winter in Lapland, as may be expect-
ed in so northern a climate, is extremely severe. In the most northern parts the sun
remains below the horizon from the 20th of November to the 10th of January; and
from the beginning of September to the middle of March the whole country is covered
with snow and ice; and in the depth of winter the lakes and rivers are generally frozen
to the depth of two Danish ells and a half. In summer, on the other hand, the sun
continues in like manner two months above the horizon; and the heat in the valleys
and plains is excessive. Innumerable insects are produced, and the inhabitants are in-
fested with mosquitoes to an intolerable degree. The whole country is an immense
wilderness, where agriculture is entirely unknown, except in a very few parts in the
south, in which corn (principally rye and buckwheat) is cultivated. In the north,
tracts of considerable extent are overgrown with moss, which is the principal food of the
reindeer. The trees are the fir, birch, larch, and small beech, which form vast but
not very thick forests.

Animals.] The animals are almost the same with those to be described under
Norway, excepting the reindeer, which more peculiarly belongs to Lapland. This
animal, the most useful, perhaps, of any in the creation, and which seems to have been
provided by nature to recompense the Laplanders for the privation of the other comforts
of life, resembles the stag; only it somewhat droops the head, and the horns project for-
ward. In summer the reindeer provide themselves with leaves and grass, and in win-
ter they live upon moss; which they have a wonderful sagacity at finding, and, when
found, scrape away the snow that covers it with their feet. The scantiness of their
fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journeys which they can perform without
any other support. They fix the reindeer to a kind of sledge, shaped like a small
boat, in which the traveller, well secured from cold, is laced down; with the reins,
which are fastened to the horns of the animal, in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in
the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and snow. The deer, whose harnessing is
very simple, sets out, and continues the journey with prodigious speed; and is so safe
and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they
look out for their own provender; and their milk often contributes to support their
master. Their instinct in choosing their road, and directing their course, can only be
accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the summer
months when then live in the woods. Their flesh is well-tasted food, whether fresh or
dried; their skin forms excellent clothing both for the bed and the body; their milk
and cheese are nutritive and pleasant; and their intestines and tendons supply their
masters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may
be shot at as other game. But it is said, that if one be killed in a flock, the survivors
will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore single stragglers are generally chosen.
With all their excellent qualities, however, the reindeer have their inconveniences. It
is difficult in summer to keep them from straggling; they are sometimes buried in the
snow; and they frequently grow restive, to the great danger of the driver and his car-
rriage. Their surprising speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 200 miles a day)
seems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a
Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in which he is placed, when he is confined in
one of these carriages or pullkhas; or would believe, that, by whispering the rein-deer
in the ear, they know the place of their destination.

Population, inhabitants, manners, and customs.] Lapland is very thinly peo-
pled. Mr Tooke says, that Russian Lapland does not contain more than 1200 families, or
about 6000 persons. The population of the whole of this extensive region is supposed
to be not more than 40,000, or one person to about three square miles.

The Laplanders are considerably shorter than more southern Europeans. Maupertuis measured a woman who was suckling her child, whose height did not exceed four feet two inches and about a half. The man is of a swarthy and dark complexion; his hair is black and short, his mouth wide, and his cheeks hollow, with a chin somewhat long and pointed. The women are complaisant, chaste, often well made, and extremely nervous, which is also observable among the men, though more rarely.

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

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is from about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above six in height. They cover them, according to the season and the means of the possessor, some with briers, bark of birch, or of linden,—others with turf, coarse cloth, or felt, or the old skins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains which open asunder. A little place surrounded with stones is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is suspended to hang the kettle upon. They are scarcely able to stand upright in their huts, but constantly sit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and, to separate the apartments, place upright sticks at short distances. They cover themselves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their household furniture consists of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, spoons, and sometimes tin or even silver basons; to which may be added the implements of fishing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry such a number of things with them in their excursions, they build in the forests, at certain distances, little huts, made like pigeon-houses, and placed upon the trunk of a tree, cut off at the height of about six feet from the root. In these elevated huts they keep their goods and provisions; and though they are never shut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer supply the Laplanders with the greatest part of their provisions: the chase and the fishery supply the rest. The principal dishes are the flesh of the rein-deer, and puddings which they make of their blood, by putting it, either alone or mixed with wild berries, into the stomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the flesh of the bear is considered by them as their most delicate meat. They eat every kind of fish, even the sea-dog; as well as all kinds of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey and carnivorous animals. Their winter provisions consist chiefly of flesh and fish dried in the open air, both of which they eat
raw, without any sort of dressing. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk. They make also broths and fish soups. Brandy is very scarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a carpet on the ground; and the men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion separately given him, that no person may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a short prayer; and as soon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

In their dress the Laplanders use no kind of linen. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skin, pointed and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay in them. Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and open at the breast. Over this they wear a close coat, with narrow sleeves, the skirts of which reach down to the knees, and which is fastened round them by a leather girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for making fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the close coat, of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four seams adorned with lists of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with brass wire. Their close coat has a collar, which comes up somewhat higher than that of the men. Besides these, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and ear-rings, to which they sometimes hang chains of silver, which pass two or three times round the neck. They are often dressed in caps folded after the manner of turbans. They wear also caps fitted to the shape of the head; and as they are much addicted to finery, they are all ornamented with the embroidery of brass wire, or at least with list of different colours.

A young man is not permitted to marry till he be able to take and kill a reindeer. When he is thus qualified, and has chosen a female to whom he wishes to make proposals, he communicates his desire to his own family, who then repair in a body to the dwelling of the parents of the girl, taking with them a quantity of brandy to drink on the occasion, and a slight present for the young woman; for instance, a girdle ornamented with silver, a ring, or something of the like kind. When they come to the door of the hut in which she lives, the principal spokesman enters first, followed by the rest of the kindred, the suitor waiting without until he shall be invited to enter. As soon as they are come in, the orator fills out a bumper of brandy, which he offers to the girl's father, who, if he accept it, shows thereby that he approves of the match about to be moved for. The brandy is handed round, not only to the girl's father and mother, and her friends assembled together, but likewise to the intended bride; and, in the course of this compotation, leave is obtained for the young man to forward his suit in his own person. The orator then, in a set speech, makes a beginning; and in this stage of the courtship the lover is himself introduced, but takes his seat at a distance from the rest, placing himself near the door. The parents of the girl at length signifying their full consent to the match, the suitor offers the maiden the present he has brought with him, and at the same time promises wedding-clothes to the father and mother. If the parents, after having thus given their consent, depart from their word, it is an established law amongst the Laplanders that all the expenses incurred must be made good, even to the brandy drank at the first visit. The parties being thus betrothed, the young man is allowed to visit his mistress from time to time. On the day of the nuptials the bride appears dressed in her gala habit, with this difference, that whereas her head is close covered at other times, upon this occasion her hair is left to flow loose upon her shoulders, and she wears a bandeau of different-coloured stuffs, and sometimes a fillet. The nuptials are celebrated in a frugal manner, and without show. Such of the guests as are invited, and are of sufficient ability to do it, make the bride a present of money, rein-deer, or something towards a stock.*

The Laplanders, it is said, entertain an aversion to war; and it has never been found practicable to convert them into soldiers: but this is rather to be attributed to their habits of life, which disqualify them for a military discipline; as they will brave the fury of the tempestuous ocean with astonishing intrepidity, and skait without fear along the edges of tremendous precipices.

Language.] The language of Lapland appears to have an affinity to the Finnish, with an intermixture of some words evidently of Gothic origin, derived perhaps from their intercourse with the Danes and Swedes. Very different dialects, however, are spoken in different parts of the country. The Lords Prayer in Laplandish is as follows:


Religion.] The Laplanders have been induced, by the missionaries sent among them from Denmark and Norway, to profess Christianity; but this does not prevent them from sacrificing to the gods of their forefathers, and practising their ancient superstitions. The principal instrument of their magical rites, to which they are still addicted, is the Runic drum, which is a box of an oval shape, covered at one end with a skin, and furnished on the other with several strings and pieces of iron to rattle and make a noise: strange figures intended to represent the heavenly bodies, beasts and birds, with many other characters, are drawn on the skin. The noaid, or sorcerer, puts a ring upon his drum, and beats on it with his drumstick, which is made of the horn of the rein-deer, and, according to the figure on which the vibration of the skin causes the ring to fall, he answers all questions concerning former or future events. At the same time he invokes the spirits to assist his drum; and in the course of this mummyr falls into a fit, during which, his soul is supposed to be with the spirits of the air, hearing their converse and learning the decrees of Heaven. Families in general possess such a drum, which the Laplander consults before he sets out on a journey, and which is his guide and director on all occasions; but in affairs of greater moment he applies to the Noaoids, or professed magicians, to consult it for him. These drums are preserved with great care and secrecy, and are hidden from sight except at the time they are used. A woman dare not approach the place where one of these drums is concealed, much less durst she presume to touch it.

Trade.] The Laplanders carry on a trade with the Swedes and Norwegians, by supplying them with the skins and furs of quadrupeds; such as ermines, sables, martens, squirrels; black, white, and variously-coloured foxes; bears, lynxes, and wolves. In return they purchase meal, cloth, various utensils, spirituous liquors, and tobacco.

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NORWAY.

Extent and Situation.

Miles.

Length 910; between 58° 5' and 71° 0' north latitude.
Breadth 170; between 5° 10' and 25° 0' east longitude.

Containing 112,000 square miles, with six inhabitants to each.

Name, Boundaries, and Divisions. The word signifies the Northern way, or country: Norway was anciently called Norrike, or the Northern kingdom. It is bounded on the south by the entrance into the Baltic; on the west and north by the Northern Ocean; and on the east it is divided from Sweden by a long chain of mountains.
called at different parts by different names, as, Dofrefeld, Fillefeld, Runfeld, and Dourfeld.

This extensive country is divided into the four governments, or dioceses, of Aggerhus, or Christiania, Christiansand, Bergen, and Dronthem; the latter is again subdivided into the two provinces of Nordland, and Finmark, or Danish Lapland.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies in different latitudes. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the sea always open. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered with snow; and the cold generally sets in about the middle of October, with intense severity to the middle of April; the waters being all that while frozen to a considerable thickness. But even frost and snow have their conveniences, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northern parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is so intense, that they are but little known. At Bergen the longest day consists of about 19 hours, and the shortest of about five. In summer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the sky; and in the most northerly parts, about Midsummer, the sun is continually in view. In those parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the sun’s rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding, has been so kind to the Norwegians; that, in the midst of their darkness, the sky is so serene, and the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they can carry on their fishery, and work at their several trades in the open air. The air is very pure in some of the inland parts. Sudden thaws, and snow-falls, have, however, sometimes dreadful effects, and destroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the most mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains running from south to north: to pass that of Ardanger, a man must travel about seventy English miles; to pass others, upwards of fifty. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and that are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country, very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expense of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a most surprising landscape. The activity of the natives in recovering their sheep and goats, when penned up, through a false step, in one of those rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himself to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, sitting on a cross stick, tied to the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature stands, he fastens it to the same cord, and it is drawn up with himself. The caverns that are to be met with in these mountains, are more wonderful than those, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. One of them called Dolsteen was, in 1550, visited by two clergymen; who reported that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and as high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they descended a flight of natural stairs; but when they arrived at another they durst not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its forests. The timbers growing here are fir and pine, elm, ash, yew, beech, oak, elm or alder, juniper, the aspin-tree, the comel or sloe-tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen); lime or linden-tree, and willows. The sums which Norway receives for timber are very considerable; but the industry of the inhabitants is greatly assisted by the course of their rivers, and the situation of their lakes; which afford them not only the conveniency already mentioned, of floating down their timber, but that of erecting saw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all sawed timber belongs to his Danish majesty, and forms no inconsiderable part of his revenue.

METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of stones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or asbestos, is likewise found here; as are crystals, granates, amethysts, agate,
thunder stones, and eagle stones. Gold found in Norway was coined into ducats in 1645. The silver mines at Konigsberg are considered the richest in Europe. Other silver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many silver masses that have been discovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be seen at the Royal Museum at Copenhanen. Lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country; the copper mines at Rornas are very productive; and that of iron at Arendal is a source of great revenue. Norway likewise produces quicksilver, sulphur, salt, and coal mines: vitriol, alum, various kinds of loam; and of late cobulk has been found at Korsoum.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The lakes of Norway are extremely numerous; the largest of them is the Mioss, about sixty miles in length, but of no great breadth except towards the centre, where it is from twelve to fifteen miles. It has in it an island nearly ten miles in circumference. The lake of Rands Sion, near the Mioss, is almost fifty miles long, but scarcely more than two broad. The lake of Fæmund is thirty-five miles long and eight broad; and that of Øjeren, formed by the river Glom, twenty-three miles long. Some of these lakes contain floating islands sixty or eighty feet in diameter, formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs; and which, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees.

The principal rivers of Norway are the Glom, or Glomen, called likewise the Stor Elve, or Great River, which, from its source among the mountains on the borders of Sweden, to the bay of Swinesund, where it falls into the sea, runs above three hundred English miles; and the Dramme, which flows into the bay of Christians after having received the Beina and other streams. There are many other smaller rivers.

ANIMALS.] All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to be found in Norway, with the addition of many more. The wild beasts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the teming, the ermine, the martin and the beaver. The elk is a tall, ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag; it is harmless, and in the winter social; and the flesh of it tastes like venison. The rein-deer is a species of stag; but we shall have occasion to mention him more particularly afterwards. The hares are small, and are said to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are common with the rest of their species in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary specimens of their sagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs; and some prefer bear-hams to those of Westphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are shy even of a cow or goat, unless impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat kind, and have claws like tygers, they dig under ground, and often undermine sheep folds, where they make dreadful havock. The skin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewise found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries: they have a particular way of drawing crabs ashore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwise called the ervan, or vieliras, resembles a turspitt dog; with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is so precious that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the skin unhurt: he is bold, and ravenous. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its shyness and cleanliness; and their fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the Martin and a large brown forest cat, only its head and snout are sharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The elk's build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noise of their wings resembles a storm; their size is the bigness of a large duck: they are an aquatic fowl, and their flesh is much esteemed. No fewer than 30 different kinds of thrushes reside in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and several sorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour, his eye resembling that of a
Norway produces two kinds of eagles; the land and the sea; the former is so strong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the sea or fish-eagle, is larger than the other; he subsists on aquatic food; and sometimes darts on large fishes with such force, that, being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

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

The Scandinavian lakes and seas are astonishingly fruitful in all fish that are found on the sea coasts of Europe, which need not be here enumerated. Stock-fish are innumerable, which are dried upon the rocks without salting. The halacmorn, is a species of shark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train oil. The tuella flynder is an excessively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who has fallen overboard to keep him from rising. The season for herring fishing is announced to the fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales (of which seven different species are mentioned) in following the herring shoals. The large whale resembles a cod, with small eyes, a dark marbled skin, and white belly; they spout out the water, which they take in by inspiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land animals standing upright in the sea. A young whale when first produced is about nine or ten feet long; and the female sometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours such an incredible number of small fish, that his belly is often ready to burst; in which case he makes a most tremendous noise from pain. The smaller fish have their revenge; some of them fasten on his back, and incessantly beat him; others, with sharp horns, or rather bones, on their beak, swim under his belly, and sometimes rip it up; some are provided with long sharp teeth, and tear his flesh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war against him when he comes near the surface of the water; and he has been known to be so tortured, that he has beat himself to death on the rocks.

The coast of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the shoals that come from under the ice at the north pole; and about the latitude of Iceland divide themselves into three bodies: one of these supply the western isles and coasts of Scotland, another directs its course round the eastern part of Great Britain down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and toxk fishes follow them, and feed upon their spawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in 50 or 60 fathoms water; these, especially their roes, and their oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fishing on the coast of Norway. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length, and its bite is said to be poisonous.

In addition to these, other extraordinary inhabitants are said to belong to the Norwegian seas. On the following account of them the reader will exercise his judgment. In 1758, a sea-snake was shot by a master of a ship; its head resembling that of a horse; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white mane hanging from its neck; it floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea; between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, which were very thick, and the length of this snake was more than a hundred yards, some say fathoms. They have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor; for which reason, ship, boat, and bark masters, provide themselves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overset; the serpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquisite. Fgede says, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful sea monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main top-most of the ship; that it had a long sharp snout, broad
paws, and spouted water like a whale; that the body seemed to be covered with scales; the skin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a snake. The body of this monster is said to be as thick as a hog's head; his skin is variegated like a tortoiseshell; and his excrement, which floats on the surface of the water, is corrosive, and blisters the hands of the seamen if they handle it.

The **kraken** or **korken**, is said to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, it resembles a number of small islands and sandbanks, on which fishes disport themselves, and sea-weeds grow: upon a farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennae, each about the height, form, and size of a moderate mast, appear; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, consisting of small fishes. When he sinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous swell of the sea succeeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken perished among the rocks and **eclips** of the parish of Alstahong; and his death was attended with such a stench, that the channel where it died was impassable.

The mermaid too inhabits here, but it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this article, to follow the Norwegian adventurers through all the different descriptions which they have given us of their fishes.

**Curiosities.**] Those of Norway are only natural. The most remarkable is on the coast, latitude 67, a dreadful vortex or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the sea, and by some Malestrom, or Moskoestrom. The island Moskoe, from whence this stream derives its name, lies between the mountain Hesleggen in Lofoden, and the island Ver, which are about one league distant; and between the island and coast on each side, the stream makes its way. Between Moskoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moskoe and Ver, it is so shallow as not to afford passage for a small ship. When it is flood, the stream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moskoe with a boisterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the sea with a violence and noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth or extent; so violent that if a ship comes near it, it is immediately drawn irresistibly into the whirl, and there disappears, being absorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is dashed to pieces against the rocks; and just at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for about a quarter of an hour, it rises again in scattered fragments, scarcely to be known for the parts of a ship. When it is agitated by a storm, it has reached vessels at the distance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themselves in perfect security.

**Religion, manners, and customs, of Norway.**] Their religion is Lutheran; and they have bishops as those of Denmark, without temporal jurisdiction. Their viceroy, like his master, is absolute: but the farmers and common people in Norway are, much less oppressed than those in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are strong, robust, and brave; but quick in resenting real or supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous, and the Norwegian forms, both of living, and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly resembling the Saxon ancestors of the present English. Every inhabitant is an artizan, and supplies his family in all its necessaries with his own manufactures; so that in Norway there are few by professions who are hatters, shoemakers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, or joiners. The lowest Norwegian peasant is an artist and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread, or farinaceous food. The manners of the middling Norwegians form a proper subject for contemplation even to a philosopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penity; and this middle state prolongs their ages surprisingly. Though their dress is in many respects accommodated to their climate, yet, by custom, instead of guarding against the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expose themselves to cold, without any cover upon their breasts or necks. A Norwegian of an hundred years of age is not accounted past his labour; and in 1733, four couples were married and
danced before his Danish majesty at Fredericshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

**STRENGTH AND REVENUE.** Norway can furnish 14,000 excellent seamen, 24,000 cavalry, and 6000 infantry. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 300,000l.

**CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.** Christiana is considered the capital, because it is the seat of the supreme court of justice. It is about thirty English miles from the sea, in a large and pleasant valley, and is the handsomest town in the country. It contains about 9000 inhabitants. Bergen, the largest and most commercial town in Norway, contains nearly 20,000 inhabitants. It is principally built of wood, and has suffered by repeated fires. Drontheim, the capital of the diocese or province of the same name, contains about 8000 inhabitants.

**COMMERCE.** Norway exports timber, hemp, flax, tar, turpentine, fish, tallow, copper, iron, hides, and the skins of bears, lynxes, and foxes. The annual export of timber, is reckoned at 175,000l. and that of iron at 70,000l. They export annually 80,000 raw hides, and 1000 manufactured. The whole exports of Norway, in 1758, were stated at above 1,700,000l. sterling; and the imports at less than 1,240,000l.

**GOVERNMENT, LAWS.** Although subject to Denmark, Norway is governed by a particular code called the Norway Laws, compiled by Griffelfield, by order of Christian V. the great legislator of his country. By this law, the palladium of Norway, the peasants are free, a few only excepted, on certain noble estates near Fredericstadt. The laws are administered by provincial courts and officers. The governor is president of the supreme court at Christiana, from which an appeal lies to Copenhagen.

**LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.** The chief towns of each diocese has a Latin school. The language is Danish, with a mixture of Swedish words and pronunciation on the border of Sweden.

**HISTORY.** It is probable that Normandy was first inhabited by the ancestors of the modern Laplanders, who were driven out by the Goths. Towards the end of the 9th century Harold Høngfaré conquered the chiefs to the number of ten or twelve, among whom Norway was divided, and united it under his own government. In the tenth, and again in the eleventh century, it suffered a temporary subjection to Denmark and experienced in the thirteenth an equally transient union with Sweden. At length the marriage of Hagen king of Norway, with Margarete of Denmark, produced an heir to both the kingdoms in their son Olaf, and since 1380 it has constituted part of the dominions of Denmark.

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**DENMARK PROPER:**

**BEING THE PENINSULA OF JUTLAND, INCLUDING THE ISLANDS IN THE BALTIC.**

**EXTENT AND SITUATION.**

Miles.

Length 240*  
Breadth 114

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{between } & \{54^\circ 10' \text{ and } 57^9 45' \text{ north latitude.} \\
8^\circ 10' \text{ and } 12^9 40' \text{ east longitude.}
\end{align*}
\]

Containing 12,896 square miles, with 84 inhabitants to each.

**NAME.** Saxo Grammaticus derives the name from Dan, the first founder, according to him, of the Danish monarchy; and Mark, a boundary or country. This ety-

* These dimensions are those of the peninsula of Jutland only, where longest and broadest, in which sense they are always to be understood in this work. Jutland, for instance, is 114 miles in breadth where broadest; though in some parts it is not more than 30.
mology is probably fabulous; all we know with certainty is, that the inhabitants of this part of Scandinavia were known by the name of Danes in the sixth century.

**Divisions and Boundaries.** Denmark is divided on the north from Norway by the Sea-ggarac Sea, and from Sweden on the east by the Sound; it is bounded on the south by Germany and the Baltic; and the German Sea divides it from Great Britain on the west. It is divided into two parts; the peninsula of Jutland, anciently called *Cimbricus Cimbrica*, and the islands at the entrance of the Baltic mentioned in the table. Copenhagen, the metropolis, is in the island of Zealand.

Jutland was formerly divided into North and South. The former of these is now called simply Jutland, and the latter Sleswick. Jutland is divided into nine *systols* or districts, and Sleswick into fifteen counties.

Denmark Proper is likewise divided into six dioceses, or jurisdictions, of the following dimensions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
<th>Sq. miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The diocese of Zealand</td>
<td>2,112</td>
<td>2,416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funen</td>
<td>1,376</td>
<td>1,456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aarhus</td>
<td>1,696</td>
<td>1,200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mountains, Rivers, Lakes, Canals.** Jutland contains hills of a bleak and wild aspect, but no mountains, and the lakes are numerous, but not large. The rivers are also trifling, with the exception of the Guden, which runs a winding course of an hundred miles before it falls into the Categat; and the Eydar, the ancient boundary between Denmark and the German duchy of Holstein.

In the northern part of Jutland, an extensive creek of the sea called Lynsfjord, penetrates from the Categat through an extent of above seventy miles, to within two or three miles of the German Ocean; it is navigable, and contains numerous small islands.

A canal, called the *Canal of Kiel*, a considerable town in the north of Holstein, has been made, at the expense of nearly 800,000l. to open a communication between the Baltic and the river Eydar, which flows into the German Sea. It is above twenty miles in length, and is navigable by vessels of 120 tons. It was finished in 1785.

**Climate, Soil, and State of Agriculture.** The climate of Zealand and the south of Jutland is more temperate, on account of the vapours from the surrounding sea, than it is in many more southerly parts of Europe. In the northern parts of Denmark, the winters are very severe, and spring and autumn are seasons scarcely known, on account of the sudden transitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold. The entrance of the Baltic in winter is generally so obstructed with ice, as to be innavigable, and sometimes so frozen, as to be crossed by sledges and loaded carriages.

**Minerals.** These are not numerous. Some fuller's-earth, alum, and vitriol, are found in Jutland, and porcelain clay is obtained in the island of Bornholm.

The soil of Zealand, Funen, and the south of Jutland, is fertile; and the agriculture of the two latter is compared by Mr. Marshal to that of England; but in the northern parts, the country is less cultivated. Zealand is for the most part a sandy soil, but fertile in grain and pastureage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes.

Most of the lands in Denmark and Holstein are fiefs. The ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the Crown, gained such power over the farmers, and those who resided upon their estates, that at length they reduced them to a state of extreme slavery, so that they were bought and sold with their lands, and were esteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders of Sleswick and Holstein have the power of life and death. The situation of the farmers has, indeed, been made somewhat more agreeable by some modern edicts; but they are still, if such an expression may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are disposed of at the will of their lords. The late count Bernstorff, however, set a truly noble example by the emancipation of his tenants; and the prince-royal, in whom the administration of the government is now vested, has also had the magnanimity and true policy to give liberty to all the peasants of the crown.
Vegetable productions, animals.] The woods of Jutland consist of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees. Denmark and Holstein produce corn in such abundance, as often to be able to export in one year to the value of above £100,000l.; they also produce rape-seed, hops, and flax. The horses of Denmark and Holstein are an excellent breed, both for the saddle and the carriage. Besides great numbers of black-cattle, of which about 80,000 head are generally exported annually, they have hogs, sheep, and game. The sea-costs abound with various kinds of fish.

Curiosities, natural and artificial.] Denmark has almost nothing to interest the curious, but the contents of the Royal Museum at Copenhagen. Here are preserved two famous antique drinking vessels, the one of gold, the other of silver, and both of the form of hunting horns. That of gold is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two English pints and a half, and was found in the diocese of Ripen, in 1639. The other, of silver, weighs about four pounds, and is called the Oldenburg horn, because, as tradition affirms, it was presented to Otho, the first duke of Oldenburg, by a ghost. This museum contains a fine collection of paintings, and another of coins, as also a great number of astronomical, optical, and mathematical instruments.

Population.] By an actual enumeration made in 1759, of his Danish majesty's subjects in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holstein, the islands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst in Oldphalia, they were said to amount to 2,444,000 souls, exclusive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The most accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struensee, in 1769; by which

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jutland numbered</td>
<td>358,136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zealand</td>
<td>283,466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funen</td>
<td>143,938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>723,141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islands of Ferro</td>
<td>4,754</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sum Total: 2,017,027

Since this estimate was taken, the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst have been exchanged for the remainder of Holstein; and the population of the Danish dominions in Europe is thus given in Bötticher's tables:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The diocese of Zealand</td>
<td>345,740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funen</td>
<td>151,512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aarhus</td>
<td>125,282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ripen</td>
<td>83,186</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aalborg</td>
<td>71,242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Viborg</td>
<td>53,483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The duchy of Sleswick</td>
<td>251,230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holstein</td>
<td>311,758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The kingdom of Norway</td>
<td>700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ferro islands</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The population of Denmark Proper, or Jutland, Sleswick, and the islands of the Baltic, exclusive of Holstein, amounts therefore to 1,081,680.

Character and manners of the inhabitants.] The courage of the ancient inhabitants of Denmark approached even to ferocity: their national character in this respect, however, is much changed; but, with their former ferocious habits, they have also laid aside in a great measure their ancient simplicity and innocence. Though not a very enterprising, they are a brave and humane people. They value themselves extremely
upon those titles and privileges, which they derive from the Crown; and are extremely fond of pomp and show. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dress, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very constrain of that nation. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and con-vivial entertainments; but their nobility, who begin now to visit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their ancient national habits and vices.

Cities, Chief Towns, Edifices.] The metropolis of Denmark is situated on the island of Zealand, and was originally a settlement of sailors, first founded by some wandering fishermen in the twelfth century. It now makes a magnificent appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by four royal castles or forts. It contains ten parish churches, besides nine others belonging to the Calvinists and other religious sects, and some hospitals. Copenhagen is adorned by several public and private palaces, as they are called. Its streets are 186 in number, the houses about 4,000, and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in the lanes chiefly of timber. The harbour is spacious, and is formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits only one ship to enter at a time; but the harbour is capable of containing 500. Several of the streets have canals and quays for ships to lie close to the houses; and the naval arsenal is said to exceed that of Venice. The road for shipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. Yet, notwithstanding all these advantages, there is little appearance of industry or trade in this city; and Copenhagen, though one of the finest ports in the world, cannot boast of its commerce. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the whole city at midnight with great safety. Indeed, it is usually almost as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village.

About twenty English miles from Copenhagen, is a noble palace belonging to his Danish majesty, called Fredericstown. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like most of the ancient residences of princes, for defence against an enemy. It was built by Christian IV., and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic styles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuscan and Doric pillars; and on the summit of the building are spires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very splendid, though furnished in the antique taste. The knights' hall is of great length. The tapestry represents the wars of Denmark, and the cieeling is a most minute and laboured performance in sculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of silver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even besieged the capital, tore them all away, and refitted the palace, notwithstanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. The royal palace of Christiansburg, one of the most commodious and most sumptuously furnished in Europe, was destroyed by fire on the 26th of February 1794. About two miles from Elsinour is a small royal palace, flat-roofed, with twelve windows in front, said to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is shown the very spot where, according to tradition, that prince was poisoned.

Odensee is the capital of the island of Funen. It is situated on a river which runs into a large bay about a mile below the town. It contains a cathedral and three churches; here is also a royal palace. The number of inhabitants is about 5,000. It has been said that the Danish language is spoken here in its greatest purity.

Sleswick, the capital of the duchy of that name, is the largest town in the Danish peninsula. It is a long, irregular, but handsome town, containing between five and six thousand inhabitants.

Elsinour, or Helsingoeer, is well built, contains 5,000 inhabitants, and with respect to commerce is only exceeded by Copenhagen itself. It is situated on the eastern coast of the island of Zealand, is strongly fortified on the land side, and towards the sea defended by a strong fort. Here all vessels pay a toll, and, in passing, lower their top-sails.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The manufactures are neither numerous nor important. In the royal manufactures at Copenhagen, 400 looms are employed in fabricating all sorts of woollen cloth, from the finest to that for the use of the soldiery.
The situation of Denmark is excellent for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ships of all burdens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Danish majesty also supply a great variety of timber and other materials for ship-building; and some of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among these, beside fir and other timber, are black-cattle, horses, butter, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron. To these we may add flax; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are, salt, wine, brandy, and silk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. The Danes have great intercourse with England, and thence import broad-cloths, and all our other numerous manufactures.

Commercial companies are established in Denmark, which trade to the East and West Indies, and to Africa. In the East-Indies, they possess the settlement of Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel, and the small islands called the Nicobar islands, to the north of Sumatra; in the West-Indies, the islands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the small island of St. John. On the coast of Guinea they have the fort of Christianburg. The Danes likewise carry on a considerable commerce in the Mediterranean.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT.] The ancient constitution of Denmark was originally much the same with that of other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the senate, where he presided, was invested with the executive power. He likewise commanded the army, and decided finally all the disputes which arose between his subjects. The legislative power, together with the right of election of the king, was vested in the States, who were composed, first, of the order of nobility, and secondly, of that of the citizens and farmers. After the introduction of the Christian religion, the clergy were also admitted, not only to be an order of the states, but to have seats likewise in the senate. These orders had their respective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other. The Crown had also its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue arising out of lands which were appropriated to its support. This constitution had many evident advantages: but unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjusted; so that the nobles very soon assumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppressed the people, as the national assemblies were not regularly held to redress their grievances; and when the Roman-catholic clergy came to have a share in the civil government, they far surpassed the nobility in pride and ambition. The representatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to oppress and tyrannise over the people. Christian the Second, by endeavouring in an imprudent manner to stem the torrent of their oppression, lost his crown and his liberty; but Christian the Third, by uniting with the nobles and the senate, destroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppression of the common people by the nobility still remained. At length, in the reign of Frederic the Third, when the nation had been exhausted by a war with Sweden, the people, exasperated by the arrogance and oppressions of the nobility, who claimed as their privilege an exemption from all taxes, determined to render the king despotic to free themselves from their tyranny. In consequence of this resolution in a meeting of the states, deputies from the clergy and the commons were appointed to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services. The monarch accepted their offer, promising them relief and protection: the nobility taken by surprise were obliged to submit; and, on the 10th of January, 1661, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, signed each a separate act, by which they sentenced that the crown should be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and invested the king with absolute power, giving him the right to regulate the succession, and the regency, in case of a minority. This renunciation of their right, subscribed by the first nobility, is still preserved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark deprived the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve those poor people who had been the instruments of investing him with the
vereign power, but left them in the same state of slavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the present age.

Laws.] In the person of the king is united all the rights of sovereign power; but in affairs of importance he for the most part decides in his council, the members of which are named and displaced at his will. In this council, the laws are proposed, discussed, and receive the sanction of the royal authority, and all great changes or establishments are proposed, and approved or rejected, by the king. Here likewise, or in the cabinet, he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extension, or restriction, and upon all the most important affairs of state.

The supreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway, is held in the royal palace of Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal president. What are called the German provinces have likewise their supreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holstein, is holden at Gluckstadt; and for the duchy of Sleswick, in the town of that name.

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

There are many excellent regulations for the administration of justice in Denmark: but, notwithstanding this, it is so far from being distributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can scarcely ever obtain justice in that country against one of the nobility, or against one who is favoured by the court. If the laws are so clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are ashamed to decide against them, the latter, through the favour of the minister, obtains an order from the king to stop all proceedings, or a dispensation from observing particular laws; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at present established in Denmark was published by Christian V.: it is founded upon the code of Valdemar, and is nearly the same with that in use in Norway. These laws are very just and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial consequences to the people. But as the king can alter and dispense with the laws as he pleases, and support his ministers and favourites in any acts of violence and injustice, the people of Denmark are subject to great tyranny and oppression, and have abundant reason to regret the tameness and servility with which their liberties were, in 1660, surrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

From that period, the peasants, till 1787, had been in a situation little better than the brute creation; they scarcely could be said to possess any loco-motive power, since they had no liberty to leave one estate, and to settle on another, without purchasing permission from their masters; and if they chanced to move without that permission, they were claimed as stayed cattle. Such was the state of those wretched beings, who, at best, only might be said to vegetate. These chains of feudal slavery were then broken, through the interest of his royal highness the prince and heir-apparent to the crown; and the prisoners, for such they certainly might be called, were declared free. Notwithstanding the remonstrances, which were made against this by the landed gentry, were very numerous, yet, after a minute examination of the whole, an edict was issued which restored the peasants to their long-lost liberty. A number of grievances, under which the peasantry laboured, were likewise abolished at the same time.

Revenues.] His Danish majesty’s revenues have three sources: the taxes he levies upon his own subjects: the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demesne lands, including confiscations. The taxes consist of those on land and houses, the poll-tax, stamp-duities, taxes on salt and tobacco, and various other imposts. The tolls paid by strangers arise chiefly from foreign ships that pass through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow strait of half a mile between Schonen and the island of Zealand. These tolls are in proportion to the size of the ship, and value of the cargo exhibited in the bills of lading. This tax, which forms a considerable part of his Danish majesty’s
DENMARK.

revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It has been often disputed by the English and Dutch, being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expenses of the light-houses on the coast: and the Swedes, who command the opposite side of the pass, for some time refused to pay it; but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majesty George I., the Swedes agreed to pay the same rates as are paid by the subjects of Great Britain and the Netherlands. The first treaty relative to it was by the Emperor Charles V. in behalf of his subjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elsinour, a town situated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, and about 18 miles distant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elsinour, amounts at present to about 1,520,000l. Sterling yearly; of which

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Sterling Amount</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>L. 543,554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>290,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sleswick and Holstein</td>
<td>300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The West-India islands</td>
<td>262,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The toll levied on ships passing the Sound</td>
<td>122,554</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Altona</td>
<td>3,150</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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By a list of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to English money 454,700l. The expenses of the state amount annually to above 1,050,000l.; and it is burdened with a debt of 2,600,000l.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The present military force of Denmark consists of 75,000 men, of which Denmark furnishes 40,000, and Norway 25,000; of this force about 11,000 is cavalry, and 64,000 infantry. The fleet of Denmark, according to the official gazette of the 15th of October 1803, consisted of 19 ships of the line; of which were 1 of 90; 2 of 80; 12 of 74; and 4 of 64 guns; 15 frigates, 8 brigs, and 13 gunboats. An order was issued some time since, to increase the number of frigates to 30, and constantly to keep up that number. This fleet is generally stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, storehouses, and all the materials necessary for the use of the marine. There are 26,000 registered seamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor serve on board a merchantman without permission from the admiralty; 4000 of these are kept in constant pay, and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, scarcely amounts to nine shillings per month; but they have a sort of uniform, with some provisions and lodging allowed for themselves and families.

ROYAL TITLES, ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The kings of Denmark, in their public acts take the title of " King of Denmark and Norway, and of the Goths and Vandals, "duke of Sleswick and Holstein, Stormar and Ditmarsh, count of Oldenburg and "Dalenhorst," The orders of knighthood are two; that of the Elephant, and that of Danebrog. The former was instituted by Christian I. in the year 1478, and is deemed the most honourable; its badge is an elephant surmounted with a castle, set in diamonds, and suspended to a sky-blue watered ribbon, worn, like the George in England, over the right shoulder; the number of its members, besides the sovereign, are thirty; and the knights of it are addressed by the title of Excellency. The badges of the Danebrog order, which is said to have been instituted in the year 1219, and after being long obsolete, was revived in 1671 by Christian V., consist of a white ribbon with red edges, worn scarf-wise over the right shoulder; from which depends a small cross of diamonds, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto, Pietate et Jusutitia. The badge is a cross patte enameled white, on the centre the letter C and 5 crowned with a regal crown, and this motto: Restitutor. The number of knights is not limited; and they are very numerous.

RELIGION.] The religion of Denmark is the Lutheran. The kingdom is divided into six dioceses; Zealand, Funen, Viborg, Aarhuys, Aalborg, and Ripen; besides four in Norway, and two in Iceland. There is no archbishop; but the bishop of Zealand is metropolitan in Denmark, as the bishop of Aggerhuys is in Norway. The annual revenue of the bishopric of Zealand is about 1000l. a year, that of Funen 750l., the others are from 400l. to 600l. The bishops have no temporal power, nor more authority,
ty over the inferior clergy than is necessary for the maintenance of good order in the
church.

Literature.] The Danes in general have made no great figure in literature;
though astronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brahe, Borrichius,
and the Bartholines; and the Round Tower and Christian's Haven display the me-
chanical genius of a Longomontanus. They begin now, however, to make some pro-
mising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama. But it appears that literature has
received very little encouragement in Denmark; which may be considered as the principal
cause of its being so little cultivated by the Danes. Yet the names of Langebek, Suhm,
and Holberg, have acquired some degree of deserved celebrity; and the travels of Niebuhr,
are distinguished for intelligent research and accurate information.

Universities.] There are two universities in Denmark; one at Copenhagen, and
the other at Kiel in Holstein. The former has funds to the amount, it is said, of
300,000 rix-dollars, for the gratuitous support of 328 students.

Language.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but German
and French are spoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in
the English, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a necessary part of educa-
tion. A company of English comedians occasionally visit that capital, where they
find tolerable encouragement. The Lord's Prayer, in Danish, is as follows:

Vor faror som er i himmelen; helligt vorde dit naffa; tilkomme dit ryke; vorde din
vilje paa jorden som i himmelen; gif os i dag voert daglige brød; og forlad os vor skyl-
son vi forlade voere skyldemer; og leed os ikke i fristrelse; men frals os fra ont; thi reget
er dit, og kraft og hverlig i evighed. Amen.

Antiquities.] The antiquities of Denmark consist only of some rude remains of
the temples and cemeteries of the ancient Celtic and Gothic inhabitants of the country.
In several parts of the Danish dominions are found circles of upright stones, disposed
in a manner similar to those of Stonehenge. There are also, on some rocks, Runic in-
scriptions, which are so ancient they can no longer be explained with certainty; but
they are supposed to record some remarkable events.

History.] We learn from Saxo-Grammaticus, that the ancient Danes, like the
Gaurs, the Scots, the Irish, and other northern nations, had their bards, who recounted
the military achievements of their heroes; and that their first histories were written in
verse. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians or Cimbi, and the Teutones
(the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original;
but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia * or Gaul, formerly reached, is
uncertain.

Even the name of the first Christian Danish king is uncertain; and those of the
people whom they commanded were so blended together, that it is impossible to con-
ceive a precise idea of the old Scandinavian history. This undoubtedly was owing to
the remains of their Scythian customs, particularly that of removing from one country
to another; and of several nations or septs joining together in expeditions, where the ad-
venturers were denominated after their leaders. Thus the terms, Danes, Saxons, Jutes
or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiscuously used long after the time of
Charlemagne. Even the short revival of literature, under that prince, throws very
little light upon the Danish history. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandin-
avia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with
foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial: That so far
back as the year of Christ 500, they insulted all the sea-coasts of Europe; that they
settled in Ireland, where they built stone-houses; and that they became masters of

* By Scythia may be understood all those northern countries of Europe and Asia (now inhabited
by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Russians, and Tartars, see the Introduction) whose inhabitants
overthrew and peopled the Roman empire, and continued so late as the 18th century, to issue forth in
large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more southern and fertile kingdoms of Europe;
Hence by Sir William Temple, and other historians, they are termed the Northern Ilave, the Mother
of Nations, the Storehouse of Europe.
ENGLAND, and some part of Scotland; both which kingdoms still retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the history of Denmark and that of England, under the Danish princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint resemblance of events; but the Danes, as conquerors, always give themselves the superiority over the English.

In the eleventh century under Canute the Great, Denmark may be said to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give sanction to the expression. Few very interesting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted the throne; and partly by her address, and partly by hereditary right, she formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which she was acknowledged sovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly stiled the Semiramis of the north. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one sovereign, fell to nothing; but Norway still continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christian, count of Oldenburgh, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended.

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

Christian IV. of Denmark, in 1689, was chosen for the head of the protestant league, formed against the house of Austria; but though brave in his own person, he was in danger of losing his dominions; when he was succeeded in that command by Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Christian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his son Frederick III. consented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch after this, persuaded him to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden; which had almost cost him his crown in 1657. Charles stormt the fortress of Frederikstadt; and in the succeeding winter he marched his army over the ice to the island of Fyen, where he surprised the Danish troops, took Odense and Nyburgh, and marched over the great Belt to besiege Copenhagen itself. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interposed; and Frederick defended his capital, with great magnanimity, till the peace of Roschil; by which Frederick ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the island of Bornholm, and Balhus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederick sought to elude these severe terms; but Charles took Kronenburgh, and once more besieged Copenhagen by sea and land. The steady intrepid conduct of Frederick under these misfortunes, endeared him to his subjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic and beat the Swedish fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederick, who showed on every occasion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raise the siege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the English fleet under Montague appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to besiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital; by which the island of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the island of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not restore to Denmark all she had lost, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederick, under the most imminent dangers, and his attention to the safety of his subjects, even preferable to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became absolute, in the manner already related. Frederick was succeeded in 1760, by his son Christian V. who obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roschil. He then reco-
vered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war; which Christian obstinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Landskroon: and having almost exhausted his dominions in military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to sign a treaty, on the terms prescribed by France, in 1679. Christian, however, did not desist from his military attempts; and at last he became the ally and subsidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains. Christian after a vast variety of treating and fighting with the Holsteiners, Hamburghers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was succeeded by Frederick IV. who, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions upon Holstein; and probably must have become master of that duchy, had not the English and Dutch fleets raised the siege of Touningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than sixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to assist his brother in-law the duke of Holstein. Charles probably would have made himself master of Copenhagen, had not his Danish majesty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himself to furnish a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great execution against the French in the wars of queen Anne.

Notwithstanding this peace, Frederick was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes, and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a descent upon the Swedish Pomerania; and another in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadesbuch, who laid his favourite city of Altena in ashes. Frederick revenged himself by seizing great part of the Ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general count Steinbock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the successes of Frederick were so great, by taking Touningen and Stralsund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wismar in Pomerania, that his allies began to suspect he was aiming at the sovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war against Denmark with a most im bittered spirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the siege of Fredericshald, Frederick durst not refuse the offer of his Britannic majesty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in consequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in possession of the duchy of Sleswick. Frederick died in the year 1730, after having two years before seen his capital reduced to ashes by an accidental fire. His son and successor, Christian-Frederick, or Christian VI. made no other use of his power, and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happiness of his subjects, whom he eased of many oppressive taxes.

In 1734, after guaranteeing the Pragmatic Sanction*, Christian sent 6000 men to the assistance of the emperor, during the dispute of the succession to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburgh. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver marks. He had, two years after, viz. in 1738, a dispute with his Britannic majesty about the little lordship of Steinhorst, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holstein Lawenburgh, and which Christian said belonged to him. Some blood was spilt during the contest; in which Christian, it is thought, never was in earnest. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himself of his Britannic majesty's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Christian a subsidy of 70,000l. stlying a year, on condition of keeping in readiness 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover; this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. And two years after, he seized some Dutch ships, for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to support the House of Austria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male issue.
was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Christian had so great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his son to be declared successor to his then Swedish majesty. Some steps for that purpose were certainly taken; but whatever Christian's views might have been, the design was frustrated by the jealousy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of seeing all Scandinavia subject to one family. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His son and successor, Frederick V, had, in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to his Britannic majesty George II. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator in the German war. For it was by his intervention that the treaty of Closter Seven was concluded between his royal highness the late duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richelieu. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to his present Danish majesty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His son, Christian VII, married his present Britannic majesty's youngest sister, the princess Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at first a very promising appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. In the month of January, 1772, by the intrigues, or at least the active agency, of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the present king, Matilda was charged with an illicit commerce with count Struensee, the minister and favourite of the king; and with being engaged with him, his brother, and count Brandt, in a conspiracy to deprive her husband and sovereign of his crown. She was in consequence arrested and confined in the castle of Cronenburg. Her son, the prince-royal, who had entered into the fifth year of his age, was put under the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governess, under the superintendency of the queen-dowager. Struensee and Brandt were seized, put in irons, and very rigorously treated in prison: they both underwent long and frequent examinations, and at length received sentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previously cut off: but many of their friends and adherents were afterwards set at liberty. Struensee at first absolutely denied having any criminal intercourse with the queen; but this he afterwards confessed: and though he is said by some to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this respect were esteemed notorious, and his confessions full and explicit. In May, his Britannic majesty sent a small squadron of ships to convey the queen Matilda to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of her future residence. She died there of a malignant fever, on the 10th of May, 1775, aged 25 years and 10 months.

In 1780, his Danish majesty acceded to the armed neutrality proposed by the empress of Russia. He appears at present to have such a debility of understanding as to disqualify him for the proper management of public affairs. On the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auspices of the prince-royal, some of the former old members restored to the cabinet, and every instrument must now be signed by the king, and countersigned by the prince-royal.

The conduct of this prince exhibits that consistency of behaviour which enables him to pursue with unremitting zeal, the prudent and benevolent measures which he has planned for the benefit of his grateful country. The restoration of the peasantry to their long-lost liberty, and the abolition of many grievances under which they laboured, have already been mentioned. To these may be added the exertions he makes for the diffusion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to societies of learning, arts, and science; the excellent measures he has adopted for the suppression of beggars, with whom the country was over-run, and the encouragement of industry, by the most extensive enquiries into the state of the poor throughout the kingdom; the wise regulations he has introduced into the corn-trade, equally beneficial to the landed interest and to the poor, and the judicious laws which under his influence have been made to encourage foreigners to settle in Iceland. The princess of Hesse Cassel, his consort, is said to possess the most amiable disposition and goodness of heart.

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

A scheme for defraying the national debt has been suggested and followed. One million has already been discharged.

In 1601, the Danish government acceded to the confederacy formed by the northern powers against the naval superiority of Great Britain, under the title of a Convention of Neutrality. But this league was quickly dissolved, by the appearance of an English fleet in the Baltic, under the command of the gallant Admiral Nelson, who, in the battle of the 2d of April of the same year, forced the line of defence formed by the Danish fleet before Copenhagen, and compelled the Danes to agree to a cessation of arms, to preserve their capital. In this short war the Danes lost their islands in the West Indies, and their settlement of Tranquebar, on the coast of Coromandel, which were conquered by the British arms. But the dispute between England and the northern powers being soon after amicably adjusted by a treaty, their foreign possessions have since been all restored to them.

Christian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1756, he was married to the princess Caroline Matilda of England; and has issue, 1. Frederic, prince-royal of Denmark, born January 28. 1768, and married in 1790 to the princess Mary-Anne Frederica of Hesse. 2. Louisa Augusta, princess-royal, born July 7. 1771, and married May 27. 1786, to Frederic, prince of Sleswick-Holstein, by whom she has issue.


HOLSTEIN.

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

Altona, a large, populous, and handsome town, of great traffic, is commodiously situated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg. It was built professedly in that situation by the kings of Denmark, that it might share in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the staple of the Danish East India Company, the merchants also enjoying liberty of conscience, great numbers flock to Altona from all parts of the north, and even from Hamburg itself.

The famous city of Hamburg lies, in a geographical sense, in Holstein; but is an imperial, free, and Hanseatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holstein, called Stormar. It has the sovereignty of a small district round it, of about ten miles circuit; it is one of the most flourishing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of
Denmark still lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be considered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants are said to amount to 180,000; and it is furnished with a vast variety of noble edifices, both public and private: it has two spacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburg has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great Britain, with whom it still carries on a great trade. The Hamburghers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, besides an artillery company.

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

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

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**SWEDEN.**

**Extent and Situation.**

- **Length:** 970 miles
- **Breadth:** 600 miles
- **Total area:** 210,000 square miles, with 14 inhabitants to each.

**Name.**] IN the present language of the country, Sweden is called Swea-rike, or the kingdom of Swea; an appellation of great antiquity, and probably derived from the ancient Suiones, who seem to have inhabited this part of Scandinavia.

**Boundaries and divisions.**] Sweden is bounded on the south by the entrance of the Baltic Sea; on the west by the mountains of Norway; on the north by Danishe Lapland, or Finnmark; and on the east by Russia. The whole kingdom is divided into five general parts: 1. Sweden Proper,—2. Gothland.—3. Nordland.—4. Swedish Lapland.—5. Finland. These are again subdivided into the following provinces:

**Sweden Proper.**

- **Upland**
- **Sudermanland**
- **Nerike**
- **Westermanland**
- **Dalecarlia**

**Gothland.**

- **East-Gothland**
- **Smalland, or Smoland**
- **Island of Oeland,**
- **Island of Gothland**

- **West-Gothland**
- **Wermelund**
- **Dalsland**
- **Bohnselfn**

**Chief Towns.**

- **Stockholm.** {N. lat. 59° 20'.} E. lon. 18° 3'.
- **Upsal**
- **Nikioping**
- **Oerebro**
- **Westeroes**
- **Fahlun**
- **Hedemora**

- **Norkieping**
- **Calmar**
- **Borgholm**
- **Wesby**
- **Gothenburg.** {N. lat. 57° 42'.} E. lon. 11° 38'.
- **Carlstadt**
- **Amal**
- **Kongshall**

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There are no towns in these districts, and the inhabitants often change their places of abode.
out extinguishing them; and in part to the privilege allowed to peasants to make use of the timber thus damaged in the crown forests, without paying the usual tax on it.

The lakes are very numerous. The largest is the Wener, which is about 100 English miles long, and between 50 and 60 broad. It contains several islands, and receives 24 rivers. The Wetter is about the same length, but of unequal breadth, being from only 6 to 26 miles broad. It is reported to be 200 fathoms deep, contains two islands, and receives about 40 small streams. The Maelar is about 70 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. It contains a prodigious number of small islands; they are reckoned to be 1290; several of which are three or four miles in extent, and extremely fertile. At Stockholm this lake communicates with the Baltic, by two rapid currents, one of which is called the northern and the other the southern stream. The Hielm mar washes Sudermanland and Nerike: it is about 40 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, and communicates with the Maelar. In Finland, the lake Pejend is about 80 miles long and 15 broad. There are also a great number of smaller lakes in this country.

The Dahl is the principal river of Sweden. It rises in the mountains that separate Sweden from Norway, and, after a course of about 260 miles, falls into the Gulf of Bothnia, about 10 miles to the east of Gefle. Near its mouth is a celebrated cataract, scarcely inferior to that of the Rhine at Shaffhausen. The breadth of the river there is about a quarter of a mile, and the perpendicular height of the fall between 30 and 40 feet. The rivers Gotho and Matala are the outlets of the lakes Wener and Weter. The principal rivers of Finland are the Uleau, the Kano, and the Kymene, which flow into the Gulf of Finland, and constitute the boundary of the Swedish part of Carelia.

The canal of Trolhätta has been cut with great labour, through the midst of rocks. Its object was to open a communication between the North Sea and the Lake Wener, by forming a new channel where the Gotha is rendered innavigable by cataracts. The length of this canal, in which there are nine locks, is nearly three miles, the width 36 feet, and the depth in some places above 50. It was undertaken and begun by Charles XII.; formed part of a grand plan meditated by Gustavus Vasa, and attempted by some of his successors, for joining the Baltic with the North Sea, by means of a communication cut through the kingdom. If a canal should be extended by the Lake of Wener, by Örebro, to the lake of Hielm mar, the Swedes may then, by a conjunction of this lake with that of Maelar through the sluices of Arboga, transport all kinds of merchandise in the same vessel from Gothenburg to Stockholm. Thus a passage would be opened between the North Sea and the Baltic; and, among other advantages, the duties of the Sound would be avoided. The canal of Trolhätta may justly be considered as, in some respects, characteristical to the Swedish nation, for it represents them as they are, prone to the conception of grand enterprises, and distinguishing by mechanical invention. As a work of art, and of bold and persevering design, it is not too much to say that it is the first in the world; even the duke of Bridgewater's canal in England and that of Languedoc in France, not excepted*. 

Minerals and Metals.] The mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron, in Sweden, form the principal wealth of the country. In the year 1738 a gold-mine was likewise discovered near Adelfors, in the province of Smoland; but from the year 1741 to 1747 it produced only 2,399 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. sterling; and at present will not defray the expense of working. The silver mines, though greatly reduced in value, are more profitable; but by far the most valuable are the mines of copper and iron, though these are much less productive than they were formerly. The copper mines near Fahlun, in Dalecarlia, have been worked for nearly 1000 years; they are sunk to the depth of 1080 feet, and employ 1200 workmen. The copper is found, not in veins, but in great masses. The iron mines near Danemora, in Smoland, are counted to produce the best iron in the world. The metal is sometimes found in vast masses, of which the most remarkable is the hill of Taberg, in Smoland, which is one immense lump of

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iron ore, above 400 feet high, and three English miles in circuit. The iron mines of Sweden, together with the smelting houses and furnaces, are said to employ nearly 26,000 workmen. Sweden likewise produces porphyry, rock-crystal, cobalt, antimony, zinc, and molybdena. Coal mines have been discovered, within these few years, in the province of Smoland.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] The winter in every part of Sweden is extremely severe. The largest lakes, and the whole Gulf of Bothnia, is frozen over, and a kind of high road is made over the latter, for sledges to pass into Finland. The southern parts have a somewhat milder temperature than the northern. The spring continues only for a week or two, when the heat of summer becomes extreme, from the great length of the days, and the reflection of the sun’s rays from the rocks and mountains; so that in some of the northern provinces the harvest is sown and reaped in the space of seven or eight weeks. Frequent winds purify the atmosphere, the salubrity of which is evinced by numerous instances of longevity. The soil is in general very indifferent, but in some valleys surprisingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not industry sufficient to remedy the one, or improve the other. The peasants now follow the agriculture of France and England, and raise almost as much grain as is requisite for the consumption of the country. Even Finland produces rich pasturage, and considerable crops of different kinds of grain. Tobacco has succeeded very well in Sweden. It grows in the greatest quantities near Stockholm and Abo; and perhaps Sweden at present does not require any importation of this commodity from foreign countries, except to have it somewhat superior in quality to that of its own growth. The pine and fir are the principal forest trees of Sweden; the birch grows in all the provinces; but it has been remarked that no beeches grow to the north of East-Gothland, and no oaks beyond Upland. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, and beans, are cultivated with success in Sweden; and though beyond Gele and Biorneburg fruit-trees are rarely to be met with, common cherries, gooseberries, strawberries, currants, and several sorts of pears and apples, ripen in the open air in several of the provinces; and melons, by artificial culture, are brought to great perfection in dry seasons. Among the pears which ripen in Sweden, the principal is the bergamot; and among the apples, that of Astracan, which has a most agreeable taste.

ANIMALS.] The animals are nearly the same as those of Denmark and Norway. In winter the foxes and squirrels become gray, and the fur changes to the whiteness of snow. The horses and cattle, though small, are very hardy. Fish abound, and many kinds; but pike and salmon in particular, are pickled and exported. The train-oil of the seals taken in the Gulf of Finland is likewise a considerable article of export.

ANTIOQUIITIES AND CURiosITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] About 50 miles from Gothenburg are the famous cataracts of Trolhetta, formed by the river Gotha, which issues from the lake of Wenner, and being united after several breaks, falls with its whole and undivided stream into so deep a bed of water, that large masts, and other pieces of timber, precipitated down it, disappear for a very considerable time before they rise again to the surface. There is another cataract, on the river Dahl, about 10 miles to the east of Gele, esteemed little inferior to that of the Rhine at Schaffhausen, the breadth of the river being nearly a quarter of a mile, and the fall being between 30 and 40 feet. The effect is likewise greatly heightened by the surrounding scenery. Sweden has few or no specimens of art to boast of.

POPULATION.] The population of Sweden is more correctly ascertained than that of most other countries in Europe; the states in 1741 having erected an institution called the Commission of Registers, the office of which was to collect and compare all the registers of marriages, births, and deaths, in Sweden. According to the tables constructed from these registers, the number of inhabitants amounted in 1751 to 2,229,661; in 1772, to 2,584,261; and as from the same authority it appears that the population, in the space of 30 years ending in 1781, had increased by more than 500,000 souls, it may now be estimated to exceed 3,000,000. Reutlicher estimates the population of Sweden at 2,977,345, of which Finland contains 624,000.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The Swedes are generally tall, handsome, and robust. They are grave, industrious, sincere, brave, and hospitable. The higher
classes imitate closely the manners of the French, the fashions of which nation have long been followed by the ladies, few of whom adopted the national dress which the late king endeavoured to restore in 1777. This was worn, however, by many of the men, and consisted of a close coat, wide breeches, a girdle, a round hat, and a cloak. The women were to wear a black robe, with puffed gauze sleeves, a coloured sash, and ribbons. The common Swedes wear short dresses, of a blue or black colour. Veils are much used by the women of all classes; even the female peasants, while at work in the fields, cover their heads with black crape. There is no country in the world where the women do so much work as in Sweden; they manage the plough, thresh out the grain, row on the water, serve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries of husbandry.

**Trade and Manufactures.** The manufactures of Sweden are neither numerous nor flourishing. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden so late as the 19th century, for till that time they sold their own crude ore to the Hanse-towns, and bought it back again manufactured into utensils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, they began some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollens, silk, soap, and leather. They have now some of sail-cloth, cotton, linen, fustian, and other stuffs; as also of alum and brimstone. In 1785, it was computed that those of sail-cloth, wool, silk, and cotton, employed above 14,000 hands. Vast quantities of copper are now wrought in Sweden. They have also foundries for cannon, forges for anchors and fire-arms, armouries, wire and flating mills, mills also for fulling, and for boring and stamping: they likewise build many ships for sale. The exports of Sweden principally consist of the native productions of the country; as iron, the staple commodity, of which 400,000 ship-pounds are annually exported; copper; timber, the export of which produces a revenue of 315,000l. annually; pitch, tar, herrings, and fish-oil. The imports are, rye and other kinds of grain, flax, hemp, tobacco, sugar, coffee, silk, and wines. In the year 1782, the exports of Sweden amounted to 1,368,830l. and the imports to 1,008,392l. leaving a balance in favour of the country of about 360,000l.

**Principal Places.** Not more than a tenth part of the population of Sweden inhabits the towns, of which there are 104. Of these, 24 are staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ships. Those towns which have no foreign commerce are called land-towns; and a third class are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine districts.

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

Excepting in the suburbs, where the houses are of wood, painted red, the generality of the buildings are of stone, or brick stuccoed white. The royal palace, which stands in the centre of Stockholm, and upon the highest spot of ground, was begun by Charles XI. It is a large quadrangular stone edifice, and the style of architecture is both elegant and magnificent.

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The number of housekeepers who pay taxes are 60,000. This city is furnished with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce, that are common to other great European cities, particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 450,000l. sterling.

Gothenburg, the second city of Sweden in size, stands partly on the ridges of rocks, and partly in a plain, and is divided from these situations into the upper and lower town. The latter is entirely level, intersected by several canals, in the manner of the Dutch towns, and its houses are all constructed upon piles. The upper part hangs on the declivities; and rows of buildings rise above another like the seats of an amphitheatre. The whole is regularly fortified; and its circumference is nearly three miles, exclusive of the suburbs, called Haga, which lie towards the harbour. The number of inhabitants is about 25,000.

Carlskrona, the station of the royal navy in Sweden, has a harbour capable of containing 100 ships of the line. Its inhabitants are about 12,000.

Upsal, or Upsala, formerly the metropolis of Sweden, and the royal residence, is the chief town of the province of Upland, and is famous for its university and its cathedral, the finest church in Sweden, built in imitation of the church of Notre Dame at Paris. It is a small but very neat town, divided into two almost equal parts by a small river named Sala; and the streets are drawn at right angles from a central kind of square. A few of the houses are built with brick, and stuccoed, but the generality, as in most of the towns of Sweden, are of wood painted red. It contains, exclusively of the students, only about 3000 inhabitants.

GOVERNMENT. The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the course of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, Charles XII., who was killed in 1718, became despotic. He was succeeded by his sister Ulrica, who consented to the abolition of despotism, and restored the states to their former liberties; and they, in return, associated her husband, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, with her in the government. A new model of the constitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought perhaps too low; for the king of Sweden could scarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exercise of government. The senate had even a power of imposing upon the king a sub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his person, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family.

But in August, 1772, the whole system of the Swedish government was totally changed by the late king, in the most unexpected manner. The circumstances which attended this extraordinary revolution will be found in our history of Sweden. By that event the Swedes, instead of having the particular defects of their constitution rectified, found their king invested with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the most despotic princes of Europe. By the form of government then introduced, the king may assemble and dissolve the states whenever he pleases: he has the sole disposal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments civil and military; and though he cannot openly claim a power of imposing taxes on all occasions, yet such as then subsisted were rendered perpetual; and, in case of invasion or pressing necessity, he may impose some taxes till the states can be assembled; but of this necessity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the states depends wholly upon his will and pleasure; and when they are assembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is easy to perceive, that a government thus constituted can be little removed from one of the most despotic kind. Yet, in order to amuse the nation with some light appearances of a legal and limited government in the new system, which consists of fifty-seven articles, a senate is appointed, consisting of seventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown and the governor of Pomerania; and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the state, whenever the king shall demand it. In that case, if the questions agitated are of great importance, and the advice of the senators should be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they unanimous therein, the king, it is said, shall follow their advice. But this, it may be observed, is a circumstance that can hardly ever happen, since it is scarcely possible that all the members of
a senate, consisting chiefly of officers of the crown, should give their opinions against the king; and in every other case the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are some other apparent restraints of the regal power in this system of government; but they are in reality very inconsiderable. It is said, indeed, that the king cannot establish any new law, nor abolish any old one, without the knowledge and consent of the states; but the king of Sweden, according to the present constitution, is invested with so much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any person will venture to make an opposition to whatever he shall propose.

Laws.] Sweden is governed by a code of its own, founded on the Swedish laws, and published with the sanction of the states in 1736. It was again revised, and such alterations adopted as were suggested by the late king, and published in a new edition in 1781. There are four superior courts, as also inferior tribunals in the principal towns. A kind of assizes is likewise held twice in the year by county-judges. Trials are had by a sort of jury of twelve persons, who, when they all agree, may decide against the opinion of the judge; but in general they are implicitly guided by his dictates.

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

Revenue.] The revenue of Sweden, arising from the rents of crown-lands, capitation taxes, customs, and various other articles, amounts to about 1,450,000l. The annual expenditure generally rather exceeds the revenue, and the debt of the Crown amounted some years ago to 7,000,000l. Sweden, until lately, laboured under a very great scarcity of specie, the country being overwhelmed with paper-money; but this inconvenience has been in some degree remedied by a coinage of silver.

Army and Navy.] No country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes: and yet they cannot be said to maintain a standing army, as their forces principally consist of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raised upon the nobility and gentry, according to their estates; and the infantry by the peasants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of soldiers, according to the number of farms it contains. Every farm of 60 or 70l. per annum is charged with a foot soldier, furnishing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary clothes, and about 20s. a year in money; or else a little wooden house is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and pasturage for a cow, and ploughs and sows land enough to supply him with bread. When embodied, they are subject to military law, but otherwise to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be said that every Swedish soldier has a property in the country he defends. In 1791 the standing regiments amounted to 13,500 infantry and 1,000 cavalry; and the national troops to 22,500 infantry, 7,000 cavalry, and 3,500 dragoons*. Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ships of the line: at present she has not more than 25, and 16 or 15 frigates.

Royal Title.] The king takes the title of King of Sweden and of the Goths and Vandals; Grand-duke of Finland, Hereditary Lord of Norway; Duke of Sleswick, Stormarn, and Ditmarsen; Count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst.

* Boisgelin's Travels through Sweden.
THE ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD are that of the Seraphim, or blue ribbon; of the Sword, or yellow ribbon; of the Polar Star, or black ribbon; and of Vasa, or the green ribbon. The order of the Sword is bestowed for military merit: and that of the Polar Star for civil services.

RELIGION.] Christianity was introduced into Sweden in the ninth century, and Lutheranism established by Gustavus Vasa. The national church is governed by the archbishop of Upsal and thirteen bishops. The bishoprics are those of Linkoping, Skara, Strengnäes, Westeros, Vexjo, Abo, Lund, Borgo, Gothenburg, Calmar, Carlstadi, Hernæsand, and Gothland. The Swedes were, till of late years, very intolerant to those of other religious professions, and extremely severe laws were in force against the catholic priests. Bu they have now greatly relaxed from this bigotry: various sects are tolerated in Sweden, and Jews were permitted to settle there, and open synagogues at Stockholm, Gothenburg, Carlscrona, and Norkoping, in 1778. In 1781 the catholics were likewise permitted to profess their religion publicly. Swedes who abandon their religion are, however, punishable by banishment and the loss of all their civil privileges.

LITERATURE.] In natural history, chemistry, and metallurgy, several natives of Sweden have attained to particular eminence; and in these departments of science, the names of the great Linnaeus, professor Bergman, Wallerius, Quist, Klingensterna, and Thunberg, are especially conspicuous. The Swedes have also not neglected the culture of the polite arts, and literature of almost every kind.

UNIVERSITIES.] There are three universities in Sweden; those of Upsal, Lund, and Abo. Of these, the principal is that of Upsal. This university contains about 500 students; that of Lund has about 300; and that of Abo nearly as many. There are, likewise, twelve seminaries for the education of youth, called gymnasia. In every large town there is also a school, maintained at the expence of the Crown, in which boys generally continue till the age of eleven, when they are sent to the gymnasia, and thence, at sixteen, to one of the universities. The university of Upsal has a library containing about 40,000 volumes. There are in Sweden twelve literary academies, most of which publish memoirs of their transactions.

LANGUAGE.] The language of Sweden has a considerable resemblance to the Danish and Icelandic, and, like them, is derived from the ancient Gothic. The Lord's Prayer in Swedish is as follows.

Fader war som äs i himlom; helgat vurde tit namn; tilkomme tit rike; ske tin wilje, sasom i himmelen sa och pa jordene; gift oss i dag varat degelige brud; och forlat oss ware. skulder, sasom och wi forlataom them oss skyldige ovo; och inled oss icke i frestelse, utan fielors ifran ondo; ty rike ar tit, och machten, och herlighet i ewigkeit. Amen.

ANTIQUITIES.] Sweden contains numerous ranges of stones, similar in some degree, though not comparable in dimensions, to those of Stonehenge. There are also great numbers of small mounts or tumuli, like the barrows of Britain, and ancient monuments inscribed with Runic characters. Near Upsal is the morasten, or stone, on which the king used to be enthroned, as the Scottish monarchs anciently were at Scone.

HISTORY.] The history of this kingdom, and indeed, of all the northern nations, even during the first ages of Christianity, is confused and uninteresting, and often doubtful; but sufficiently replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of consistency, till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it assumes a more regular appearance. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly ascertained or uniformly administered. The crown was elective; though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether disregarded. The great lords possessed the most considerable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which consisted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itself in a very rude or imperfect state; the clergy, particularly those of a dignified rank, from the great respect paid to their character among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an immense influence in all public affairs, and obtained possession of the lands that had been left unoccupied by the nobility. These two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the state, formed a council, called the Senate, which deliberated on all public affairs. This system of government was extremely unfavourable to the national prosperity. The Swedes perished in the dis-
sions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between those and their sovereign; they were drained of the little riches they possessed, to support the indolent pomp of a few magnificent bishops; and, what was still more fatal, the unlucky situation of their internal affairs exposed them to the inroads and oppression of a foreign enemy. These were the Danes, who, by their neighbourhood and power, were always able to avail themselves of the dissensions of Sweden, and to subject under a foreign yoke a country weakened and exhausted by its domestic broil. In this deplorable situation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; sometimes under a nominal submission to its own princes, sometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either case equally oppressed and insulted.

Magnus Ladislaus, crowned in 1276, seems to have been the first king of Sweden who pursued a regular system to increase his authority. He was one of the ablest princes that ever sat on the Swedish throne. By his art and address he prevailed upon the convention of estates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the support of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increase of the regal power; and whilst, by the steady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty spirit of the nobles, and created in the rest of the nation a respect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted, he, at the same time, by employing his authority in many respects for the public good, reconciled his subjects to acts of power which in former monarchs they would have opposed with the utmost violence. The successors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and several commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into a state of anarchy.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both these kingdoms. That princess, to the ordinary ambition of her sex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greatest and most complicated designs. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, because, like Semiramis, she found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immense extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to the throne of the latter in 1364. She projected the union of Calmar, so famous in the North; by which these kingdoms were for the future to remain under one sovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who should divide his residence between them all. Several revolutions ensued after the death of Margaret; and at length Christian II., the last king of Denmark who by virtue of the treaty of Calmar was also king of Sweden, engaged in a scheme to render himself entirely absolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this design, proved the destruction of himself, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to establish his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for massacring the principal nobility; and this horrid design was actually carried into execution, Nov. 8. 1520. Of all those who could oppose the despotic purposes of Christian, no one remained in Sweden but Gustavus Vasa, a young prince, descended from the ancient kings of that country, and who had already signalized his arms against the king of Denmark. An immense price was set upon his head. The Danish soldiers were sent in pursuit of him; but by his dexterity and address he eluded all their attempts, and escaped under the disguise of a peasant to the mountains of Dalecarlia. After undergoing innumerable dangers and fatigues, and working in the brass-mines to prevent being discovered, he was betrayed by those in whom he reposed his confidence; but at length, surmounting a thousand obstacles, he engaged the savage but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia to undertake his cause, and assist him to oppose and conquer his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden by his means again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were mostly destroyed; Gustavus was at the head of a victorious army, who admired his valour, and were attached to his person: he was created, therefore, first, administrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by universal consent, and with the shouts of the whole nation. His circumstances were much more favourable than those of any former prince who had possessed this dignity. The massacre of the nobles had freed him from those proud and haughty enemies, who had so long been the bane of all re-
gular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no less powerful than dan-
gerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the North, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious system of that country; and the exercise of the Roman-catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the severest penalties. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, and, when empoisoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the most wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were soon visible: arts and manufactures were established and improved; navigation and commerce began to flourish; letters and civil improvements were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the rest of Europe, began to be formidable by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties and deliberations.

Gustavus died in 1559, while his eldest son Eric was preparing to embark for Eng-land to marry Queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who succeeded his father Gustavus Vasa, the titles of count and baron were introduced in Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miserable and causeless je-
loesy of his brothers forced them to take up arms; and the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. His brother John succeeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Russia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-establish the catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made strong efforts for that purpose, and even re-
cconced himself to the pope, he was opposed by his brother Charles, and the scheme proved ineffectual. His son Sigismund was chosen king of Poland in 1587; upon which he endeavour again to restore the Roman-catholic religion in his dominions; but he died in 1592.

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

The ideas of Gustavus began now to extend. He had seen much military service, and he was assisted by the counsels of La Gardie, one of the best generals and wisest statesmen of his age. His troops had become the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe. The princes of the house of Austria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterprising spirit, and supported his ancient implacable enemy Sigismund, whom he de-
feated. In 1627, he formed the siege of Dantzick, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vistula, added so much to his military character, that the protestant princes placed him at the head of the con-
fedcracy for reducing the house of Austria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the most rapid and wonderful successes. After taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburg, defeated the famous count Tilly, the Austrian general, who was till then thought invincible, and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenstein, another Austrian gene-
ral of equal reputation, was appointed to the command against Gustavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a victory, which, had he survived, would probably have put a period to the Austrian greatness.
The amazing abilities of Gustavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and in the field, never appeared so fully as after his death. He left behind him a set of generals trained by himself, who maintained the glory of the Swedish army with most astonishing valour and success. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torstenson, Wrangel, and others, and their great actions in war, will long live in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what course Gustavus would have pursued, had his life been prolonged, and his successes continued; but there is the strongest reason to believe, that he had in view somewhat more than the relief of the protestants, and the restoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Ostenstern was as consummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Christina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with such success, that she in a manner dictated the peace of Westphalia, 1648, which placed the affairs of Europe in a new attitude.

Christina was but six years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court Descartes, Salmastius, and other learned men, to whom she was not, however, extremely liberal. She expressed a value for Grotius; and she was an excellent judge of the polite arts, but illiberal and indecent in the choice of her private favours. She at the same time discharged all the duties of her high station; and though her generals were basely betrayed by France, she continued to support the honour of her crown. Being resolved not to marry, she resigned her crown to her cousin Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great success against the Poles: he drove their king, John Casimir, into Silesia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their usual inconstancy, they broke. His progress upon the ice against Denmark has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His son and successor, Charles XI., was not five years of age at his father’s death; and this rendered it necessary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the island of Bornholm, and Drontheim in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the same time with Russia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very respectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a subsidy from the French king, Lewis XIV.; but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch’s ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland. He afterwards joined with France against the house of Austria; but being defeated in Germany, at Fellem Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of Swedish Pomerania; the bishop of Munster over-ran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wismar, and several places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St Germain, which followed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had lost except some places in Germany. He then married Ulrica-Leonora, the king of Denmark’s sister; but made a base use of the tranquillity he had regained, by employing his army to enslave his people. The states lost all their power; and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to lose his head and his right hand, for the boldness of his remonstrance in favour of his countrymen; but he saved himself by flight; and Charles became so powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryswick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

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

Charles XII. was succeeded by his sister, the princess Ulrica-Eleanora, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse. We have seen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given some account of the capitulation signed by the queen and her husband. Their first care was to make peace with great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent farther losses by the progress of the Russian, the Danish, the Saxon, and other arms, made many and great sacrifices to obtain peace from those powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed a dangerous party in Sweden, under the name of the Hats, which not only disturbed the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Russia. Their Swedish majesties having no children, it was necessary to settle the succession; especially as the duke of Holstein was descended from the queen's eldest sister, and was at the same time the presumptive heir to the empire of Russia. Four competitors appeared—the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, prince Frederic of Hesse Cassel (nephew to the king), the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The Duke of Holstein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Russia. The czarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, excepting a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, the bishop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince and successor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty. This peace was so firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Danish majesty thought proper to drop all his resentment, and forget the indignity done to his son. The successor of this prince, Adolphus Frederic, married the princess Ulrica, sister to the king of Prussia, and entered into the possession of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, but much harrassed by the contending Swedish factions, and found his situation extremely troublesome, in consequence of the restraints and opposition which he met with from the senate. He passed the greatest part of his reign very disagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February 1771, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus III., the late king, who possessed abilities greatly superior to those of his father.
Gustavus was about five-and-twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden: his understanding had been much cultivated; he had an insinuating address, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father’s death, whence he wrote in the most gracious terms to the senate, repeatedly assuring them that he designed to govern according to the laws. In consequence of the death of his predecessor, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to settle the form of the coronations-oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majesty solemnly signed and swore to support the government of the kingdom as then established; to maintain the rights and liberties of the states, the liberty and security of all his subjects, and to reign with gentleness and equity according to the laws of the kingdom. But scarcely had he taken these solemn oaths, to rule according to the then-established form of government, and accepted the crown upon these conditions, before he formed a plan to govern as he thought proper; regarding these oaths only as matters of ceremony. He made use of every art, the most profound dissimulation, and the utmost dexterity and address, in order to render this hazardous enterprise successful. On his first arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increase his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who presented themselves. Neither rank, fortune, nor interest, were necessary to obtain access to him; it was sufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cause of complaint to lay before him. He listened to the mearest of his subjects with affability, and entered into the minutest details that concerned them: he informed himself of their private affairs, and seemed to interest himself in their happiness. This conduct caused him to be considered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolise him. At length, when he found his scheme ripe for execution, having taken the proper measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers into his interest, on the 19th of August 1772 he totally overthrew the Swedish constitution of government. In less than an hour he made himself master of the whole military force of Stockholm; made all the members of the senate prisoners; and suffering no person to leave the city, that intelligence of these violent proceedings might not be carried to any other part of the kingdom, issued a proclamation for an assembly of the states to meet on the 21st, which having accordingly met, he surrounded with troops, and planted cannon, over which soldiers stood with lighted matches in their hands, facing the hall in which they were assembled. The king, then, being seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the states for their acceptance. As they were surrounded by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them. The marshal of the diet, and the speakers of the other orders, signed the form of government; and the states took the oath to the king, which he dictated to them himself. He afterwards gave them to understand, that he intended in six years’ time again to convene an assembly of the states. Thus was this great revolution completed without any bloodshed, in which the Swedes surrendered that constitution which their forefathers had bequeathed to them after the death of Charles the Twelfth, as a bulwark against any despotic attempt of their future monarchs.

The exorbitant power which Gustavus the Third had thus assumed, he exercised with some degree of moderation; and at an assembly of the states in 1786, after many points were referred to them by the king, and debated with great freedom, he dismissed them with condescension and gentleness; at the same time remitting a tenth part of the subsidy which they had granted him.

On the 12th of July, 1788, hostilities commenced on the frontiers of Finland, between a body of Russian light troops and a detachment of the Swedes posted on the bridge of Pomalasund. After various engagements both by land and by sea, in which Gustavus displayed the greatest abilities, a peace, fixing the frontiers of Russia as they were before the war broke out, was signed at Wereia, on the river Kymene, between the plenipotentiaries of the empress of Russia and the king of Sweden.

The reign of this king was terminated by a premature and tragic end. On the night of the 16th of March 1792, while at a masquerade in the opera-house at Stock-
holm, he was shot with a pistol, by an assassin named Ankerstroem, in consequence of a conspiracy among some of the discontented nobles; and having survived in great pain till the 29th of that month, expired, in the 46th year of his age and 22d of his reign.

The prince-royal, being fourteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed king, by the name of Gustavus Adolphus; and the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, and brother to the late king, in compliance with his majesty's will, was declared sole regent, and guardian of the young sovereign, till he should attain his majority, which was fixed at the age of eighteen. Under the regency peace continued unbroken. Misled by the influence and mistaken views of Russia, the young king acceded to what was called a convention of neutrality among the northern powers, in which claims were advanced which the British government considered as injurious to its interests, and derogatory to its honour. The victory of Lord Nelson off Copenhagen, as noticed under England, and the death of Paul I. of Russia, dissolved the confederacy, and Sweden signed the treaty at St Petersburg 1801, which restored peace to the North. Since then Gustavus has become a party in a coalition formed by the powers of the Continent to place limits to the overwhelming ambition of the emperor of the French.

Gustavus Adolphus IV. the present king of Sweden, was born November 1st 1778, and succeeded his father Gustavus III. 29th March 1792; married October 31st 1797 the princess Frederica Dorothea Wilhelmina, daughter of Charles Louis hereditary prince of Baden, born March 12th 1781; by whom he has issue.

1. Gustavus prince Royal, born November 9th 1799.
2. Sophia Wilhelmina, born May 21st 1801.

Brothers and sisters to the late king.

1. Charles, duke of Sudermania, born October 7th 1748.
2. Frederic Adolphus, duke of Weth-Gothland, born July 18th 1750.
3. Sophia Albertina, abbess of Quedlinburgh, born in October 1753.

RUSSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 1960</td>
<td>44 and 72 North latitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 1850</td>
<td>21 and 65 East longitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contains 1,220,000 square miles, with 25 inhabitants to each.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

RUSSIA is derived from the name of the Russ or Rossi, a Slavonic tribe, the first known possessors of the country. It has generally, but improperly, been called Muscovy, from Moscow, the capital, which takes its name from the river Moskva, on which it is situate.

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] Russia in Europe is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east by the river Cara, the Uralian mountains, and the Volga; on the south by the Black Sea and Turkey; and on the west by Prussia, the Baltic Sea, and Sweden.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE WHOLE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
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<tr>
<td>Length 6750</td>
<td>21 and 190 E. or 170 W. longitude.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Breadth 2320</td>
<td>44 and 78 North latitude.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contains 4,000,000 square miles, with less than 7 inhabitants to each.</td>
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</table>
The whole Empire is divided into 50 Governments; viz.

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<tr>
<th>Governments</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Archangel</td>
<td>Archangel { N. lat. 64°, 34'. E. lon. 38. 55.}</td>
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<td>Bratzlau</td>
<td>Bratzlau.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Caucasia</td>
<td>Astracan { N. lat. 46. 21. E. lon. 48. 2.}</td>
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<tr>
<td>Courland</td>
<td>t tau { N. lat. 56. 40. E. lon. 23. 50.}</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ekaterinoslav</td>
<td>Cherson { N. lat. 46. 34. E. lon. 32. 30.}</td>
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<tr>
<td>Irkutsk</td>
<td>Irkutsk { N. lat. 62. 1. E. lon. 129. 43.}</td>
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<td>Minsk</td>
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<td>Moscow</td>
<td>Moscow { N. lat. 55. 45. E. lon. 37. 46.}</td>
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<td>St Petersburg { N. lat. 59. 50. E. lon. 30. 19.}</td>
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<td>Riga</td>
<td>Riga { N. lat. 56. 56. E. lon. 23. 58.}</td>
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<td>Taurida</td>
<td>Caffa.</td>
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<td>Tobolsk</td>
<td>Tobolsk { N. lat. 58. 12. E. lon. 68. 25.}</td>
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<td>Viatka</td>
<td>Orenburg { N. lat. 51. 46. E. lon. 55. 5.}</td>
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GOVERNMENTS.
Vilna
Vladimir
Volynia
Vologda
Voronesch

CHIEF TOWNS.
Vilna.
Vladimir.
Lucko.
Vologda.
Voronesch.
Voronesch.

Climate, soil, productions, vegetables, mines and minerals.] In the southern parts of Russia, or Muscovy, the longest day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the most northern, the sun is seen in summer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muscovy a vast diversity of soil as well as climate, and the extremes of both are seen and felt in this vast empire.

The severity of the climate, however, in Russia properly so called, is very great. Dr John Glen King, who resided eleven years in Russia, observes, that the cold in St Peterburgh, by Farenheit's scale, is, during the months of January and February, usually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower. The same writer remarks, that it is very difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold so great; but it may help to give some notion of it, to inform the reader, that when a person walks out in that severe weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye lashes. As the common peasants usually wear their beards, you may see them hanging at the chin like a solid lump of ice. But, even in that state, the beard is found very useful in protecting the glands of the throat; and the soldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin, to supply their place. All the parts of the face which are exposed are very liable to be frozen; though it has often been observed, that the person himself does not know when the freezing begins, but is commonly told of it first by those who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with snow, the usual way to thaw it. It is also remarked, that the part which has once been frozen is ever after most liable to be frozen again. In some very severe winters, sparrows, though a hardy species of birds, have been seen quite numbed by the intense cold, and unable to fly; and drivers, when sitting on their loaded carriages, have sometimes been found frozen to death in that posture. When the thermometer has stood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, so as to spread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr King frozen into a solid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of strong ale has also been frozen in an hour and a half; but in this substance there was about a tea-cupful in the middle unfrozen, which was as strong and inflammable as brandy and spirit of wine. But notwithstanding the severity of the cold in Russia, the inhabitants have such various means and provisions to guard against it, that they suffer much less from it than might be expected. The houses of persons of tolerable circumstances are so well protected, both without doors and within, that they are seldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houses in Russia is by an oven constructed with several flues; and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. These ovens consume a much smaller quantity of wood than might be imagined, and yet they serve at the same time for the ordinary people to dress their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and suffer it to burn only till the thickest black smoke is evaporated; they then shut down the chimney, to retain all the rest of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat 24 hours, and is commonly so warm that they sit with very little covering, especially children, who are usually in their shirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very small, that as little cold may be admitted as possible: in the houses of persons of condition, the windows are caulked up against winter, and commonly have
double glass frames. In short, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactness, opening or shutting the flues to increase or diminish the heat. When the Russians go out, they are clothed so warmly, that they almost bid defiance to frost and snow; and it is observable that the wind is seldom violent in the winter; but, when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage which the Russians derive from the severity of their climate is the preserving of provisions by the frost. Good housewives, as soon as the frost sets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of snow between them, and then take them out for use as occasion requires: by which means they save the nourishment of the animal for several months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Petersburgh, is esteemed the finest they have; nor can it be distinguished from what is fresh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Petersburgh are by this means supplied in winter with all manner of provisions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwise be possible; and it is not a little curious to see the vast stacks of whole hogs, sheep, fish, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for sale. The method of thawing frozen provisions in Russia, is by immersing them in cold water; for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it seems to occasion a violent fermentation, and almost a sudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice seems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a transparent incrustation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as fresh as if just gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes so rancid and strong that it cannot be eaten.

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

That a great part of Russia was populous in former days, is not to be disputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture; and supplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of saw dust and a preparation of fish bones. Peter the Great, and his successors down to the late Empress Catharine, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the soil is not everywhere proper for corn, yet its vast fertility in some provinces, bids fair to make grain as common in Russia as it is in the southern countries of Europe. The vast communication by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, serves to supply one province with those products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, iron ore is found in some places, which produces the load-stone, and yields from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich silver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia, and a gold mine was discovered in 1739 in the mountains of Olonetz, which has proved however of little consequence.

Mountains, lakes, rivers, canals. Russia is in general a flat level country, forests, and face of the country. Except towards the north, where lie the Lemnoipelas mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Rhipheai of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the western side of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caspian, Mount Caucasus borders a range of vast plains, extending on the sea of Oral. And here we may observe, that from Petersburgh to Pekin, one shall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Petersburgh to the north part of France by the road of Danzic, Hamburgh, and Amsterdam, we scarcely can perceive the smallest hill. The principal lakes, are the Onega, in the government of Olonetz, about 150 miles in length by 30 in breadth; the lake Ladoga in the government of Vyborg, between the lake Onega and the Gulf of Finland, 180 miles in length by 70
in breadth; the Peypus, which divides the governments of Petersburgh and Riga, about 60 miles in length and 30 in breadth; and the Ilmen, on which stands Novgorod.

The most considerable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running east and south, which, after traversing the greatest part of Muscovy, and winding a course of 3000 English miles, discharges itself into the Caspian Sea; it is not only reckoned the largest, but one of the most fertile rivers of Europe; it produces all kinds of fish, and fertilizes all the lands on each side, with the richest trees, fruits, and vegetables; and it is remarkable, that in all the long course there is not a single cataract to interrupt the navigation, but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, multiplies its quantities of Isles as it divides itself into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world; and all these arms divide themselves into others still less, which join and meet again, so that the Wolga discharges itself into the Caspian Sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moscow preserves a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia; but even with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caspian Sea. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the most eastern part of Russia from Asia; and, in its course towards the east, comes so near the the Wolga, that the late czar had undertaken to have a communication between them by means of a canal; this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, exclusive of its turnings and windings, discharges itself into the Palus Maeotis, or sea of Asoph, about four hundred miles from its rise. The Borithenenses, or Dnieper, which is likewise one of the largest rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacs, and that of the Nagaisch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinburn, near Ocakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance. To these may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itself at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its source near Ustia, and dividing itself into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea. Industry has also been successfully added to the bounty of Nature in facilitating inland navigation: A communication between Astracan and Petersburgh is effected by the canal of Vishnei Voloshok, which unites the Twertza and the Shlina. The canal of Ladogo, which runs along the edge of that lake, joins the Voskof to the Neva, extending the length of 67 miles, and communicating with the canal of Vishnei Voloshok. Another canal is cut from Moscow to the River Don.

Forests of pine, fir, larch, mountain-ash, &c. abound in this extensive country; and the northern and north-eastern provinces are in a manner desert; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Christians rather than Pagans.

**Quadrupeds, Birds, and Fishes.** These do not differ greatly from those described in the Scandinavian provinces, to which we must refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes prey of every creature it can master; and is said to be produced chiefly in the fir tree forests. The hyenas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already described, afford their furs for clothing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes and ermine are more valuable in Russia than elsewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almost the only beasts of burden known in many parts of Russia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horses for war and carriages; but those employed in the ordinary purposes of life are but small; as are their cows and sheep.

We know of few or no birds in Russia, that have not been already described. The same may be said of fishes, only the Russians are better provided than their neighbours, with sturgeon, cod, salmon, and beluga; the latter resembles a sturgeon, and is often called the large sturgeon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its flesh is white and delicious. Of the roe, of the sturgeon, and the beluga, the Russians make the famous caviarsero, so much esteemed for its richness and flavour, that it is often sent in presents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas they often find what is called beluga-stones, which is concealed in that mass of glandular flesh which cover the posterior parts of the dorsal spine, supplying the place of a kidney in fish. The instant it is taken from the fish, it is soft and moist, but it quickly hardens in the air. Its size is that of a hen’s egg, shape sometimes oval and sometimes flatted, and it commonly sells for a ruble. This stone is supposed by pro-
fessor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fish: it holds a considerable rank, though with little merit, among the domestic remedies of the Russians, who scrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diseases of children, and other disorders.

Population, Manners and Customs.] The population of Russia was long very much under-rated. Indeed, it was generally understood not to contain above 7,000,000 of inhabitants, until Mr Voltaire demonstrated that it certainly had at least 20,000,000. But even that falls short of the number at present. Mr Bøtticher, in his statistical tables, gives the population of the European part at 20,882,986, and that of the whole empire at 25 millions. Mr Tucke, in his View of the Russian Empire, states, that, by the lists of the revision of the empire, drawn up in 1783, as he assures us, with the greatest care and accuracy of examination, there were in the 41 governments of which Russia then consisted, male inhabitants 12,838,529.

Supposing an equal number of females, the amount will be 25,677,000

Allowing for the Cossacs and unnumbered tribes and classes 1,720,000

We shall have for the whole population in 1783 27,397,000

To this number he adds, for the increase of inhabitants in 12 years, 3,000,000

And for the new acquisitions since 1783, or the nine new governments 5,755,000

Consequently the present population of the Russian empire will be at least 36,152,000

He afterwards deduces, from a table of the births, deaths, and marriages in the eparchies of the Greek church throughout the Russian empire, in the year 1799, faithfully extracted from the general returns received by the synod, that the whole number of inhabitants must have then amounted, on a moderate estimate, to upwards of forty millions.

Professor Storch, in his "Historico-statistical Picture of the Russian Empire at the "End of the Eighteenth Century," likewise rates the population of the whole of the Russian dominions at 36 millions of souls.

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

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Russians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness; no less than 4000 brandy shops have been reckoned in Moscow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyards, or nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication; and the most complete objects of misery and barbarity presented themselves upon the streets, while the court of Moscow was by far the most splendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dressed after the most superb Asiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The Earl of Carlisle, in the account of his embassy, says, that he could see nothing but gold and precious stones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of these and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, little better than beasts of burden, to support the pomp of his court. He forced his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The other improvements in learning and the arts, which he made
shall be mentioned elsewhere. The Russians, before his days, had hardly a ship upon their coasts. They had no convenience for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no places of public diversion: and they entertained a sovereign contempt, for all improvements of the mind. At present a French or English gentleman may make a shift to live as comfortably and sociably in Russia as in most parts of Europe. In Petersburg the number of English merchants who are resident is very considerable, and their society is courted by the Russian nobility, and distinguished by the elegancies of life. The polite assemblies have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient usages remain, and drunkenness is now confined to the lowest classes.

The Russians were formerly noted for so strong an attachment to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign parts. This, however, was only the consequence of their pride and ignorance; for Russian nobility, besides those who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. It is now the policy of Russia to educate her young men of quality abroad, and introduce them into foreign services, particularly that of the British fleet.

It is said that the Russian ladies were formerly as submissive to their husbands in their families as the latter are to their superiors in the field; and that they thought themselves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the discipline of a whip, manufactured by themselves, which they presented to their husbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themselves; and formerly consisted of some very whimsical rites, many of which are now disused. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never seen each other, the bride is examined stark naked by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defects they find in her person. On her wedding-day she is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the priest has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or sexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarse and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even amongst the lower ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their husbands, which extended even to scourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded against by the laws of the country, or by peculiar stipulations in the marriage-contract.

The nobility, and almost all the people of quality, dress after the French fashion; and the ladies, even in the remotest parts of the country, appear more modishly attired than would easily be imagined. The peasants,burghers, and most of the mercantile class, still adhere to the national dress. They let their beards grow, which are commonly long and bushy; their hair is cut and combed. They wear a short shirt without any sort of collar, and loose trousers, over which the shirt usually hangs, and is girt round the waist with a string. Over the shirt they wear a short breast-cloth, or vest, furnished with buttons, and a coat girt about with a sash that passes twice round the body. The covering for the head is either a flat fur cap, with narrow brim, or a cap which forms a bag of a span in depth, in which they keep their handkerchief on their head. Leg-wrappers are worn instead of stockings, especially by the lower class of people; these are tied about their feet and legs with packthread, so as to make them look very thick. The women wear a saraphan, or vest without sleeves, with is close about the neck, and sits tight to the body down to the hips; from the hips it spreads without gatherings, and reaches down to the shoes. On the facing it is garnished with a thick row of little buttons, from the top to the very bottom; it is however, girt with a sash, to which the bunch of keys is suspended. The girls in general wear their hair uncovered more than the women: the former plait it in three plaits, with ribbons and beads tied to the points of them. In some provinces they wear a band across the forehead bedizened with pearls and beads of various colours; in others they wear caps in the form of an upright crescent. In the vicinity of Moscow, and in several of the neighbouring governments, the cap has a stiff flap before, like a jockey-cap, and is decorated with pearls and various coloured stones.

Funerals.] The Russians of lower rank entertain many fantastic notions with regard to the state of departed souls. After the dead body is dressed a priest is hired to pray for his soul, to purify it with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water while it
remains above ground, which generally is for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many gesticulations of sorrow, the priest produces a ticket, signed by the bishop and another clergyman, as the deceased's passport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpse, the company return to the deceased's house, where they drown their sorrow in intoxication; which lasts, with few intervals, forty days. During that time, a priest every day says prayers over the grave of the deceased; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer, in his long journey to the place of his destination after this life. At the new year is usually held a feast of the dead, on which every one visits the grave of his relations, laying some victuals upon it, and hears mass, in payment for which the priest gets the victuals. Proligates, such as have come to a miserable end, and all who have died without the sacrament, were formerly thrown, without inhumation, into a hut for that purpose, and on the Thursday before Whitsuntide were buried by the clergy, who said masses for their souls, attended by the inhabitants of the place. At present greater indulgence is shown to these poor wretches.

Punishments.] The Russians are remarkable for the severity and variety of their punishments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. Peter the Great used to suspend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death, hundreds, nay thousands, at a time. The single and double knot were lately inflicted upon ladies, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knot the hands are bound behind the prisoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pully, lifts him from the ground, with the dislocation of both his shoulders; and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner, with a hard thong cut from wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it should cease. It is not always the number of strokes, but the method of applying them, which occasions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by striking him upon the ribs; though persons are sometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out of the tongue are likewise practised in Russia; and even the late empress Elizabeth, though she prohibited capital punishments, was forced to give way to the supposed necessity of those tortures.

According to the strict letter of the law, there are no capital punishments in Russia; except in the case of high-treason: but when this matter is thoroughly investigated, there is much less humanity in it than has been supposed. For there are many felons who die under the knot; and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines; so that there is reason to believe, that no fewer criminals suffer death in Russia than in those countries where capital punishments are authorised by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knot, and having their cheeks and forehead marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vishnei, Volshock, and other places; but the common practice is to send them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nershink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts in these mines. The greatest part are confined in barracks, excepting those who are married: the latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themselves and families. The prohibition of torture does honour to the humanity of the late empress Catharine.

Travelling.] Among the many conveniences introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. Like their Scandinavian neighbours already described, the Russians travel in sledges made of the bark of the linden-tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the snow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Russia horses draw their sledges, and the sledgeway towards February becomes so well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the sledges, in which they may lie at full length, and so travel.
night and day, wrapt up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, such as that between Petersburgh and Moscow, in three days and nights.

**DIFFERENT NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA.** As the present subjects of the Russian empire in its most extensive sense, are the descendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, so we find among them a vast variety of character and manners; and the great reformations introduced of late years, as well as the discoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Russian dominions, now live in fixed houses and villages, cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately they were not admitted into the Russian armies; but now they make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both sides of the Wolga are inhabited by Tschermyses and Morduars, a peaceable, industrious people. The Bashkirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kasan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kal-mucis occupy the rest of the tract to Astracan, and the frontiers of the Usbecs; and, in consideration of certain presents they received from her imperial majesty, they served in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends or foes.

The Cossacks were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukraine, as a militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them moved to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there established a colony. They were soon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Asoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in ashes. They next put themselves under the protection of the Russians, built Circaska, on an island in the Don; and their possessions, which consisted of thirty nine towns on both sides of that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. They there lived in a country which they took care to cultivate; and they were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects to the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They professed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occasionally served against the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Moscotis.

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

The Tartar citizens of Kasan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterprising; but as they extend their connections by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kasan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England, Morocco-leather. The villages of these people comprehend
from ten to one hundred farms. Most of them also contain tanners, shoe-makers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters.

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

The Finns are of Asiatic origin, and have a close resemblance to the Laplanders, only they are more civilised, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have schools and academies, and make some progress in the arts and sciences. They profess the Lutheran faith, and use the Christian era in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exercise most of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, and fishing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a considerable degree of freedom, as the Russian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The Voticks, who are a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the provinces of Viatik, in the government of Kasan. Some of the Voticks are Christians; but great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The Ostarks, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in subjection to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their descendants are still reputed noble. These people divide themselves into different stocks or tribes, they choose their chiefs from among the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes.

They are entirely unacquainted with the use of letters, and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the case of other Finnish nations.

The Vogoults are rather below the middle stature, have generally black hair, and a scanty beard. Their principal occupation is in the chase, in which they discover much eagerness and address; using indiscriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps, snares, and gins, and all the lures of game.

The Tschouwaraches dwell along the two sides of the Wolga, in the government of Nischeini, Novogorod, Kasan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her husband's boots.

The Kirguissians have a frank and prepossessing air, similar to that which characterises the Tartars of Kasan. They have a sharp but not a fierce look, and smaller eyes than those Tartars. They have good natural sense, and are affable, and high-spirited; but fond of their ease, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deserts in search of pasture for their flocks and herds, which constitutes their principal occupation. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons; they have generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters; and they also smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children, all smoke, and take snuff; they keep the latter in little horns fastened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the same manner as the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous trains that accompany them in their cavalcades, and the quantity of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and slaves.

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

The Kalmuks are a courageous tribe, and numerous: for the most part raw boned and stout. Their visage is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuc may be easily known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose, a short chin, the complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. Their clothing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chinese. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age, and let it stink ever so much; so that in every bazaar the flesh market hath the appearance of a lay stall of carrion; they eat likewise the roots and plants of their deserts. They are great eaters; but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both sexes smoke continually: during the summer they keep to the north, and in the winter to the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

The Kamtschatdales have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chase furnishes them with sables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. They eat and drink great quantities: but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadalian equipage, dogs harness, and all, costs in that country 4l. 10s. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtschadales believed the immortality of the soul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian religion. They are superstitious to extravagance, and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the Siberians were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. Kamtschatka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia, and here some of the greatest criminals are sent.

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

The conquered provinces, as already observed, retain the exercise of their own religion; but such is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its subjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, in Siberia and uncultivated countries. Many ill judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flourishing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Sarapta; the beginning of the settlement was in 1765, with distinguished privileges from the imperial court.

Language.] The Russian language is an improved dialect of the Slavonian, which with its characters, is still in use in the offices of religion. The Russian alphabet has thirty-six letters, which have a great resemblance in form to the Greek characters. The language is copious, expressive, and requires great pliancy in the organs of utterance. The Pater Noster in Russian is as follows—Отче наш, еси на небесех; да сываются имя твое да придет тварь твоя; да бъдеть воля твоя, яко не бе́се е́я на земле чле́б наш навоошмие да́й нам дне́н; е́е ота́своем а́н долже́ наша́я яко́бе е́е о́ставленем долнне́ком на́шим: е́е не вове́де наво́ икооошемие нон е́е́ба́в нак о́т лоооаваго; яко тво́е е́е тзварсьво, е́е се́ела, е́е слова, во веке́е веков. Амин.

Learning and learned men.] The Russians have hitherto made but an indi-considerable figure in the republic of letters; but the great encouragement given by their sovereigns of late, in the institution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced sufficient proofs that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe; especially those that relate to astronomy, the mathematics, and natural philosophy.

Universities.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moscow; one for classical learning and philosophy, the second for mathematics, and the third for navigation and astronomy. To these he added a dispensary, which is a magnificent build-ing, and under the care of some able German chemists and apothecaries. The empress Catharine also founded an university at Petersburgh, and invited some of the most learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good salaries; and also a military academy, where the young nobility and officers sons are taught the art of war. It ought also to be mentioned, to the honour of the same royal benefactress, that she founded a number of schools for the education of the lower classes of her subjects, throughout the best inhabited parts of the empire.

Cities, towns, palaces, and other buildings.] Petersburgh naturally takes the lead in this division. It lies at the junction of the Neva, with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60: but the reader may have a better idea of its situation, by being informed that it stands on both sides of the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city consisted of a few small fishing-huts, on a spot so waterish and swampy, that the ground was formed into nine islands. Without entering into too minute a description of this wonderful city, it is sufficient to say, that it extends about six miles every way; and contains every structure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the most celebrated cities in Europe. But there is a convent which deserves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated at the expense of the empress; 200 of them of superior rank, and the others, daughters of citizens and tradesmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements suitable to their conditions of life, and those of the lower class are presented with a sum of money as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themselves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a Foundling Hospital, assistant to that noble one established at Moscow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately, and then, after the utmost attention to her, she leaves the child to the state, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.
As Petersburgh is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the summer time is surprising. In winter 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. It is supposed, that there are 400,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almost every sect of the Christian religion is tolerated. It also contains five palaces, some of which are superb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that side next the sea by the fortress of Cronstadt; which, considering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland, is sufficient to guard it on that side from the attempts of any enemy. Petersburgh is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conquests from the Swedes. All the neighbourhood of this city is covered with country houses and gardens.

The city of Moscow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it still continues considerable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It stands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from whence it takes its name, in lat. 55°45', and about 1414 miles north-east of London; and though its streets are not regular, it presents a very picturesque appearance; for it contains such a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and streams, that it seems rather to be a cultivated country, than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not attested by the most unquestionable authors; but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated state of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater lustre in a traveller's eyes. Busching speaks of it as the largest city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it stands on, computed to be 16 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed, that Moscow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three palaces or squares. Busching makes the merchants' exchange to contain about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city displays a greater contrast than Moscow, of magnificence and meanness in building. The houses of the inhabitants in general are miserable timber booths; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are spacious and lofty. The Kremlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the most superb structures in the world; it stands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleasure-house and stables, a victualling house, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt, or covered with silver; the architecture is in the Gothic taste; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double girt, and contains a silver branch with 48 lights, said to weigh 2800 pounds.

The Foundling Hospital at Moscow is an excellent institution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the Empress Catharine, and is supported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and other charitable endowments. It is an immense pile of building, of a quadrangular shape, and may contain 8000 foundlings. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen they have the liberty of choosing any particular branch of trade; and for this purpose there are different species of manufactures established in the hospital.

Nothing can be said with certainty as to the population of Moscow. When Lord Carlisle was the English ambassador there, in the reign of Charles |I. this city was 12 miles in compass, and the number of houses were computed at 40,000. Voltaire says that when he wrote, Moscow was twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000. Mr Cocc confirms the account of the circumference of this city, but thinks the account of its population much exaggerated; according to an account which was given to him by an English gentleman, which he received from the lieutenant of the police, and which, he says, may be relied on, Moscow contains within the ramparts 250,000, and in the adjacent villages 50,000. More modern travellers say, that the population of Moscow in winter, cannot be less than 400,000.
Archangel, at the mouth of the Dwina, on the White Sea, was, before the time of Peter the Great, the only port by which Russia communicated with the rest of Europe. It is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth, built all of wood, excepting the Exchange, which is of stone. Notwithstanding the decrease of the trade of Archangel since the building of Petersburg, it still has a considerable export trade.

Riga, a strong town, formerly the capital of Livonia, is next to Petersburg, the most commercial place in the Russian Empire. It contains about 9,000 inhabitants within the fortifications, and in the suburbs 15,000. There is a floating wooden bridge over the Dwina 2600 feet long, and 40 broad, which, in winter, when the ice sets in, is removed, and in summer replaced.

**Antiquities.** Russia affords very few remains of antiquity: the catacombs or burying-places near Kiow, which are a kind of subterranean labyrinths of considerable extent; and some brass idols of the pagan ancestors of the Russians, occasionally found in the tombs, containing likewise weapons and ornaments; are perhaps all that can deserve notice.

**CURIOSITIES.** This article affords no great entertainment. The great bell of Moscow, weighs, according to Mr Coxe, "432,000 pounds, and exceeds in bigness every bell in the known world. Its size is so enormous, that I could scarcely have given credit to the account of its magnitude, if I had not examined it myself, and ascertained its dimensions with great exactness. Its height is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom twenty-one yards eleven inches, its greatest thickness twenty-three inches." It was cast in the reign of the empress Anne: but the beam on which it hung, being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; so that it lay in a manner useless. Nature arrests the attention of her admirers at the cataracts of the Dnieper, of which there are thirteen. Stupendous waterfalls are not uncommon in the government of Olonetz. The prodigious rocks of ice, of several miles in extent and tremendous height, which float in the ocean to the north of Russia, may likewise be reckoned among the natural curiosities of this country; as among the artificial may be commemorated the palace of ice which the Empress Anne caused to be built on the banks of the Neva, in 1740. This edifice, constructed of huge quadrats of ice, hewn in the manner of freestone, was 52 feet in length, 16 in breadth, and 20 in height; the walls were three feet thick. In the several apartments were tables, chairs, beds, and all kinds of household furniture, of ice. In front of the palace, besides pyramids and statues, stood six cannons, carrying balls of six pounds weight, and two mortars of ice. From one of the former, as a trial, an iron ball, with only a quarter of a pound of powder, was fired off: the ball went through a two-inch board at sixty paces from the mouth of the cannon, and the piece of ice artillery, with its carriage, remained uninjured by the explosion. The illumination of the ice-palace at night had an astonishingly grand effect.

**CommerCe and Manufacture.** The annual exports of Russia at present amount to about 2,400,000l., and her imports do not exceed 1,600,000l.; so that the balance of trade is yearly 800,000l. Sterling in her favour*. Her productions and exports, in general are many, and very valuable; viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, sail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, isinglass, linseed-oil, pot-ash, soap, feathers, train-oil, hog's bristles, musk, rhaburb, and other drugs, timber, and also raw silk from China and Persia. The Ukraine may be called the granaries of the empire; the best corn, hemp, flax, honey, and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 head of horned cattle are annually sent from its pastures into Silesia and Saxony.

Russia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans to China, chiefly in furs; and they bring back from thence, tea, silk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bocharia, near the river Oxus in Tartary, Russia sends her own merchandize, in return for India silks, curled lamb skins, and ready money; and also for the annual fair at Samarcand; she likewise trades to Persia by Astrakan, cross the Caspian sea, for raw and wrought silk. The

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empress, in 1784, issued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by sea and land with the several countries bordering on the Euxine, which have been lately annexed to the empire. The same privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherson, Sebätiopolis, and Theodosia, (formerly Caffa,) in the province of Taurica, as in Petersburgh. Several manufactures, among others those of isinglass, oil, and soap, are conducted in Russia with considerable activity and success. There are also manufactures of linen, silk, paper, and tobacco. Coarse cloths, carpets, and hats, are likewise made in Russia; and the leather which takes its name from the country is a kind of staple commodity.

**Government, laws, and distinction of rank.** The sovereign of the Russian empire is absolute and despotick in the fullest extent of those terms, and master of the lives and properties of all his subjects; who, though they are of the first nobility, or have been highly instrumental in promoting the welfare of the state, may, notwithstanding, for the most trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be seized upon and sent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiscated, whenever the sovereign or his ministers shall think proper. Persons of any rank may be banished into Siberia, for the slightest political intrigue, and their possessions being confiscated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the insinuations of an artful courtier.

The system of the civil laws at present established in Russia, is very imperfect, and in many instances barbarous and unjust; being an assemblage of laws and regulations drawn from most of the states of Europe, ill digested, and in many respects not at all adapted to the genius of the Russian nation. But Catharine II. made some attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of justice were in general very corrupt, and those by whom it was administered extremely ignorant; but the empress made some judicious regulations, and fixed a certain salary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients, and thus the poor were without hope or remedy.

The distinctions of rank form a considerable part of the Russian constitution. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes or knazes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were sovereigns upon their own estates, till they were reduced by the czar; but they still retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces; those titles, however, so often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the late empress introduced among their subjects, the title of counts and princes, and the other distinctions of nobility that are common to the rest of Europe.

**Revenue and expenses.** The revenue of Russia arises from the capitation tax or head-money, the tax on the capital of merchants, the produce of the imperial domains, the customs, the stamp-duties, the stamps on kabadks or public-houses, the salt-trade, the mines, the mint, and other taxes. It amounts, according to the latest and most authentic accounts, to nearly 50 millions of rubles, or about ten millions sterling.

When this sum is considered relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, it will be found that the national revenue of Russia far exceeds that of most other countries in Europe, and is amply sufficient, not only to answer all the expenses of government, but also to afford considerable sums for the benefit and embellishment of the empire, though the late empress remitted many taxes, and abolished several monopolies. With the further increase of commerce, it will naturally keep equal pace.

According to Bœticher, however, Russia has a national debt of nearly nine millions Sterling, for the greater part of which interest is paid at the rate of 8 per cent. The annual expenses of the state, according to the same author, amount only to 5,600,000L.

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

**Orders.** The order of St Andrew, instituted by Peter the Great, in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers in the wars against the Turks. He chose St Andrew for his patron, because by tradition he was the founder of Christianity in the country. The knights are persons of the first rank in the empire. The order of Sir Alexander Nevski's
was also instituted by Peter the Great, and confirmed by the empress Catharine I., in the year 1725. The order of St Catharine was instituted by Peter the Great, in honour of his empress, for her assistance on the banks of the Pruth. The order of St George, instituted by the late empress Catharine II., in favour of the military officers in her service. The order of St Vladimir was instituted about October 3, 1782, by the empress, in favour of those who served her in a civil capacity. The order of St Anne of Holstein, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great.

**ARMY AND NAVY.**] The army is generally calculated to amount to from 400 to 450,000 men: according to Busching, it amounted in 1772 to above 600,000; and, according to an estimate taken in 1784, it then amounted to 368,901. Mr Tooke, in his View of the Russian Empire, estimates the whole military force of Russia at 600,000 men, of whom, he says, we may reckon at least 500,000 effective soldiers in actual service.

The Russian navy in the harbours of Cronstadt, Revel, and Archangel, in the year 1792, consisted of 50 ships of the line, of which 8 were of 110 guns, and the rest of 74 and 66; 27 frigates of 28, 32, and 38 guns; 50 galleys, 300 gun-boats, 16 fireships, and other smaller vessels, besides a fleet in the Black Sea, consisting of 17 ships of the line, and a still greater number of frigates, corvetts, &c. Twenty thousand sailors are kept in continual pay and service, either on board the ships, or in the dock-yards. The harbour at Cronstadt, seven leagues from Petersburg, is defended on one side by a fort of four bastions, and on the other by a battery of 100 pieces of cannon. The canal and large basin will contain near 600 sail of ships.

**ROYAL TITLE.**] The sovereign of Russia is stiled in his ukases or royal decrees, and other public acts, "Emperor and Autocrat of all the Russians." He is also called the Czar, or more properly Tsar, or, if an empress, Tsarina, a Slavonic word, signifying king or sovereign. The term autocrat is a compound Greek word, signifying self-ruler, or sole ruler, and is employed to express the Russian word samoderjev; but Mr Tooke thinks that it does not come up to its meaning, which, perhaps, would be more truly expressed by "uncontrollable ruler." The full title of the Russian monarch is of considerable length, and enumerates a great number of the governments of Russia, and the countries over which he has dominion.

**HISTORY.**] We cannot, with the smallest degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the history of Russia, higher than the introduction of Christianity, which happened about the tenth century, when a princess of this country, called Ogal, is said to have been baptized at Constantinople, and refused the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimises, in marriage. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, sent priests to baptize the Russians, who were for some time subject to the see of Constantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards resigned all their authority over the Russian church, and its bishops erected themselves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain that, till the year 1450, the princes of Russia were but very little considered, being chiefly subjected by the Tartars. About this time John Basilides, or Ivan Vassilievitch, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novgorod, from whom he is said to have taken 300 cart-loads of gold and silver. His prosperous reign of forty years gave a new aspect to Russia.

His grandson, the famous John Basilowitz, or Vassilievitch II., having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, subdued the kingdoms of Kasan and Astracan Tartary, in Asia, and annexed them to the Russian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of some of his finest provinces, particularly Livonia and Estonia, to throw themselves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II., the sovereign of Russia took the title of Velike Knez, "great prince," great lord, or great chief, which the Christian nations afterwards rendered by that of great duke. The title of Tsar, or, as we call it, Czar (a word which signifies king, or emperor) was added to that of the Russian sovereigns. Upon the death of John Basilowitz, the Russian succession was filled by a set of weak cruel princes, and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow assassinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and usurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince, who had escaped from his
murderers; and with the assistance of the Poles, and a considerable party (which every tyrant has against him), he drove out the usurper, and seized the crown himself. The imposture was discovered as soon as he came to the sovereignty, because the people were not pleased with him; and he was murdered. Three other false Demetriuses started up, one after another.

These impostures prove the desppicable state of ignorance in which the Russians were immerged. The country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes, but was at length delivered by the good sense of the boyars, impelled by their despair, so late as the year 1613. The independency of Russia was then on the point of being extinguished. Uladislaus, son of Sigismund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was such, that it produced a general rebellion of the Russians, who drove the Poles out of Moscow, where they had for some time defended themselves with unexampled courage. Philaretus, archbishop of Rostow, whose wife was descended from the ancient sovereigns of Russia, had been sent ambassador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Russian tyrants, and there was detained prisoner, under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled against Uladislaus. The boyars met in a body; and such was their veneration for Philaretus, and his wife, whom the tyrant had shut up in a nunnery, that they elected their son Michael Feodorowitz, of the house of Romanoff, a youth of fifteen years of age, to be their sovereign. The father being exchanged for some Polish prisoners, returned to Russia; and being created patriarch by his son, reigned in the right of Michael with great prudence and success. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladislaus upon the throne, and likewise the claim of a brother of Gustavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Russia occasioned a war between those two nations, which gave Michael a kind of breathing-time; and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects. He reigned thirty-three years; and by his wisdom, and the mildness of his character, restored ease and tranquility to his subjects.

Alexius succeeded his father Michael. He appears to have been a prince, of great genius. He recovered Smolensko, Kiow, and the Ukraine, but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand seignor, Mahomet IV., haughtily demanded some possessions from him in the Ukraine, his answer was, "That he scorned to submit to a Mahometan dog, and that his cimeter was as good as the grand seignor's sabre." He promoted agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and sciences, of which he was himself a lover; published a code of laws, some of which are still used in the administration of justice, and greatly improved his army, by establishing discipline. This he effected chiefly by the aid of foreigners, most of whom were Scotch. He subdued a chief of the Don Cossacs, named Stenka Rusin, who endeavoured to make himself king of Astracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, were hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and silk manufactures into his dominions; and, instead of putting to death, or enslaving his Lithuanian, Polish, and Tartar prisoners, he sent them to people the banks of the Volga and the Kamma. Theodore succeeded his father Alexius in 1667. He reigned seven years; and having on his death-bed called his boyars around him, in the presence of his brother and sister, Ivan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards so celebrated, and who was his half-brother, he said to them, "Hear my last sentiments; they are dictated by my love for the state, and by my affection for my people. The bodily infirmities of Ivan necessarily must affect his mental faculties; he is incapable of ruling an empire like that of Russia; he cannot take it amiss if I recommend to you to set him aside, and let your approbation fall on Peter, who, to a robust constitution, joins great strength of mind, and marks of a superior understanding." But this wise destination extremely offended the princess Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means to excite a violent sedition among the Streiltzies, who then formed the standing army of Russia. Their excesses surpassed all description; but Sophia, by her management, replaced her brother Ivan in his birth-right, and exercised the government herself, with the greatest severity and inhumanity; for all the Russian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom she supposed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The instances given of her barbarous administration are shocking.
to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Ivan and Peter, were declared joint sovereigns, and their sister their associate co-regent. Her administration was bloody and tumultuous; nor durst she venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other insurgents. Finding this debility in her own person, she intended to have married prince Basil Galitzin, who is said to have been a man of sense and spirit, and some learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter now was about 17 years of age, and asserted his right to the throne. Sophia and Ivan were then at Moscow; and upon Peter's publishing aloud that a conspiracy had been formed by his sister to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or destroyed Sophia's party, and forced herself to retire to a monastery. Galitzin's life was spared; but his great estate was confiscated, and the following curious sentence was pronounced as his punishment: "Thou art commanded "by the most clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to "continue the remainder of thy days. His majesty, out of his extreme goodness, al-"lows thee three pence per day for thy subsistence." This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and easy Ivan; and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future secur-

ity by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealousy of his sister, associated himself with the Germans and Dutch; with the former, for the sake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter, for their skill in navigation, which he practised himself. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmontese; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, disciplined the czar's own regiment, consisting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raised a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exercises of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolence of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels, leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He set out as an attendant upon his own ambassadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known, to be inserted here. By working as a common ship-carperenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation; and through the ex-
cellent discipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-ayed
 or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia; and at last he even exterminated, excepting two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land; and the many defeats which he received, especially that from Charles XII. at Narva, stimulated him to new exertions. The battles he lost rendered him at length a conqueror, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendship he showed to Augustus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank distinct from merit; and he at last married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish soldier, because, after a long co-habitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans, and to assist his councils. Catharine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a com-
mon soldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs, which succeeded one an-
other after the battle of Pultowa in 1709, with Charles XII., were not the chief glory of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity to the cultivation of com-
merce, arts, and sciences, and made such acquisitions of dominion, that he may be said at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the most powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his subjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who in Russia is entitled the Czarowitz, and who, marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alleged, in-
to some dangerous practices against his person and government; for which he was tried, and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter was, it is difficult to determine on the justice of the charge. It was undoubtedly his will that the young prince should be found guilty; and the very reading of the sentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is said, that, as soon as sentence of death was pronounced upon
upon the prince, in which were the following words, "The divine, ecclesiastical, civil, "and military law, condemns to death, without mercy, all those whose attempts "against their father and their sovereign are manifest," he fell into the most violent convulsions, from which it was with great difficulty that he regained a little interval of sense, during which he desired his father would come to see him, when he asked his pardon, and soon after died. According to other accounts, he was secretly executed in prison, and marshal Weyde was the person who beheaded him. After this event, in 1724, Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the same magnificent ceremonies as if she had been a Greek empress, and to be recognized as his successor; which she accordingly was, and mounted the Russian throne upon the decease of her husband. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was succeeded by Peter II., a minor, son to the czarowitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of Prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe. Peter II. died of the small pox in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II., ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished, and the duke of Holstein, son to the eldest daughter, was, by the destination of the late empress, entitled to the crown; but the Russians, for political reasons, filled their throne with Anne, duchess of Courland, second daughter to Ivan, Peter's eldest brother, though her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburg, was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted the throne under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, and asserted the prerogative of her ancestors. Upon her death in 1740, John, the son of her niece, the princess of Mecklenburg, by Anthony Ulric of Brunswick-Wolfenbuttle, was by her will entitled to the succession; but being no more than two years old, Biron, who had been her favourite, and raised by her to the duchy of Courland, was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princess of Mecklenburg and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburg to arrest Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was sent into exile to Siberia.

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

The reign of Elizabeth may be said to have been more glorious than that of any of her predecessors, her father excepted. She abolished capital punishments, and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation till her time unknown in Russia; but at the same time she punished counts Munich and Osterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late administration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden, and settled, as we have already seen, the succession to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the most equitable foundation. Having gloriously finished a war with Sweden, she restored the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holstein-Gottorp, who was descended from her eldest sister, her heir. She gave him the title of grand duke of Russia; and, soon after her accession to the throne, called him to her court, where he renounced the succession of the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly was his right, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, the late empress Catharine II., by whom he had a son, the late emperor of Russia, Paul I.

Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expense of a large subsidy; but many political, and some private reasons, it is said, determined her to take part with the house of Austria against the king of Prus-
sia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the fortune of the war, which was in dis-
favour of Prussia, notwithstanding that monarch’s amazing abilities both in the field and
and cabinet. Her success was such as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power,
which was, perhaps, saved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III., grand-duke of Russia, and duke of Holstein,
a prince whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne pos-
essed of an enthusiastic admiration of his Prussian majesty’s virtues; to whom he gave
peace, and whose principles and practices he seems to have adopted as the rule of his
future reign. He might have surmounted the effects even of those peculiarities, unpo-
pular as they then were in Russia; but it is said that he aimed at reformation in his do-
minions, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt; and that he even ventured to
cut off the beards of his clergy. It is also alleged that he had formed a resolution to
destroy both the empress and her son, though they had been declared heirs to the im-
perial throne by the same authority which had placed the crown upon his head: even
the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge that he had resolved to shut up his wife
and son in a convent, to place his mistress upon the throne, and to change the order of
succession. The execution of his designs was, however, prevented by an almost gene-
ral conspiracy formed against him, in which the empress took a very active part; and
this unfortunate prince scarcely knew an interval between the loss of his crown and his
life, of which he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762.
His wife, the late Catharine II., was proclaimed empress.

The death of prince Ivan, son to the princess of Mecklenburg, was an act of state
policy perfectly according with the means by which Catharine ascended the throne.
This young prince, as soon as he came into the world, was designed, though illegally,
to wear the imperial crown of Russia, after the death of his great aunt, the empress
Anne Ivannova; but, on the advancement of the empress Elizabeth, he was condemn-
ed to lead an obscure life in the castle of Schlusselburg, under a strong guard, who had
particular orders, that, if any person or any armed force was employed in attempting to
deliver him, they should kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his prison, when
the empress Catharine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which deposed her
husband Peter III. had occasioned a strong ferment in the minds of the people, Catha-
rine was apprehensive that some attempt might be made in favour of Ivan; she there-
fore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entrusted him to the
care of two officers who were devoted to her interest. However, a Lieutenant of infan-
try, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at least pretended so, to deliver Ivan
by force of arms, from the fortress of Schlusselburg; and under this pretence the prince
was put to death, after an imprisonment of 23 years. The lieutenant who attempted to
deliver him was arrested, and afterwards beheaded: but, notwithstanding this, it has
been represented that he was a mere tool of the court, though he suffered for executing
the instructions he received.

While this event excited the attention of the Russian nation, the flames of civil war
broke out with great violence in Poland; which was the general case when the throne
was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland was a capital object with Rus-
sia, the empress Catharine sent a body of troops into that country; and by her influence
court Poniatowski was raised to the throne. She also interposed, in order to secure the
rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and Protestant subjects of
Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majesty’s armies gave to the Roman-
catholic Poles, by their residence in Poland, increased the rage of civil war in that
country, and rendered it a scene of blood and confusion. The conduct of Russia with
regard to Poland gave so much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand-seignior
sent Obreskoff, the Russian minister, to the prison of the Seven Towers, declared war
against Russia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Russia and Po-
land. Hostilities soon commenced between these rival and mighty empires. In the
months of February and March, 1769, Crim Guerry, khan of the Tartars, at the head
of a great body of Tartars, supported by 10,000 saphis, having forced the Russian lines
of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed
great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off some thousand fami-
Ities captive. In April following, the grand-vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Constantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time, prince Galitzin, who commanded the Russian army on the banks of the Dniester, thought this a proper time to attempt something decisive, before the arrival of the great Turkish force in that quarter. Having accordingly crossed the Dniester with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in sight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pasha; and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince, having made the necessary dispositions, attacked the Turks in their intrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and, notwithstanding an obstinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortress, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Russian army; but they met with such a warm reception from the artillery, that they soon retired in great disorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to pursue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did so effectually, that they followed them into the suburbs of Choczim, and their pursuit was at length only stopped by the palisades of the fortress.

On the 13th of July, a very obstinate battle was fought between a considerable Turkish army, and the Russians under prince Galitzin, in the neighbourhood of Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Russians immediately invested Choczim; but the garrison, being numerous, made frequent sallies, and received great reinforcements from the grand-vizir's camp, who was now considerably advanced on this side of the Danube. Several actions ensued; and prince Galitzin was at length obliged to retreat, and repass the Dniester. It was computed that the siege of Choczim, and the actions consequent to it, cost the Russians above 20,000 men.

In the management of this war, the grand vizir had acted with a degree of prudence, which, it has been thought, would have proved fatal to the designs of the Russians, if the same conduct had been afterwards pursued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janissaries; so that, in consequence of their clamours, and the weakness of the counsels that prevailed in the seraglio, he at length became a sacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pasha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his successor.

During these transactions, general Romanzow committed great devastations upon the Turks on the borders of Bender and Oczakov, where he plundered and burnt several towns and villages, defeated a Turkish detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars also committed great ravages in Poland, where they almost totally destroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, besides doing much mischief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Russian army was again posted on the banks of the Dniester, and effectually defended the passage of that river against the Turks, whose whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the opposite shore. Having laid three bridges over the Dniester, the Turkish army began to pass the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Galitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked those troops that had crossed the river in the night, who consequently could neither choose their ground, nor have time to extend or form themselves properly where they were. Notwithstanding these extreme disadvantages, the engagement was very severe, and continued from seven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obstinacy, but were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repass the river with great loss, and in the utmost confusion. It was computed, that about 60,000 Turks crossed the river before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, and destroyed the flower of the Turkish cavalry. It is said that the loss of the Turks in this battle amounted to 7000 men killed upon the spot, besides wounded and prisoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this misfortune, yet this did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the same nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to pass the whole army over. Accordingly, on the 17th of September, 8000 Janissaries and 4000 regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottoman
army, passed over with a large train of artillery, and the rest of the army were in motion to follow, when a sudden and extraordinary swell of the waters of the Dniester carried away and totally destroyed the bridge. The Russians lost no time in making use of this great and unexpected advantage. A most desperate engagement ensued, in which the slaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river over which some few hundreds of Turks made their escape by swimming, was for several miles covered with dead bodies. The Russians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horse-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and abandoned the strong fortress of Choczim, with all its stores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuously towards the Danube. They were much exasperated at the ill conduct of their commander the vizir: and it was computed that the Turks lost 28,000 of the best and bravest of their troops, within little more than a fortnight; and 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deserted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a garrison of four regiments in the fortress of Choczim, and soon after resigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Petersburg covered with laurels.

The Russians continued to carry on the war with success; they overran the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmdt took possession of the capital, Jassy, without opposition. As the Greek natives of this province had always secretly favoured the Russians, they now took this opportunity of their success and the absence of the Turks, to declare themselves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards those of Wallachia, acknowledged the empress of Russia their sovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkish army near the river Larga: the Turks are said to have amounted to 80,000 men, and were commanded by the khan of the Crimea. On the second of August, the same Russian general obtained a still greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand-vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is said that above 7000 Turks were killed in the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies: a vast quantity of ammunition, 143 pieces of brass cannon, and some thousand carriages loaded with provisions, fell into the hands of the Russians.

But it was not only by land that the Russians carried on the war successfully against the Turks. The empress sent a considerable fleet of men of war, Russian built, into the Mediterranean, to act against the Turks on that side; and by means of this fleet, under count Orloff, the Russians spread ruin and desolation through the open islands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceless coasts of Greece and Asia. The issue of this war was a peace, concluded on the 21st of July, 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Russians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the ports of the Ottoman empire.

Before the conclusion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Russia, which gave much alarm to the court of Petersburg. A cossack, whose name was Pugatscheff, assumed the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor, Peter the Third. He appeared in the kingdom of Kasan, and pretended that he made his escape, through an extraordinary interposition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to assassinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. There is said to have been a striking resemblance in his person to that of the late emperor; which induced him to engage in this enterprise. As he possessed abilities and address, his followers soon became very numerous: and he at length found himself so powerful, his followers being armed and provided with artillery, that he stood several engagements with able Russian generals at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great ravages in the country. But being at last totally defeated, and taken prisoner, he was brought to Moscow in an iron cage, and there beheaded and quartered on the 21st of January, 1775.

The peace of 1774 was then indispensably necessary to the immediate preservation of the Turkish empire; but within so small a space of time as five years, a new war was on the point of breaking out between the two empires, and was only prevented by a new treaty of pacification, which took place on the 21st of March, 1779. But the
great source of discord still remained. The pretended independency of the Crimea afforded such an opening to Russia into the very heart of the Turkish empire, and such opportunities of interference, that it was scarcely possible that any lasting tranquility could subsist between the two empires. A claim, made and insisted on by Russia, of establishing consuls in the three provinces of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Bessarabie, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long disputes, the Turkish ministers, more from a sense of the disability of the state for war, than from pacific dispositions, found it necessary, towards the close of the year 1781, to give up the point in debate with respect to the consuls. This concession, however mortifying, produced but a short-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his determination of supporting all the claims of Russia as well as his own, all the parties prepared, with the utmost vigour, for the most determined hostility. The year 1783 accordingly exhibited the most formidable apparatus of war on the northern and eastern borders of Europe. However, in the midst of all these appearances of war, negociations for a peace continued to be carried on at Constantinople; which peace was at last signed, January 9th, 1784.

By this treaty Russia retained the full sovereignty of her new acquisitions, viz. the Crimea, the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban. — As the recovery and restoration of every thing Greek was the predominant passion of the court of Petersburg, so the Crimea and its dependencies were in future to be known by the name of Taurida; particular places were likewise restored to their ancient appellations; and the celebrated port and city of Caffa resumed its long-forgotten name of Theodosia. Since this accession of dominion, new towns, with Greek or Russian names, are rising fast in the deserts, and are peopled mostly by colonies of Greeks and Armenians.

The year 1787 opened with the extraordinary spectacle of the journey of the empress of Russia to Cherson, where it seems to have been her original intention to have been crowned with all possible magnificence, and under the splendid titles of the empress of the East, liberator of Greece, and reviver of the series of Roman emperors, who formerly swayed the sceptre over that division of the globe. But this coronation, for reasons we are unable to assign, did not take place. The splendour of the route of the czarina surpasses whatever the imagination would spontaneously suggest. She was escorted by an army. Pioneers preceded her march, whose business it was to render the road as even and pleasant as it could possibly be made. At the end of each day’s journey she found a temporary palace erected for her reception, together with all the accommodations and luxuries that Petersburg could have afforded. In the list of her followers were the ambassadors of London, Versailles, and Vienna; and her own ambassador, as well as the envoy of the emperor to the court of Constantinople, were appointed to meet her at Cherson. The king of Poland met her in her journey; and the emperor, not satisfied with swelling her triumph at Cherson, appeared in that capital eight days before her, and proceeded to a considerable distance up the Dnieper, to intercept her progress. Her route was through Kiow, where she remained three months, and was received under triumphal arches; and upon her arrival at Cherson, having thought proper to extend the walls of the city, she inscribed over one of the gates, "Through this gate lies the road to Byzantium." The czarina returned to Petersburg by the way of Moscow.

Scarcely had the empress returned to her capital, before she was followed by the Turkish declaration of hostilities. The emperor of Germany joined her in declaring war against the Porte, which, instead of being disheartened at the formidableness of this confederacy, applied itself with redoubled arduour to prepare for resistance. The operations of the Russian forces were directed against Choczim and Oezakow. In the former of these undertakings, they acted rather as auxiliaries to the emperor’s general, the prince of Saxe Cobourg, who, from the last day of June to the 29th of September, 1788, continued a very powerful attack on Choczim, when it surrendered to the arms of the imperial forces. Oezakow, after an obstinate contest, in which the Russians at length became exposed to all the rigours of a winter campaign, was taken by storm on the 17th of December following.

During the progress of these hostilities with the Porte, Russia found herself suddenly involved in a new and unexpected war. As a nation, Sweden had the greatest...
of resentment against Russia for past injury and loss, at the same time that she had every thing to dread from her present overgrown power and boundless ambition. Gustavus the Third was therefore induced to meditate a project of hostilities against Russia, which commenced in Finland, a few days after the king's arrival in that province. The principal action of the campaign was the naval battle off Hoogland, in the Gulf of Finland. The engagement, which lasted five hours, was fought with considerable skill and obstinacy on both sides; but the victory was indecisive and claimed by both parties. At length, after several other engagements attended with various success, on the 14th of August, 1790, a convention for a peace was signed between the courts of Russia and Sweden, and ratified in six days after.

At the close of the year 1790, the empress had the satisfaction to see her conquests no longer bounded by the course of the Danube. The capture of Ismail was the last important action. It was taken by storm on the 22d of December, 1790; but it is said that the siege and assault did not cost the Russians less than 10,000 men. The most shocking part of the transaction is, that the garrison (whose bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the highest honours) were massacred in cold blood by the merciless Russians, to the amount of upwards of 30,000 men, by their own account. The place was given up to the unrestrained fury of the brutal soldiery; and the most horrid outrages were perpetrated on the defenceless inhabitants.

England and Prussia, after a long and expensive armed negotiation, at length assented to the demand of the empress, which was strengthened by the interference of Spain and Denmark, that Oczakow, and the territory between the rivers Bog and Dniester, should in full sovereignty belong to Russia; that the river Dniester should for the future determine the frontiers of Russia and the Porte; that the two powers might erect on the shores of that river what fortresses they should think proper: and that Russia should engage to grant a free navigation on the river Dniester.

The final treaty with the Turks was concluded at Jassy, the 9th of January, 1792. Catharine then applied herself to the improvement of Oczakow, and rendered it a place of great strength, importance, and commerce. At the same time she was not inattentive to European politics. When the coalition of sovereign powers was formed against France, Gustavus III., the late king of Sweden, was to have conducted that expedition which was afterwards made against France by the king of Prussia and the Prince of Brunswick. Catharine, on this occasion, promised to assist him and the alliance with twelve thousand Russian troops, and an annual subsidy of three hundred thousand rubles. She assured the pope that she would support him in the resumption of Avignon, and published a strong manifesto against the French revolution and the progress of the new principles of liberty; but the only active part she took against that revolution was sending twelve ships of the line and eight frigates to join the English fleet, which were paid for by a subsidy, victualled and repaired in the British ports, and then returned home without rendering any effectual service. But her attention was principally directed to Poland, and the efforts which that people made in the cause of liberty. Whilst she amused the world with manifestoes against France, she beheld, with pleasure, the greatest powers of Europe wasting their strength and treasure; and, undisturbed by any foreign interference, made a second partition of Poland, the circumstances of which the reader will find briefly narrated in our account of that unfortunate country.

By her intrigues, she in like manner annexed to the crown of Russia the fertile and populous country of Courland. She invited the duke of Courland to her court under the pretext that she wished to confer with him on some affairs of importance; and during his absence the states of Courland assembled, and, the nobles proposed to renounce the sovereignty of Poland, and annex the country to the empire of Russia. The principal members of the great council opposed this change; but the Russian general Pahlen appeared in the assembly, and his presence silenced all objections. The next day (March 18, 1795) an act was drawn up, by which Courland, Semigallia, and the circle of Pilten, were surrendered to the empress of Russia. The act was sent to Petersburg, and the submission of the states accepted by the empress. The duke of Courland was in no condition to refuse his acquiescence; he received very considerable presents.
from the empress, in compensation, and retired to live on some extensive estates he had purchased in Prussia.

But the acquisition, by intrigue and artifice, of countries incapable of resistance, was not sufficient to satisfy the ambition of Catharine. Incessantly anxious to extend her dominions, she turned her arms against Persia, under the pretext of defending Lolf Ali Khan, a descendant of the race of the Sophis; but in reality to seize on the Persian provinces which border on the Caspian Sea. Her general Valerian Soubow penetrated, at the head of a numerous army, into the province of Daghestan, and laid siege to Derbent. Having carried a high tower which defended the place, he put all the garrison to the sword, and prepared to storm the city. The Persians, terrified at the barbarous fury of the Russians, demanded quarter; and the keys of the city were delivered up to Soubow by the commandant, a venerable old man, a hundred and twenty years of age, who had before surrendered Derbent to Peter I. at the beginning of last century. Aga Mahmed was advancing to the relief of Derbent, when he learned that the place was already in the power of the Russians. Soubow drew out his army, and gave him battle; but victory declared in favour of the Persians, who forced the Russians to retire into Derbent; in consequence of which defeat, a strong body of Russian troops were ordered to reinforce the army of Soubow.

These martial preparations, and plans of ambition, were, however, interrupted by her death. On the morning of the 9th of November, 1796, she appeared very cheerful, and took her coffee as usual. Soon after she retired into the closet, where continuing unusually long, her attendants became alarmed, and at length opened the door, when they found her on the floor in a state of insensibility, with her feet against the door. Doctor Rogerson, her first physician, was immediately called, who bled her twice. At first she appeared rather to revive, but was unable to utter a word, and expired at ten o'clock at night.

Catharine II. in her youth had been handsome, and preserved in the close of life a graceful and majestic air. She was of a middle stature, well proportioned, and, as she carried her head very erect, appeared taller than she really was. Her forehead was open, her nose aquiline, her mouth well made, and her chin somewhat long, though not so as to have a disagreeable effect. Her countenance did not want for expression; but she was too well practised in the courtly habits of dissimulation to suffer it to express what she wished to conceal.

With respect to her political character, she was undoubtedly a great sovereign. From the commencement of her reign she laboured, and with the greatest success, to increase the power and political consequence of her country. She encouraged learning and the arts, and made every exertion to extend, encourage, and enlarge the commerce of her subjects. She effected many and important regulations in the interior police, and particularly in the courts of justice. She abolished the torture, and adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of prisons. The new code of laws, for which she gave instructions, will contribute still more to mitigate the rigour of despotism. In the execution, indeed, of her plans for the aggrandizement of her empire, she appears to have acknowledged no right but power, no law but interest. Of her private life, her panegyrists, if prudent, will speak but little. They will dwell lightly on the means by which she mounted the throne. The only palliation of that conduct, which the most friendly ingenuity can suggest, will be derived from the frequent and bloody usurpations which, since the death of Peter the Great, had almost become the habit of the Russian court. But there are some acts, at the recital of which we should shudder, even if the scene were laid in Morocco. The mysterious fate of prince Iwan, in 1763, cannot be obliterated from history; the blood spilt in the long-conceived scheme of expelling the Turks from Europe, and re-establishing the eastern empire in the person of a second Constantine, will not be expiated, in the estimation of humanity, by the gigantic magnificence of the project. Above all, the fate of Poland, the dissections and civil wars industriously fomented in that unhappy kingdom, for a period of thirty years—the horrible massacres which attended its final subjugation, and the impious mockery of returning solemn thanks to heaven for the success of such atrocious crimes, will be a foul and indelible stain on the memory of Catharine.
Her son, Paul I., who succeeded to the throne in the beginning of his reign, appeared to display a milder and more pacific disposition than that of his mother. Immediately on his accession to the throne, he ordered hostilities to cease between Russia and Persia; and a peace was soon after concluded between the two countries. He set at liberty the unfortunate Kosciusko, the general of the Polish patriots, with liberty either to reside in his dominions or retire to America, which latter country the general chose for his asylum, but whence he has since returned to Europe, and now resides in France. He behaved with an honourable liberality towards the deposed king of Poland; and restored to their estates a great number of Polish emigrants and fugitives.

In the year 1799, he entered into the war against France, and sent a powerful army, under the command of the celebrated general Suwarrow, which, co-operating with the Austrians, drove the French almost entirely out of Italy, entered Switzerland, and threatened the interior of the republic. He, at the same time, sent a considerable force to act with the English army which had invaded Holland. But suddenly, with a capriciousness which from this time appeared to attend all his actions, he recalled his general, Suwarrow, and his army from Switzerland, and appeared to have become more hostile to England than he had been to France. He seized all the British ships in his ports, detaining upwards of 200 trading vessels in the harbour of Riga alone, and sending their crews up the country. From whatever cause proceeded his animosity against England—whether from perceiving, as has been supposed, that it was not the intention of the British ministry to give him possession of Malta, of which he was eagerly desirous,—whether, as it is alleged in Russia, from an umbrage he had taken at the conduct of the British officer who commanded in Holland, or whether it was a consequence of his natural extravagance and caprice, which in many instances bordered on phrenzy*—he entered into alliance with France, and excited a formidable confederacy of the maritime powers of the North against the naval interests of Great Britain, which was broken by the glorious battle of Copenhagen. His frantic acts appear to have given great offence to many of the principal nobles. But on the 23d of March 1800, he expired in the night, of an apoplexy, and it is now not denied that the manner of his sudden death, was very similar to many which have occurred in the Royal family of Russia.

The day succeeding his decease, his eldest son, Alexander, was proclaimed emperor of all the Russians; and the new emperor soon after visited the senate, and issued several popular ukases; one in particular, reviving and confirming all the regulations of the empress Catharine for the encouragement of industry and commerce.

The conduct of Alexander, since his accession to the throne, has been characterised by a moderation, which forms a strong contrast to the hasty violence of his predecessor. He soon entered into a pacific accommodation with Great Britain, relinquished the claim on Malta, and restored the English ships detained in the ports of Russia. He also acted in conjunction with the first consul of France, in settling the indemnities allotted to the princes and states of the German empire. But this good understanding with the French Cabinet was not long to continue. On the assumption of the stile of Emperor by Bonaparte, Alexander refused to acknowledge his right to the title, and the now Imperial Napoleon continuing to manifest his unsatisfied ambition by the rapacious extension of his dominions or influence to almost every state around the territory, the Russian monarch in 1805 acceded to an alliance of the continental powers formed for the purpose of setting limits to the alarming increase of the power of France. The facility with which the mighty genius of Bonaparte and the active efforts of his army destroyed this formidable confederacy to the astonishment and dismay of Europe, is noticed under ENGLAND.

Alexander, the present emperor of all the Russians, was born Dec. 23, 1777; married to the princess Louisa of Baden (born Jan. 24, 1779) Oct. 9, 1793.

* The extraordinary challenge which he inserted in the Petersburg gazette, proposing to the sovereigns of Europe to end the wars in which they had so long been engaged, by meeting him, with their respective ministers, and engaging in single combat with himself and his minister, could have been dictated only by madness. This challenge, it has since appeared, was written under his directions by the celebrated Kotzebue.
Brothers and sisters to the emperor:
Constantine, born May 8, 1779; married to the princess of Saxe Cobourg Feb. 14, 1796.
Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784.
Maria, born Feb. 15, 1786.
Catharine, born May 21, 1788.
Anne, born Jan. 18, 1795.
Nicholas Paulovitsch, born June 2, 1796.
Michael Paulovitsch, born Feb. 8, 1798.
Empress-dowager, Maria Feodorowna, (Sophia Dorothea Augusta,) daughter of
duke Frederick Eugenius of Wurtemberg, born October 25, 1759.

**ISLES OF SCOTLAND**

THE Scottish Isles consist of three clusters; the Hebrides, or Western Islands, the
Orkneys, and the Islands of Shetland.

The WESTERN ISLANDS, or HEBRIDES, are situated on the north-west
coast, between 35 and 59 degrees of north latitude, and are supposed to exceed 300 in
number; but there are not more than thirty sufficiently large to deserve notice. Of
these the principal are Arran, Ilay, Jura, Mull, Skye, Lewis and Harris, which form
one island, North Uist, and South Uist, Iona or Icolm-kil, Staffa, and Hirta or St
Kilda.

The isle of Arran is about twenty-four miles in length, and where widest about
fourteen in breadth. It consists chiefly of a series of rough and broken mountains, from
one of the highest summits of which, named Goatfell, in the centre of the island, the
view is had of Ireland, the Isle of Man, and even of England. There are several rivu-
lets and four or five lakes of fresh water in this island. The number of inhabitants is
about 7,000, and the chief place the village of Kanza. This, with the island of Bute,
which is about twelve miles long and four broad, and some others of inconsiderable size,
constitute the county or shire of Bute. The chief town of Bute is Rothsay, which has
a castle, and gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the king of Scotland, as it now
does to the prince of Wales. Rothsay is likewise a royal burgh. The number of in-
habitants in the island of Bute is about 4,000.

The island of Ilay is twenty-four miles long and nearly eighteen broad. The soil
is good, and might by industry be rendered extremely productive. The whole island is
the property of Mr Campbell of Shawfield. A lead mine was discovered here in 1763.
The number of inhabitants is about 7,000.

Jura, about thirty miles long and seven or eight broad, is separated from Ilay by a
narrow sound from one to four miles broad. It is one of the most rugged of the West-
ern Islands, which are in general mountainous. The mountains called the paps of Jura,
which are a range of eminences of a conical form, present a singular appearance. One
of them has been found to have an elevation of 850 yards, though it is greatly exceeded
in height by the loftiest, named Ben-an-Oir. The number of inhabitants is supposed to
be not more than 1,000.

The isle of Mull is nearly thirty miles long, and in some places almost as broad. It
is very rugged and mountainous, like the other western isles. It contains two parishes,
but only one village, named Tobermory, near the northern part of the island, where a
fishing station has lately been erected. There are several ruins of ancient castles in this
island. The number of inhabitants is between five and six thousand.

The isle of Skye is the largest of the Hebrides, being about fifty miles in length, and,
in some places, above twenty broad. It abounds, especially in the interior parts, in
rocks, mountains, and bogs. The inhabitants are about 15,000 in number. This island forms a part of Inverness-shire.

Longisland, to the westward of Skye, consists of two peninsulas, the northern of which is denominated Lewes, and the southern Harris. The extent of both these together is about ninety miles in length, and ten or twelve, and in some parts twenty miles, in breadth. The isles of North Uist, South Uist, and Barra, continue this chain of islands to the south 110 miles more, including about sixteen miles of water. The number of inhabitants in them all is about 20,000; the only town is Stornoway, in the east part of Lewes, a considerable and flourishing place, with an excellent harbour, and containing above 2,000 inhabitants. At the village of Classerness, in the southern part of the same peninsula, is a Druidical temple, as well preserved and perfect, though not of such large dimensions, as that of Stonehenge.

The celebrated island of Iona or Hyona, called also Hui or Hy, and I-Coluim-Kill, or the Isle of Columba's church, seems to have served as a sanctuary of St Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were desolated by barbarism. The church of St Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of sixty Scotch, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaelic inscriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is unimbeded. The steeple is large, the cupola is twenty-one feet square, the doors and windows are curiously carved, and the altar is of the finest marble. Innumerable are the inscriptions of ancient customs and ceremonies, that are discernible upon this island, and which give countenance to the well-known observation, that, when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in these islands.

Staffa, situated ten miles to the north-east of Iona, is a small island, only one mile long and half a mile broad. It is remarkable for consisting of one entire pile of basaltic pillars, arranged in natural colonnades wonderfully magnificent. Mr Banks, now Sir Joseph Banks, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, in 1772, says: “We were no sooner arrived than we were struck with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the most sanguine foundations: the whole of that end of the island (Staffa) supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above fifty feet high, standing in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themselves: upon a firm basis of solid unformed rock, above these, the stratum which reaches to the soil or surface of the island, varied in thickness as the island itself formed into hills or valleys; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; some of these, above sixty feet in thickness from the base to the point, formed, by the sloping of the hill on each side, almost in the shape of those used in architecture.”

The cave of Fingal, a vast and magnificent cavern in this island, 371 feet long, 53 broad, and 117 high, composed of such pillars, is thus described by Sir Joseph Banks. — “We proceeded along the shore, treading upon another Giants' Causeway, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form it: between the angles of which a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without, so that the farthest extremity is very plainly seen from without; and the air within, being agitated with the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp vapours with which natural caverns in general abound.”

To the north-west of Mull are the islands of Tirey and Col; the former of which produces a beautiful marble of a rose colour. Tirey is level and fertile, but Col is rocky, or rather, as Dr Johnson has observed, one continued rock covered with a thin layer of earth. This latter island is about thirteen miles long and three broad, and contains about 800 inhabitants.
Hirta, or St Kilda, is the most western island of the Hebrides, and is three miles long and two broad. The soil is fertile, but the arable land scarcely exceeds eighty acres, though by industry more might be added. The mountain or rock of Congara, in this island, is accounted the Teneriff of the British islands, its height above the level of the sea, being 1500 yards. The whole island is surrounded with the most tremendous rocks, and has only one landing-place, and even there it is impossible to land except in calm weather. About twenty-seven families reside here, in a small village on the eastern side of the island. These people display the most astonishing courage and dexterity in climbing the dreadful precipices in quest of sea-fowls and their eggs, which furnish them with food during a great part of the year. The multitudes of these birds are prodigious, the rocks round the island being so covered with them that they appear like mountains covered with snow; yet they so entirely disappear in November, that from the middle of that month to the middle of February not one is to be seen. The people of the Hebrides are clothed and live like the Scotch Highlanders. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands. Perhaps the descendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebrides.

Those islands alone retain the ancient usages of the Celts, as described by the oldest and best authors; but with a strong tincture of the feudal constitution. Their sallows, or story-tellers, supply the place of the ancient bards, so famous in history; and are the historians, or rather genealogists, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief is likewise attended, when he appears abroad, with his musician; who is generally a bagpiper, and dressed in the manner of the English minstrels of former times, but, as it is said, much more sumptuously. Notwithstanding the contempt into which that music is fallen, it is almost incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among these islanders so late as the beginning of the last century. They had regular colleges and professors, and the students took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, some of which were too barbarous to be retained or even mentioned, are now abolished. The inhabitants, however, still preserve the most profound respect and affection for their several chiefains, notwithstanding all the pains that have been taken by the British Legislature to break those connections, which experience has shown to be so dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders: though they certainly fare better; for they have oatmeal, plenty of fish and fowl, cheese, butter, milk and whey; and also nutton, beef, goat, kid, and venison. They indulge themselves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn; and the agility of both sexes in the exercises of the field, and in dancing to their favourite music, is remarkable.

The inhabitants of the Hebrides, particularly of the isle of Skye, formerly pretended, at least many of them, to the power of foreknowing future events by what was termed the second sight. This gift, which in the Erse language is called Taish, is supposed to be a supernatural faculty of seeing visions of events before they happen. Many extraordinary stories in support of this delusion are related in these islands, and some of them have been vouched by persons of sense, character, and learning. The adepts of the second sight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations either really or typically to their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compass of twenty-four or forty-eight hours. We do not, however, from the best information, observe that any two of those adepts agree as to the manner and form of those revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth seems to be, that those islanders, by indulging themselves in lazy habits, acquire visionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are presented with those phantasm, which they mistake for fatalical or prophetic manifestations. They instantly begin to prophesy; and it would be absurd to suppose, that, amidst many thousand predictions, some may not happen to be fulfilled; and these, being well attested, give a sanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides being the most westerly islands where the Celts settled, their language must remain there in its greatest purity.
This opinion, though very plausible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as customs, are found there; but the vast intercourse which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whose language has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; so that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which was spoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the opposite coasts of Scotland, the undoubted descendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion professes in the Hebrides is chiefly presbyterian, as established in the church of Scotland: but popery and ignorance are still very prevalent.

The ORKNEY ISLANDS, anciently the Orkades, lie to the north of Dungsby-head, between 58° 48' and 59° 20' of north latitude; being separated from the most northern part of Scotland by a tempestuous strait called the Pentland Firth, twenty-four miles long and twelve broad. They are nearly eighty in number, but only twenty-six are inhabited, the rest consisting of what are called holms and skerries; the former of which are islands entirely consigned to pastureage, and the latter barren rocks.

The largest of the Orkney islands is Pomona, called also the Mainland. Its length is about twenty-four miles, and its breadth in some places nine, in others only two, as it is of an extremely irregular figure. It contains four excellent harbours, one of which is that of Kirkwall, the principal town in the island, and the capital of the Orkneys. This town extends nearly a mile in length, but contains only about three hundred houses. The cathedral of Kirkwall is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by fourteen pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stone, embossed and elegantly flowered. The whole island is divided into nine parishes.

The other principal islands of this group are South Ronaldsha, Hoy, Sanda, Westra, and North Ronaldsha.

South Ronaldsha is one of the most fertile of the Orkneys: it is about seven miles long and from two to five broad. Hoy is about ten miles in length and four or five in breadth; and at high tides is divided into two islands, the southern, named Waes or Walls, and the northern, Hoy. In this island is a mountain called Wart-hill, the height of which is estimated at 1620 feet, the summit of which, in the months of May, June, and July, shines and sparkles in an extraordinary manner when seen at a distance, though this brightness disappears on a nearer approach. The peasants on this account call it the enchanted carbuncle. The cause of this phenomenon has been suspected to be the reflection of the rays of the sun from some water; but no such water, when sought for, has been discovered. In a dark valley of Hoy is a kind of hermitage cut out of stone, called the dwarfe stone, thirty eight feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick; in which is a square hole, about two feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, large enough for two men to lie on: at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. The island of Sanda is twelve miles long, from one to three broad, and of an extremely irregular form. Westra is eight miles long and two broad. North Ronaldsha, the most northern of these islands, is only about three miles in length and one in breadth.

The number of inhabitants in the Orkneys is computed at 23,000. They consist of the mixed descendants of Norwegian colonists and Lowland Scots. The town of Kirkwall has so much trade, that in 1790 the exports were estimated at 26,598l. and the imports at 20,803l. The exports consist of beef, pork, butter, tallow, hides, salted fish, linen yarn, coarse linen cloth, and kelp, of which the island of Sanda in particular produces great quantities; and the imports of coal, wood, sugar, spirits, wines, tobacco, snuff, hardware, printed linens and cottons, &c. The manufactures are linen yarn, coarse linen, and kelp. The language spoken here was, formerly the Norse, or Norwegian, but this is now superseded by the English, or that of the Lowland Scots.

The SHETLAND ISLES are situate about twenty leagues to the north east of the Orkneys, between lat. 59° 43' and 61° 10' north. They are reckoned to be forty six in number, besides about thirty holms and forty skerries. The principal of them is, as
in the Orkneys, called the Mainland, which island is about 57 miles in length, and 10 or 12 in breadth; but is so broken by creeks and inlets, that scarcely any part of it is distant more than two miles from the sea. These inlets form at least 20 harbours, six of which are very spacious and commodious. The town of Lerwick, the only town of these islands, stands on the eastern side of Mainland, opposite the harbour called Brasse-sound, which is capable of containing above 2000 ships commodiously and safely. This town contains about 300 families. Skalloway, on the western side, which was once a town of some importance, is now dwindled into a very inconsiderable village, though the ruins of a castle are still to be seen there; and it is the seat of a presbytery. The other island of this group presents nothing which merits particular notice. Yell, situate to the north east of Mainland, is 16 miles long, and five or six broad. It contains eight considerable harbours. Unst, at the northern extremity of this group, is eight miles long, and four broad, and has two excellent harbours.

The coasts of all these islands are in general rugged and precipitous, presenting in many places scenes truly grand and magnificent, and their interior is a rugged and bleak scene of barren rocks, with here and there a few scanty portions of cultivated ground. They are at present destitute of trees, though there is reason to believe they were not in former times. The air is keen and salubrious, and many of the natives live to a very great age. From their northern situation they enjoy, during two months in the middle of summer, almost perpetual day—there being sufficient light at midnight, in the months of June and July, for any person to see to read, when the sky is clear. In the opposite season of the year the duration of the night is correspondent. Though there is little frost or snow, fogs, rain, storms, and a tempestuous sea, prevent the Shetlanders from having any communication, during the seven or eight winter months, either with the neighbouring islands or other countries. A remarkable instance of this is, that a Scotch fisherman was imprisoned in May, for publishing the account of the prince and princess of Orange being raised to the throne of England the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ship.

The number of inhabitants in the Shetland Islands was computed, in 1798, at 20,186. Their chief food consists of fish, and various kinds of sea-fowl which cover the rocks, and in taking which they display extraordinary address and courage. Agriculture here is in a very low state, oats and bear being the only grain sown. The cattle are rather larger than those in the Orkneys. These islands are famous for a very small breed of horses, which are extremely active, strong; and hardy; and are frequently employed to draw the carriages of the wealthy and curious of the capital, especially the ladies, on account of their diminutive size, and beauty. The trade of the Shetland Isles consists principally in the export of fish, chiefly herrings, cod, ling, and torsk or task. The Dutch, in time of peace, carry on a great fishery in the neighbourhood of these islands; three thousand busses, or fishing vessels, having been known to be employed by them in one season in the herring-fishery, besides those fitted out from Hamburg, Bremen, and other northern parts.

The natives of these islands differ little in their character and habits from the Lowland Scots, except that their manners are more simple, and their minds less cultivated. Their religion is the protestant, according to the discipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil institutions are much the same with those of the country to which they belong.

In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken. Their great intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language likewise common.

The islands both of Shetland and Orkney were anciently subject to Norway; and were sold in the thirteenth century, by Magnus of Norway, to Alexander king of Scotland, by whom they were given as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they were claimed by, and became subject to the crown of Denmark. Christian I., in the reign of James III., conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage-portion with his daughter Margaret: and all future pretensions were entire-
ly ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The isles of Shetland and Orkney now form a stewartry, or shire, which sends a member to parliament.

SCOTLAND.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles. 
Length 270 } 
Breadth 179 } 
Containing 27,794 square miles, with 58 inhabitants to each.

Degrees.

between 55 and 59 North latitude. 
1 and 6 West longitude.

NAME.] THE Celtæ or Gauls are supposed to have been the original inhabitants of this kingdom. The Scots, a Scythian tribe, invaded it about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and that the word Scott is no other than a corruption of Scythy, or Scythian, being originally from that immense country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Escotia; by the French, Escosse; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and English.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland is bounded on the south by England; and on the north, east, and west, by the Deicaledonian, German, and Irish seas, or more properly, the Atlantic ocean.

DIVISIONS AND SUBDIVISIONS.] Scotland is divided into the countries south of the Firth of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and those to the north of the same river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national division; but some modern writers, with less geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and customs of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or shires, are allotted to the southern division, and fifteen to the northern; and those counties are subdivided into sheriffdoms, stewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Shires</th>
<th>Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Edinburgh (122,954*)</td>
<td>Mid Lothian</td>
<td>Edinburgh, W. long. 3° 25' N. lat. 55° 55' Musselburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.</td>
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<td>4. Roxburgh (33,682)</td>
<td>Tiviotdale, Lidsdale, E Eskdale and Ewesdale</td>
<td>Jedburgh, Kelso, and Melrose.</td>
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<td>5. Selkirk (5,070)</td>
<td>Ettrick Forest</td>
<td>Selkirk.</td>
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<td>6. Peebles (8,735)</td>
<td>Tweeddale</td>
<td>Peebles.</td>
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* The numbers shew the population of each shire according to the returns under the act 1801.
† Berwick on the north side of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but is now formed into a town and county of itself, in a political sense distinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.
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<td>13 Bute (11,791)</td>
<td>Bute, Arran and Caithness</td>
<td>Wick, W. long. 3° 2' N. lat. 59°40 and Thurso.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. Renfrew (78,056)</td>
<td>Renfrew</td>
<td>Stirling and Falkirk.</td>
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<td>16. Stirling (50,825)</td>
<td>Stirling</td>
<td>Linlithgow, Borrowstowness, and Queen's Ferry.</td>
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<td>17. Linlithgow (17,644)</td>
<td>West Lothian</td>
<td>Inverary, Dunstaffnage, Killoffer, and Campbeltown.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Argyll, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintyre, and Lorn, with part of the Western Isles, particularly Ila, Jura, Mull, Uist, Tiree, Col, and Lismore.</td>
<td>Perth, Scone, Dumbhane, Crieff, and Dunkeld.</td>
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<td>Old Aberdeen, W. long. 1° 55' N. lat. 57.</td>
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<td>New Aberdeen, Frasersburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, and Old Melburne.</td>
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<td>Mearns</td>
<td>Nairne, Cromarty.</td>
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<td>Aird, Strathglass, Skye, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenmoriston</td>
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<td>Shires.</td>
<td>Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions</td>
<td>Chief Towns</td>
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<tr>
<td>27. Banff</td>
<td>Banff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strath-awin, and part of Buchan</td>
<td>Banff and Cullen.</td>
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<tr>
<td>28. Sutherland</td>
<td>Strathnaver and Sutherland</td>
<td>Strathey and Dornoch.</td>
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<td>and</td>
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<td>31. Ross</td>
<td>Moray and Strathspey</td>
<td>Elgin and Forres.</td>
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| | Isles of Orkney and Shetland | Kirkwall, W. long. 3. 8\-
| | | N. lat. 58. 58. |
| 32. Elgin or Moray (26,705) | | Lerwick, W. long. 1. 30. N. lat. 60. 20. |
| | | Scalloway. |

In all thirty-three shires, which choose thirty representatives to sit in the parliament of Great Britain; Bute and Caithness choosing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromarty, and Clackmannan and Kinross.

The royal boroughs which choose representatives are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Edinburgh</th>
<th>Inverkeithing, Dunfermline, Queensberry, Culross, and Stirling</th>
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<tr>
<td>Kirkwall, Wick, Dornoch, Dingwall, and Tain</td>
<td>Glasgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fortrose, Inverness, Nairne and Forres</td>
<td>Haddington, Dunbar, N. Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh</td>
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<tr>
<td>Elgin, Cullen, Banff, Inverary, and Kintore</td>
<td>Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanark</td>
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<td>Aberdeen, Bervie, Montrose, Arbroath, and Brechin</td>
<td>Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Lochmaben, and Kirkcudbright</td>
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<tr>
<td>Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cupar, and St Andrews</td>
<td>Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer, and Whitehorn</td>
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<tr>
<td>Crail, Kilrenny, Anstruther East and West, and Pittenweem</td>
<td>Ayr, Irvine, Rothesay, Campbeltown, and Inverary</td>
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<td>Dysart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorn, and Burntisland</td>
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**Climate, Soil, &c.]** In the northern parts, day-light, at Midsummer, lasts 18 hours and 5 minutes; and the day and night in winter are in the same proportion. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in so northerly a climate. This arises partly from the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes; but still more, as in England, from the vicinity of the sea, which affords those warm breezes, that not only soften the natural keenness of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent those epidemic distempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of some high mountains, however, which are generally covered with snow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the
year. The soil in general is not so fertile as that of England; and in many places less fitted for agriculture than for pasture. At the same time, there are particular plains and vallies of the most luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth incessantly washed down from the mountains, and deposited in these vallies, affords them a vegetative nourishment, which is capable of carrying the strongest plants to perfection; though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulan productions do not come so soon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed a great variety of soils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diversified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The vast inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to a traveller, and afford those delightful situations for country houses, of which many of the Scotch nobility and gentry have so judiciously availed themselves. It is their situation, more than any expensive magnificence, that occasions the seats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hope-ton, and many others, to fix the attention of the traveller.

Mountains.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from east to west, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyllshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian and joins those of Tweeddale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Besides those continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, sometimes go by the Celtic word Laurus. Many of them are stupendously high, and of beautiful forms; but too numerous to be particularised here. We may however mention Benevis near Fort William, which, rising to a height of 4350 feet above the level of the sea, is reputed the highest in Britain.

RIVERS, LAKES, CANALS, AND FORESTS.] The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in Montielth near Callendar, and passing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself near Edinburgh into that arm of the German sea to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Breadalbane, and running south-east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, which is the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and, running from south west to north east, falls into the sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disem bogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanarkshire, and, after many beautiful serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, has its rise in Annandale, runs north west through the valley of that name, and after passing by Lanark, Hamilton, the city of Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Besides those capital rivers, Scotland contains many of inferior sort, well provided with salmon, trout, and other fishes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of those rivers go by the name of Esk, which is the old Celtic name for water.

The lakes of Scotland (there called Lochs) are too many to be particularly described. Those called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Lochness, Loch Awe, and one or two more, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in Europe. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of fresh-water fish. The Scotch sometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch Fyne, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of swans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as some think, to the plant alorica, which grows in its waters, with a straight stalk and a cluster of seeds at the top. 1-far Lochness is a very high hill, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that
name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine descendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preserve themselves independent on, and unmixed with the Lowlanders. Besides these rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coasts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, navigable bays or arms of the sea; as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtown bay; sometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which separates Scotland from England on the west; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and those of Cromarty and Dornoch.

A canal forming a junction between the rivers Forth and Clyde, was begun in 1768, and finished in 1790; when, on the 28th of July, a hog's head of the water of the Forth was poured into the Clyde, as a symbol of their junction. This canal, in its dimensions, is much superior to any work of the same nature in England. It is 35 miles in length; in the course of which navigation the vessels are raised by means of 20 locks, to the height of 155 feet above the level of the sea. Proceeding afterwards on the summit of the country, for 18 miles, it then descends by 19 other locks into the Clyde. It is carried over 36 rivers and rivulets, and two great roads, by 38 aqueducts of hewn stone. By one of these, 400 feet in length, it passes the Kelvin, near Glasgow, at the height of 70 feet above the bed of the river in the valley below. It crosses the great road from Edinburgh to Glasgow, by a fine aqueduct-bridge; and is carried over the water of Logie by another aqueduct-bridge, the arch of which is 90 feet broad. The great utility of this communication between the Eastern and Western Seas to the trade of Great Britain and Ireland must be evident, from the consideration that it shortens the distance between them by the shortest passage, that of the Pentland Firth, nearly 600 miles.

Other canals are executing and projecting in Scotland. The canal of Crinan, saves a circuitous and difficult navigation round Cantire; and in April, 1804, a bill was brought into parliament for making an inland navigation from Inverness to Fort William, through Loch-Ness and Loch-Lochie to Loch-Linnie, to be called the Caledonian Canal; and this great work is rapidly carrying into execution, and will soon open a navigation from sea to sea, of 20 feet depth of water, by 100 feet wide.

The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepest mosses or morasses, contain large logs of wood; and their waters, being impregnated with turpentine, have a preserving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been discovered in those mosses. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian forest, the remains of which are by some thought to be Étrick wood, in the south of Scotland, is famous in antiquity, for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but such an animal is not now to be seen in Scotland. Several woods, however, still remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the use of furnaces and foundaries; but lying at a great distance from water-carriage, though the work succeeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir trees grow in great perfection almost all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is excellent in the Highlands, where some woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconvenience already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

Metals and Minerals.] Though Scotland does not at present boast of its gold-mines, yet it is certain that it contains such, or at least that Scotland formerly afforded a considerable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V., and his father, contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford Moor; and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French King's daughter, a number of covered dishes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were presented to the guests by way of desert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, in the minority of his grandson, drove those foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which since that time have never been resumed. Some small pieces of gold have been found in those parts washed down by the floods. It likewise appears, by the public records, that those beautiful coins, struck by James V., called bonnet-
pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the same metal.

Several landlords in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead-mines, which are said to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of silver; but we know of no silver-mines that are worked at present. Some copper-mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the east, west, and southern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vast emolument of the public. Lime-stone is here in great plenty, as is free-stone.

Lapis lazuli is dug up in Lanarkshire; alum-mines have been found in Banffshire; crystal, variegated pebbles, and other transparent stones, which admit of the finest polish for seals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, sea-shells, potter's clay, and fuller's earth. No country produces greater plenty of iron ore than Scotland; and there are consequently very extensive founderies at Carron, and elsewhere.

*Vegetable and Animal Productions, by Sea and Land.* It is certain that the soil of Scotland may be rendered in many parts nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even said, that some tracts of the low countries at present exceed in value English estates of the same extent, because they are so far less exhausted and worn out than those of the southern parts of the island; and agriculture is now perhaps as well understood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

The fruits of skill and industry are perceivable in many districts where agriculture is thoroughly understood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 300l. to 500l. per annum, are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverse, however, may be observed of some parts of Scotland, which still remain in a state of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real interest, refuse to grant such leases as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In such places the husbandmen barely exist upon the gleanings of a scanty farm, seldom exceeding 20l. or 30l. per annum; the cattle are lean and small, the houses mean beyond expression, and the face of the country exhibits the most deplorable marks of poverty and oppression. Indeed, from a mistaken notion of the landed people in general, the greatest part of the kingdom lies naked and exposed, for want of such hedge-rows and planting as adorn the country of England. They consider hedges as useless and cumbersome, as occupying more room than what they call stone inclosures, which, except in the Lothians, already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, huddled up of loose stones, without lime or mortar, which yield a bleak and mean appearance.

The soil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and pasture. In the southern counties the finest garden-fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are little, if at all, short of those in England; and the same may be said of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of salubrious and pleasant tasted berries, though it must be owned that many extensive tracts are covered with a strong heath. The sea coast produces the alga-marina, dulse, or dullish, a most wholesome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants, which are eaten for nourishment, or pleasure.

The fish on the coast of Scotland are much the same with those of the islands and countries already described. The rivers produce the most delicious salmon, in such quantities as to form a very considerable export trade.

This country contains few or no kinds, either of wild or domestic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but epicures prefer English venison. Hares are here plentiful, as are the grouse and heath-cock, which is a most delicious bird; as likewise are the cappar-kally, and the ptarmican, which is of the pheasant kind; but these birds are scarce even in the Highlands, and when discovered are very shy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweeddale, and other parts of the south, are almost incredible, and formerly brought large sums into the country, the black cattle especially, which, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the vast
increase of manufactures, whose demand for butcher's meat must lessen the importation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion that a sufficient stock, by proper methods, may be raised to supply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horses, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent; but the truth is, notwithstanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and soil of Scotland was unfavourable to that noble animal, for they diminished both in size and spirit; so that about the time of the Union, few horses, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts were afterwards made to introduce the English and foreign breeds, and such pains have been taken for providing them with proper food and management, as to be attended with the utmost success.

Population, inhabitants, manners, and customs.] The population of Scotland, according to the very accurate estimate given in Sir John Sinclair's Statistical Account of Scotland, was, in 1798, 1,526,492; in 1755, it was only 1,265,380; so that in 43 years it had increased 261,112. By the returns made to the population bill, passed in 1801, the present number of inhabitants in Scotland is 1,599,068, to which if we add 8692, the estimated number of inhabitants in the places from which no returns had been made, the total will be 1,607,760.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned; and a kind of characteristic feature, that of high cheek-bones, reigns in their faces; they are lean, but clean limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventurous spirit was chiefly owing to their laws of succession, which invested the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very scanty portion for the other sons. This obliged the latter to seek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native soil than the Scotch have in general. It is true, this disparity of fortune among the sons of one family prevails in England likewise; but the resources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to those of a country so narrow, and so little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may easily perceive, that the ridiculous family-pride, which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguished in Scotland, was owing to the feudal institutions which prevailed there in all the horrors of blood and barbarity. Their family differences, especially the Highlanders, familiarised them to blood and slaughter, and the death of an enemy, however effected, was always a matter of triumph. These passions did not live in the breasts of the common people only, for they were authorised and cherished by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had seen the world, were conversant in the courts of Europe, masters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and social life. Their kings, excepting some of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were considered in little other light than commanders of their army in time of war; for in time of peace their civil authority was so little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the most civilized parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as his sovereign. These ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave those petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own estates; and they generally executed in four and twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which those chieftains had of outvying each other in the number of their followers, created perpetual animosities, which seldom or never ended without bloodshed; so that the common people, whose best qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their master, and the aggrandisement of his name, lived in a state of continual hostility.

Archibald duke of Argyll was the first chieftain who had the patriotism to attempt to reform his dependents, and to banish from them those barbarous ideas. His example was followed by others; and the Highlanders are reconciled already to all the milder habits of society.

From what has been said, it appears that the ancient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry, are as far from being applicable to the present time, as the forms of a Roman senate are to that of a popish conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent so quick and so sudden a transition of manners.

The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can form their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their
infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their superiors, and to live within the bounds of the most rigid economy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions, and few instances of murder, perjury, and other atrocious vices, occur in Scotland. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprise; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity, and resolution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies; witness that which put Porteous to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people; and though the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 500l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young Pretender, after his defeat at Cullodden, would scarcely be believed, were it not well attested.

They affect a fondness for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond perhaps any people in the world; but this attachment is seldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or disgusting, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of ancient Scotch dishes, such as the haggess, the sheep's head singed, the fish in sauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. These dishes, in their original dressing, were savoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have been made in the Scottish cookery have rendered them agreeable to the most delicate palates.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein for poetry: and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is relished by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the subject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the English stage with variations, under new names, but with this disadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of music, they are mostly altered for the worse, being stript of their original simplicity, which, however irregular, is the most essential characteristic, is so agreeable to the ear, and has such powers over the human breast. Those of a more lively and merry strain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dress, by the fifes, an instrument for which they are remarkably well suited. It has been ridiculously supposed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian secretary of Mary Queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch music. This is a falsehood invented by his country, in envy to the Scots. Their finest tunes existed in their church music, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his mistress in foreign dispatches, ever composed an air during the short time he lived in Scotland; but were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the music itself is sufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not so much accustomed as the English are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reason they seem to enjoy them more completely. One institution there is, at once social and charitable, and that is, the contributions raised for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Those festivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company consists promiscuously of the high and low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each guest pays according to his inclination or ability, but seldom under a shilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be servants in respectable families, the contributions are so liberal that they often establish the young couple in the world.

The common people of Scotland retain the solemn and decent manner of their ancestors at burials. When a relation dies in a little town, the parish-beadle is sent round with a passing-bell; but he stops at certain places, and with a slow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceased and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceased was beloved in the place, vast numbers attend. The procession is sometimes preceded by the magistrates and their officers, as the deceased is carried in his coffin, covered by a velvet pall with chair poles, to the grave, where it is interred, without any oration or address to the people, or prayers, or farther ceremony, than the nearest relation thanking the
company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the same manner as in England, but without any funeral service. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called coronachs, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both sexes.

Dancing is a favourite amusement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness: the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. One of the peculiar diversions practised by the gentlemen is the Golff, which requires an equal degree of art and strength; it is played by a club and a ball; the latter is smaller and harder than a cricket ball; the club is of a taper construction, till it terminates in the part that strikes the ball, which is loaded with lead and faced with horn. The diversion itself resembles that of the Mall, which was common in England in the middle of the last century. An expert player will send the ball an amazing distance at one stroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who strikes it in fewest strokes into a hole wins the game. The diversion of Curling is likewise peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat stones, from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common stand to a mark at a certain distance; and whoever is nearest the mark is the victor. These two may be called the standing winter and summer diversions in Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diversions common in England, cricket excepted, which is little practised.

Language and Dress.] I place these two articles under the same head, because they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is composed of a woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called tartan. This consists of various colours, forming stripes which cross each other at right angles; and the natives value themselves upon the judicious arrangement, or what they call sets, of those stripes and colours, which, where skilfully managed, produce a pleasing effect to the eye. Above the shirt the Highlander wears a waistcoat of the same composition with the plaid, which commonly consists of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the shoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as represented in ancient statues; sometimes it is fastened round the middle with a leathern belt, so that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and supplies the want of breeches. This they call being dressed in a phelig, but which the Lowlanders call a kilt, and which is probably the same word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the same variegated stuff, buckled round the waist, and this they term the philibeg, which seems to be of Milesian extraction. Their stockings are likewise of tartan tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into tassels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undressed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is used, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and curiously inlaid with silver.

The introduction of the broad sword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dress), seems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dress.

The dress of the Highland women consisted of a petticoat and jerkin, with straight sleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held close under their chins with the hand, or fastened with a buckle of a particular fashion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately disused in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoso may find a strong resemblance between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, and those of the Tuscans (who were unquestionably of Celtic original) as they are to be seen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of Highlanders to this dress rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the Legislature, after the rebellion in 1715, to disarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dresses. The disarming scheme was the most successful; for when the rebellion
in 1745, broke out, the common people had scarcely any other arms than those which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the Legislature to force them into a total change of their dress. The absurdity of such compulsion was however so obvious, and its convenience, for the purposes of the field, is so great, that most of the Highland regiments retain it.

The dress of the higher and middle ranks of the Low country is entirely English; the dress of the women of all ranks is much the same in both kingdoms.

I have already mentioned the language of the Highlanders, especially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, to be radically Celtic. The English spoken by the Scots, notwithstanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more southern counties, is written in the same manner in both kingdoms. At present the pronunciation of a Scotchman is greatly improving, and the language of Edinburgh does not differ from that of London, more than that of London does from that of York.

Punishments.] These are pretty much the same in Scotland as in England. BEheading used to be performed by the Maiden, an instrument similar to the Guillotine, the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland, by the regent Earl Morton, and it was first used for the execution of himself.

Religion.] Ancient Scottish historians, with Bede and other writers, generally agree that Christianity was first taught in Scotland by some of the disciples of St. John the Apostle, who fled to this northern country to avoid the persecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly professed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch historians call Donald the First, his queen, and several of his nobles, were solemnly baptised. It was farther confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the persecutions of Aurelius and Diosclian, when it became the established religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who seem to have been the first regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overseers or bishops chosen by themselves from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence of rank over the rest of their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Christianity seems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, where it flourished in its native simplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a priest sent by the bishop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romish church, which at length prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkness which for ages overspread Europe; though its dependence upon the pope was very slender, when compared to the blind subjection of many other nations.

The Culdees long maintained their original manners, and remained a distinct order, notwithstanding the oppression of the Romish clergy, till the age of Robert Bruce in the 14th century, when they disappeared.

Soon after the power of the pope in England was destroyed by Henry VIII. a similar reformation began in Scotland, in the reign of James V.; it made great progress under that of his daughter Mary, and was completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and was the chief reformer of Scotland.

The religion at present established by law in Scotland, differs chiefly from that of the church of England, in having for its fundamental principle a parity of rank and authority among its clergy; all its ecclesiastics, or presbyters, being equal in dignity; and forming among themselves a kind of ecclesiastical commonwealth of the democratic species. It agrees with the reformed churches abroad in its opposition to popery; but it is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. This establishment, at various periods, proved so tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the great and lesser excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of estate, and sometimes of life, that the kirk sessions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who were extremely jealous of their being revived. Even that relic of popery, the obliging fornicators of both sexes to sit upon what they call a repenting stool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out, it having been found that the Scottish women, on account of that penance, were the greatest infanticides in the world. In short, the power of the Scottish clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised; nor are they account-
able for the extravagancy of their predecessors. They have been, ever since the Revo-
lution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the house of Hanover, and acted with re-
markable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes:
but most of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands.
They make no use of set forms in worship. The rents of the bishops, since the aboli-
tion of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious pur-
poses. A thousand pounds a year is always sent by his majesty for the use of protest-
ant schools erected by act of parliament in North Britain, and the western isles; and
the Scotch clergy, of late, have instituted funds for the support of their widows and or-
phans. The number of parishes in Scotland is 941, of which 31 are collegiate churches,
that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the General Assembly, which we
may call the ecclesiastical parliament of Scotland. It consists of commissioners, some
of whom are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from presbyteries, royal burghs,
and universities. A presbytery, consisting of less than twelve ministers, sends two mi-

nisters and one ruling elder; if it contain between twelve and eighteen ministers, it
sends three, and one ruling elder; if it contain between eighteen and twenty-four mi-

nisters, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders; but if the presbytery have twenty-
four ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends
one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whose election must be attested by the respective
kirk-sessions of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner, usually a
minister of their own body. These commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before
the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often persons of the first quality of
the country. The king presides by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in
this assembly, which meets annually in May; but he has no voice in their deliberations.
This assembly chooses a clergyman for its moderator, or speaker. Appeals are brought
from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland to the general assembly; and no ap-

peal lies from its determination in religious matters.

Provincial Synods are next in authority to the general assembly. They are composed
of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are
fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reversible by the general assembly.

Subordinate to the synods, are Presbyteries, of which there are sixty-nine in Scotland,
each consisting of a number of contiguous parishes. The ministers of these parishes,
with one ruling elder chosen half-yearly out of every session, compose a presbytery.
These presbyteries meet in the head town of that division, but have no jurisdiction beyond
their own bounds, though within these they have cognizance of all ecclesiastical causes
and matters. A chief part of their business is the ordination of candidates for livings,
in which they are regular and solemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or
present in six months after a vacancy; otherwise the presbytery fills the place jure devo-
luto; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk session is the lowest ecclesiastical judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does
not extend beyond its own parish. The members consist of the ministers, elders, and
deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act nearly as churchwardens do in England, by
having the superintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The
elder, or, as he is called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial trust, and he is
generally a lay-person of quality or interest in the parish. The elders are supposed to
act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the minister, and to be assisting to him in many of
his clerical duties, particularly in catechising, visiting the sick, and at the communion
table.

The office of ministers, or preaching presbyters, includes the offices of deacons and
ruling elders; they alone can preach, administer the sacrament, catechise, pronounce
church censures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, assist at the imposition of hands upon
other ministers, and moderate, or preside, in all ecclesiastical judicatories.

The established religion of Scotland formerly partook of all the austerities of Calvin-
ism, and of too much of the intolerance of popery: but at present it is mild and gentle;
and the sermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines are equally distinguished by good sense and moderation. In the Lowlands there are a great number of congregations who dissent from the presbyterian establishment and doctrines in several particulars, and are called Seceders. These are again subdivided into Burghers and Anti-burghers. They maintain their own preachers, though scarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other.

The other dissenters in Scotland, consist of the Episcopalians, a few Quakers, many Baptists, and other sectaries, who are denounced from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the time of the Restoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the established religion of Scotland; and would probably have continued so, had not the bishops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II., refused to recognise king William's title. The partisans of that unhappy prince retained the episcopal religion; and king William's government was rendered so unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time, the Episcopalians were more numerous in some parts than the Presbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, as well attended. A Scotch Episcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received some checks after the rebellion in 1715, but they recovered themselves so well, that, at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous; after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, still subsist, but thinly.

The defection of some great families from the cause of Popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconceivable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the islands: and they appear to be as quiet and inoffensive as protestant subjects.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishoprics, St Andrew's and Glasgow; and twelve bishoprics, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dunblane, Ross, Caithness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyll, and the Isles.

LITERATURE.] For this article, we may refer to the literary history of Europe for 1400 years past. The western parts and isles of Scotland produced St Patrick, the celebrated apostle of Ireland. The writings of Adamannus, and other authors who lived before and at the time of the Norman invasion, which are still extant, are specimens of early Scotch learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, most unquestionably held a correspondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he entered into a league; and employed Scots in planning, settling, and ruling, his favourite universities, and other seminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a seeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scottish poet, philosopher, and historian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flourished in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure English as that bard; and his versification is perhaps more harmonious. The destruction of the Scottish monuments of learning and antiquity has rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's history is equal in classical purity to that of any modern productions. The letters of the Scottish kings to the neighbouring princes are incomparably the finest compositions of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbarisms of those sent them in answer. This has been considered as a proof that classical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The discovery of the logarithms, a discovery which, in point of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston. And since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning, has sometimes added the colouring of a poet. Of all writers on astronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of Sir Isaac Newton, was endowed with all that precision and force of mind which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehensions, and for diffusing that light through the world which Newton had confined within the sphere of the learned. His Treatise on Fluxions is regarded by the best judges in Europe, as the clearest ac-
count of the most refined and subtle speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometer no less famous distinguished himself in the almost deserted track of antiquity. This was the late Dr Simpson, so well known for his illustrations of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and, above all, his Conic Sections, are sufficient of themselves to establish the scientific reputation of his native country.

In the department of history the highest celebrity has been acquired by Scottish writers. Hume was the first who, with any pretensions to classical elegance, wrote the history of England. Dr Robertson began his literary career of glory with the history of his own country. This was followed by that of all Europe, in the reign of the emperor Charles V. The captivating account of the discovery of America was next presented to the world; and a historical disquisition concerning India was the last production of this philosophical historian. To Dr Henry his country and the world are indebted for a history of Great Britain, on a plan entirely new, in which he has brought within one glance of the eye, every thing interesting in the civil history, constitution, learning, arts, commerce, and manners of the people, from the earliest authenticity. The investigations of Dr Adam Smith on the subject of national wealth and politics, have perhaps never been equalled; and the moral philosophy of Hume will be allowed, even by its opponents, to be ingenious and plausibly supported.

In medicine the names Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smellie, Whytt, Cullen, Brown, and Gregory, hold a distinguished place. Nor have the Scots been unsuccessful in cultivating the belles lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, are astonished at the poetic genius and delicate sensibility of Thomson, and the various powers of Armstrong, Beattie, and Burns.

Universities. The universities of Scotland are four—that of St Andrews, founded by bishop Wardlaw, in 1411: it consists of three colleges, two of which are now united, and in which, some years ago, the number of students was said to be only 100; that of Glasgow, founded by bishop Turnbull, in 1453, containing between five and six hundred students; that of Aberdeen, consisting of two colleges, one in the old town, founded by bishop Elphinstone, in the year 1500, and one in the new town, founded by George Keith, fifth earl-marshall, in 1593; and that of Edinburgh, founded by James VI., in 1580, which usually contains about 1000 students.

St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Professors in

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Glasgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Professors in

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Aberdeen has properly two Colleges, viz. King’s College, and Marischal College.

King’s College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and seven Professors in

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Marischal College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and seven Professors in

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EDINBURGH has a Patron, Principal, and Professors in

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Antiquities. The Roman and other antiquities found in Scotland have of themselves furnished matter for large volumes. The stations of the Roman legions, their castella, the pretentures or walls reaching across the island, have been traced with great precision by antiquaries and historians; so that, without some new discoveries, an account of them can afford no instruction to the learned, and but little amusement to the ignorant; because at present they can be discovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however, may be proper. The course of the Roman wall, (or, as it is called by the country people, Graham's Dyke, from a tradition that a Scottish warrior of that name, first broke over it), between the Clyde and Forth, which was first marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is still discernible, as are several Roman camps in the neighbourhood. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian Hills, is a striking remain of Roman antiquity. It is situated at Ardoch in Perthshire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the bloody battle, recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king Galgacus, who was defeated. Some writers think that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inscriptions found near it, a Roman castellum or fort. Be that as it may, it certainly is the most entire and best preserved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no less than five rows of ditches and six ramparts on the south side; and of the four gates which lead into the area, three are very distinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or of the dome of St. Paul's at London, stood upon the banks of the river Carron in Stirlingshire, but was barbarously demolished by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpose of mending a millpond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the base was eighty-eight feet, so that upon the whole it was one of the most complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or some of his successors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it stood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are some artificial conical mounds of earth, which still retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pacis; which serve to prove that there was a kind of solemn compromise between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former should not extend their empire farther to the northward.

Innumerable are the coins, urns, utensils, inscriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in different parts of Scotland: some of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear that they made any establishment. By the inscriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the southern parts.

Danish camps and fortifications are easily discernible in several northern counties, and are known by their square figures and difficult situations. Some houses or stupendous fabrics remain in Ross-shire; but whether they are Danish, Pictish, or Scottish, does not appear. They are, perhaps, Norwegian or Scandinavian structures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the descents of that people upon those coasts.

Two Pictish monuments, as they have been supposed to be, of a very extraordinary construction, were lately standing in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthshire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inside, and without the stair-case; that of Brechin is the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice; it con-
consists of sixty regular courses of hewn free-stone, laid circularly, and regularly tapering towards the top. If these columns are really Pictish, that people must have had among them architects who far exceeded those of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order; and the building is neat, and in the Roman style of architecture. It is, however, difficult to assign them to any but the Picts, as they stand in their dominions: and some sculptures upon that at Brechin denote it to be of Christian origin. It is not indeed impossible that these sculptures are of a later date. Besides these two pillars, many other Pictish buildings are found in Scotland, but not in the same style.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient Scots themselves are not only curious but instructive, as they regard many important events of their history. That people had amongst them a rude notion of sculpture, by which they transmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four of five ancient obelisks are still to be seen, called the Danish stones of Aberlemno. They are erected as commemorations of the Scottish victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day. Many other historical monuments of the Scots have been discovered; but it must be acknowledged that the obscurity of their sculptures has opened a field of boundless and frivolous conjectures, so that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. Among these the stone near the town of Forres, or Fortrose, in Murray, far surpasses all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is," says Mr Gordon, "perhaps one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no less than 12 or 15 feet below; so that the whole height is at least 35 feet, and its breadth near five. It is all one single and entire stone; great variety of figures in relief are carved on it, and some of them are still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally considered as Danish, yet it is not improbable that it is Scottish, and was erected in commemoration of the final expulsion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their last settlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invasion.

At Sandwich, in Ross-shire, is a very splendid ancient obelisk, surrounded at the base with large, well-cut flag stones, formed like steps. Both sides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well-finished carved work. One face presents a sumptuous cross, with a figure of St Andrew on each hand, and some uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central division on the reverse exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very striking; and many parts of that fine-building have still the remains of much grandeur and dignity in them. The west door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice displays very elaborate workmanship.

Among the remains of ancient castles, may be mentioned Kildrummy castle in the north of Scotland, which was formerly a place of great strength and magnificence, and often used as an asylum to noble families in times of civil war. Inverugie castle, the ancient seat of the earl-marchesals of Scotland, is aslo a large and lofty pile, situated on a steep bank of the river: two very high towers bound the front, and even in their decaying state, give the castle an air of much grandeur and antiquity. Long rows of venerable trees, inclosing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntly are the ruins of Huntly castle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large square towers, which had defended the gateway. The castle seems to be very old, and a great part of it is demolished; but there is a massy building of a more modern date, in which some of the apartments, and in particular, their curious ceilings, are still in tolerable preservation. They are painted with a great variety of subjects, in small divisions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Besides these remains of Roman, Pictish, Danish, and Scottish antiquities, many Druidical monuments and temples are discernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the isles, where we may suppose that paganism took its last refuge. They are
easily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are on so large a scale as the Druidical erections in South Britain. There is in Perthshire a barrow which seems to be a British erection, and the most beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world. It exactly resembles the figure of a ship with the keel uppermost. It seems to be of the most remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of some British prince who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it is situated near Auchterader, not far from the scene of Agricol's great operations.

NATURAL CURiosITIES.] Traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one instance; and the hill of Ber gonium, near Dunstaffnage castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumices or scoriz of different kinds, many of which are of the same species with those of the Icelandic volcanoes. Among other natural curiosities of this country, is a heap of white stones, most of them clear like crystal, together with great quantities of oyster and other sea shells, found on the top of a mountain called Scorna-Lappich, in Ross-shire, twenty miles distant from the sea. Slains, in Aberdeenshire, is said to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping Cave, where water oozing through a spongy porous rock at the top, quickly consolidates after it drops to the bottom. Scotland, like other mountainous countries, abounds in wild and picturesque scenes, rocks, cataracts, and caverns. Of the latter there are some in Fifeshire, of extraordinary dimensions, in which inhuman cruelties are said to have been perpetrated.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, AND EDIFICES.] Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally claims the first place under this head. The castle, before the use of artillery, was deemed to be impregnable. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territory reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulfus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle; and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived; the High-street, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying east and west, and the lanes running almost perpendicularly down its sides north and south. In former times, the town was surrounded by water, excepting towards the east; so that, when the French landed in Scotland during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of Lislebourg. This situation suggested the idea of building very lofty houses, divided into stories, each of which contains a suite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the use of a family; so that the High-street of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn stone, broad, and well paved, makes a grand appearance, especially as it rises a full mile in a direct line and gradual ascent from the palace of Holyrood-house on the east, and is terminated on the west by the rude majesty of its castle, built upon a lofty rock, inaccessible on all sides, except where it joins to the city. The castle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a most extensive prospect of the Frith of Forth, the shipping, the opposite coast of Fife, and even some hills at the distance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crowded population, however, was so extremely inconvenient, that the English, who seldom went further into the country, returned with the deepest impression of Scotch nastiness, which became proverbial. The castle has some good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were deposited here under the most solemn legal instruments, engaging that they should not be removed from thence.

Facing the castle, as has been already observed, at a mile's distance, stands the abbey, or rather palace, of Holyrood house. The inner quadrangle of this place, begun by James V. and finished by Charles I., is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan and under the direction of Sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greatest architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters; and the inside contains magnificent apartments. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern artists, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution, James VII., when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at present nothing can be more bleak than its situation, although surrounded by grounds in the highest degree susceptible of improvement.
The hospital, founded by George Herriot, goldsmith to James VI., commonly called Herriot's Work, stands to the south-west of the castle, in a noble situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.), has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be seen in England. One Balcanguhile, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is said to have prevailed upon Jones to admit some barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have insisted that the ornaments of each should be somewhat different from those of the others. It is, notwithstanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradesmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of an university, founded by king James IV., and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. It is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning; and its schools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which has been of late greatly augmented; and a museum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a physician. The old buildings being very mean, and unsuitable to such a celebrated university, the magistrates of Edinburgh set on foot a subscription for erecting a new and magnificent structure, from a design of the late Robert Adams, Esq. The original estimate for completing the whole, was 64,000l., and of this 30,000l. was immediately subscribed. On the 16th of November 1789, the foundation was laid; but, after having expended all the money subscribed, the building was obliged to be given up, after having nearly finished the east or principal front, and great part of the north front. The east and west fronts extend 255 feet, and the south and north 358. The whole, when completed, will be the most splendid structure of the kind in the world, and at the same time the most complete and commodious.

The Parliament Square, or, as it is there called, Close, was formerly the most ornamental part of this city: it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which consists of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equestrian statue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-house, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster-hall; and its roof, executed in the same manner, has been by good judges held to be superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord ordinary, presides by rotation: in an inner apartment sit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, shrievalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh; and the advocates' library. The latter equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at first entirely founded and furnished by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains is amazing; and the collection has been made with exquisite taste and judgment. It contains likewise the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scottish history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a series of medals.

The high church of Edinburgh, called that of St Giles, is divided into four churches, and a room where the general assembly sits. It is a large Gothic building, and its steeple is surmounted by arches, formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the Exchange, public offices, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the great improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have erected a New Town. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, the houses are built with stone in an elegant taste; and it is, on the whole, superior, perhaps, to any thing of the kind in Europe.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale. At the west or upper end of this vale, the castle from a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern extremity is bounded by a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages,
Edinburgh contains a playhouse, sanctioned by act of parliament; and concerts, assemblies, balls, music-meetings, and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majesty's dominions, London and Bath excepted. In the new town are several handsome and convenient hotels, and the coffee-houses and taverns in the old town are much improved.

Edinburgh is governed by a lord provost, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treasurer, annually chosen from the common-council. The lord provost is colonel of the town guard, a military institution to be found in no part of his majesty's dominions but in Edinburgh; they serve for the city watch, and patrol the streets, are useful in suppressing small commotions, and attend the execution of criminals. The number of inhabitants in Edinburgh, according to the returns under the late act, is 82,560. The revenues of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in most of the bodies corporate in Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid on every Scotch pint of ale (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts of the city. Its product has been sufficient to defray the expense of supplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes from the distance of four miles; of erecting reservoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expense and utility.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. It contains nothing remarkable but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the same), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guise, against the English, and afterwards required by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, which are daily increasing: some of them yield to few in England. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothic chapel, esteemed one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe; founded in the year 1440 by William St Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glasgow, in the shire of Lanark, situated on a gentle declivity sloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles west of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the second city in Great Britain, containing, by the latest survey, above 100,000 inhabitants. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved, and consequently clean. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high, and many of them, towards the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern built churches are in the finest style of architecture; and the cathedral is a stupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a very fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a masterly and matchless fabric. It was dedicated to St Mungo, or Kentigern, who was bishop of Glasgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preserved from the fury of the rigid reformers by the resolution of the citizens. The town-house is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magistrates. The university is esteemed the most spacious and best built of any in Scotland. In this city are several well endowed hospitals; and it is particularly well supplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of strangers of any rank. In Glasgow are seven churches, and eight or ten meeting-houses for sectaries of various denominations.

Paisley lies about 6 miles west of Glasgow, is a fine modern town, has flourishing manufactures, and contains above 30,000 inhabitants.

Aberdeen may be considered as the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a shire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the shire town, and evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It is a large well-built city; and has a good quay, or tide-harbour: in it are three churches, and several episcopal meeting-houses. It has a considerable degree of foreign commerce and much shipping, a well frequented university, and about 30,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile distant, though almost joined to the New by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other; it is a mo-
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derately large market town, but has no haven. In each of these two places there is a well endowed college, both together being termed the University of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other.

Perth, the capital town of Perthshire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic; is finely situated, has an extensive cotton manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the most fertile spots in Great Britain, called the Carse of Gowry. Perth was once the capital of Scotland. Here the courts of justice sat, the parliament assembled, and the king resided: it was then defended by a strong castle, and is at present one of the most regular and handsome towns in Scotland: it contains about 24,000 inhabitants. Dundee contains about 26,000 inhabitants; it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; is a town of considerable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to sundry foreign parts; and has three churches. Montrose, Arbroath, and Brechin, lie in the same county of Angus: the first has a flourishing foreign trade, and the manufactures of the other two are in an improving state.

Commerce, Manufactures.) The trade and manufactures of Scotland are in most respects similar to those of England, though on a smaller scale, and for many years past have been rapidly improving. The chief exports are linen and cotton goods, grain, iron, lead, glass, woollen stuffs, soap, &c.; the imports are wines, brandy, fruit and timber; and from the West Indies and America, sugar, rice, cotton, and indigo. The total amount of the exports from Scotland in 1793 was computed at 1,024,742l., and the the number of ships employed were 2,234.

The fisheries of Scotland have been greatly improved of late years, and send large supplies to the English and foreign markets. The busses, or vessels employed in the great herring fishery on the western coasts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port of Argyllshire, facing the north of Ireland, where sometimes 300 vessels have been assembled. They clear out on the 12th of September, and must return to their different ports on the 13th of January. They are also under certain regulations respecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. But though the political existence of Great Britain depends upon the number and bravery of her seamen, this fishery has hitherto laboured under many difficulties; the adventurers in it having frequently been losers, in consequence of the bounty of 50s. per ton (since reduced to 30s.) not having been regularly paid.

The chief manufactures of Scotland was for many years that of linen, of which more than 400,000 yards were yearly whitened in one bleachery; on the banks of the Tay. But the linen trade has been for some time declining, and has now almost entirely given place to the manufacture of cotton. This article is woven into every variety of fabrics, to a very large annual amount, chiefly in Glasgow, Paisley, Perth, and Aberdeen. Of the woollen manufactures of Scotland, that of carpets appears to be the most successful and productive.

The iron works at Carron, one mile from Falkirk, are the largest in Europe; above a thousand men are employed in them, and all sorts of iron goods are made, from the smallest article to the largest cannon, a great quantity of which are exported to Germany, Russia, and other foreign countries. The short piece of ordnance called a carronade was first made here, and hence received its name.

Revenues.) See England.

Coins.) In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the same in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scots shilling answered to about an English sixpence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an English groat. It continued diminishing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns under her son James VI. when the vast resort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the English court, occasioned such a drain of specie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch shilling fell to the value of one twelfth

† Luncarty, formerly the scene of a celebrated battle in Scottish history.
of an English shilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rare to be found; and bodies, their successors, which were double the value, are equally scarce. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babie; some say, because it was first stamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words, bas piece, signifying a low piece of money. The same observation that we have made on the Scottish shilling holds of their pounds and merks; which are not coins, but denominations of sums. In all other respects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the same, as the Scottish computation is now entirely disused.

**ORDER OF THE THISTLE.** This is a military order, instituted, as the Scotch writers assert, by their king Achaus, in the ninth century, upon his making an offensive and defensive league with Charlemagne, king of France; or, as others say, on account of his victory over Athelstane king of England, when he vowed in the kirk of St Andrew, that he and his posterity should ever bear the figure of that cross in their ensigns, on which the saint suffered. It has been frequently neglected, and as often resumed. It was revived in 1703. It consists of the sovereign, and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thistle, and have on their ensign this significant motto, *Nemo me impune laceret,* "None shall safely provoke me."

**LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.** The ancient constitution and government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority. But the Scottish constitution of government was too much of the aristocratic kind, to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king’s authority was sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannise over, and oppress their tenants, and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promises; viz.

"In the name of Christ, I promise these three things to the Christian people my subjects: First, that I shall give order, and employ my force and assistance, that the church of God, and the Christian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I shall prohibit and hinder all persons, of whatever degree, from violence and injustice. Thirdly, in all judgments I shall follow the prescriptions of justice and mercy, to the end that our cement and merciful God may shew mercy unto me, and to you."

The Parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown, by military service. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commissioned ambassadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of state and privy-councillors; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and restrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was so bounded, that he was not even intrusted with the executive part of the government. And even so late as the minority of James IV., who was contemporary with, and son-in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the first servant of his people, as appears by the act still extant. In short, the constitution was rather aristocratic than monarchical. The abuse of these aristocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very considerable interest among the lower ranks; and a prince who had sense and address to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the most overgrown of his subjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III., shewed a disrespect to his parliament, the event was com-
monly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithstanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were assisted by the clergy, whose revenues were immense, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called the lords of the articles. These were chosen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgesses. The bishops, for instance, chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; and these sixteen jointly chose eight barons (or knights, of the shire), and eight commissioners for burghs; and to all those were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole.

Their business was to prepare all questions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; so that, in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to bestow, always sure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It must be acknowledged, that this institution seems to have prevailed by stealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular system; even its modes varied; and the greatest lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scotch, however, never lost sight of their original principles; and though Charles I. wanted to form these lords of the articles into regular machines, for his own despotic purposes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy consequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a fresh instance how well they understood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about abdication, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown, which they gave to the prince and princess of Orange.

This spirit of resistance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the most insupportable ministerial tyranny ever since the Restoration. It is asked, Why did they submit to that tyranny? The answer is, In order to preserve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to destroy, by uniting them with England: they therefore chose to submit to a temporary evil; but they took the first opportunity to get rid of their oppressors.

Scotland, when it was a separate kingdom, cannot be said to have had any peers, in the English sense of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquisses, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no distinct house, for they sat in the same room with the commons, who had the same deliberative and decisive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might sit upon a lord's assize in matters of life and death; nor was it necessary for the assizes, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal customs, even at the time of the Restoration, were so prevalent, and the rescue of a great criminal was commonly so much apprehended, that seldom above two days passed between the sentence and execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scottish history, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws, as well as lay on taxes: a convention, or meeting of the states, only met for the purposes of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four lesser officers of state; the great were the lord high chancellor, high treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary; the four lesser were the lords register, advocate, treasurer-depute, and justice-clerk. Since the Union none of these continue, excepting the lords privy-seal, register, advocate, and justice-clerk; a third secretary of state has occasionally been nominated by the king for Scottish affairs, but under the same denomination as the two other secretaries. The above officers of state sat in the Scottish parliament, by virtue of their offices. The officers of the crown were, the high chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal. The offices of constable and marshal were hereditary. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral, and the office of marshal is exercised by a knight-marshall.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the same in England. The same may be said of the lords treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary. The lord register was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treasury, exchequer, and session, and keeper of all public records. Though this office was only during the king's pleasure, yet it was very lucrative, by disposing of his deputation, which lasted during life. He
acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon division. The lord advocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extensive; because, by the Scotch laws, he is the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the justiciary, and likewise concurs in all pursuits before sovereign courts, for breaches of the peace, and also in all matters civil, wherein the king or his donator hath interest. Two solicitors are named by his majesty, by way of assistants to the lord advocate. The office of justice-clerk entitles the possessor to preside in the criminal court of justice, while the justice-general, an office I shall describe hereafter, is absent.

The ancient constitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices, both of the crown and state; but they are either now extinct, or too inconsiderable to be described here. That of Lyon king at arms, or the rex sociaulum; or grand herald of Scotland, is still in being; and it was formerly an office of great splendour and importance, insofar much that the science of heraldry was preserved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned solemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, which is not the case in England, in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The Privy-Council of Scotland, before the Revolution, had, or assumed, inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy council of Great Britain; and the civil and criminal causes in Scotland are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature.

The first is that of the College of Justice, which was instituted by James V., after the model of the French Parliament, to supply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took to themselves the names of the lords of council and session, which the present members of the college of justice still retain. This court consists of a president and fourteen ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a standing jury in all matters of property that lie before them. Their forms of proceeding do not lie within my plan, neither does any inquiry how far such an institution, in so narrow a country as Scotland, is compatible with the security of private property. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of surprise, that the Scotch were so tenacious of the forms of the courts, and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, can be easily accounted for, because those laws and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. I shall just add, that the lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the subject) reversible by the British House of Lords, to which an appeal lies.

The Justiciary-court is the highest criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord-justice-general, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court are the justice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but, as I have already hinted, without any necessity of being unanimous.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scotch, by the articles of the Union, have a Court of Exchequer. This court has the same powers, authority, privilege, jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto, are likewise competent to the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The Court of Admiralty in Scotland was, in the reign of Charles II., by act of parliament, declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same, and upon fresh
waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark; so that nothing competent to its jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high admiral, and the judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty may be brought again before his court; but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the session, or any other judicatory, unless in cases not maritime. Causes are tried in this court by the civil law, which in such cases is likewise the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse-towns, and other maritime practices and decisions common upon the continent. The place of lord-admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the salary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000l. a-year; and the judge of the admiralty is commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The College or Faculty of Advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who subscribe themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a bye-government for their own regulation. Such are the different law-courts that are held in the capital of Scotland. We shall pass to those that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly vested in the sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly sheriffsdoms were generally hereditary; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being there enacted, that all high-sheriffs, or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs, and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputies, and steward-deputies, it is enacted, that there shall only be one in each county, or stewardry, who must be an advocate, of three years standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their office ad vitam aut culpam, that is, for life, unless guilty of some offence. Some other regulations have been likewise introduced, highly for the credit of the sheriff courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous, and so extravagant, that all the Scotch regalities are now dissolved by an act of parliament.

Baron-courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters they extend to sums not exceeding forty-shillings Sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three hours in the day time. These courts, however petty, were in former days invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost.

The courts of Commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellor, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tythes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the kingdom, there sits but one judge on these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland, exercise pretty much the same powers as those in England. In former times their office, though of very old standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The institution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invasion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to re-
gister depositions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office, however, is at present much disused in Scotland.

From the above short view of the Scotch laws and institutions, it is plain that they were radically the same with those of the English. The latter allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam Majestatem*, their oldest law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, say, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majestatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exist in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extensive, and before the Union they made laws relative to shipping, to masters and owners of ships, to mariners, and merchants by whom they were freighted; to manufactures, such as plaiding, linen and yarn; to the curing and packing of fish, salmon, and herrings, and to the importing and exporting several commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is subject to their regulation: they fix the staple port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conservator is indeed nominated by the crown, but then the convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his salary: so that, in truth, the whole staple trade is subjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very singular institution, and sufficiently proves the vast attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its present form in the reign of James III. 1447, and had excellent consequences, for the benefit of commerce.

Such are the laws and constitutions of Scotland, as they exist at present, in their general view; but our bounds do not permit us to descend to farther particulars, which are various and complicated. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The English law reports are of the same nature with the Scotch practice; and their acts of sederunt answer to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsets and reversion, to the English mortgages and defeasances; their poyning of goods, after letters of haming, is much the same as the English executions upon outlawries: and an appeal against the king's pardon, in cases of murder by the next of kin to the deceased, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other usages are the same in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, dismiss this head without one observation, which proves the similarity between the English and Scotch constitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch constitution, is called the Moot, or Mute-hill; all national affairs were here transacted; judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the same nature as the Saxon Folcnot, and to signify no more than the hill of meeting.

History.] Though the writers of ancient Scottish history are too fond of system and fable, yet it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were, probably, the first inhabitants; the Picts undoubtedly were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, about fourscore years before the descent of Julius Caesar; and who, settling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen who were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots most probably were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had served in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying southward of the Forth, appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the the capital of which was Dunbarton; but all these people in process of time were subdued by the Scots.

Having premised thus much, it is unnecessary for me to investigate the constitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is sufficient to add, to what I
have already said upon that head, that they seem to have been as forward as any of their southern neighbours in the arts of war and government.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the history of that war is not only transmitted with great precision, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raised by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave stand made by Galdus against that great general, does honour to the valor of both people; and the sentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of this country, appeared to have warmed the noble historian with the same generous passion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola, to conceal some part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned southward, to the province of the Horesi, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwise called Corbred, was, according to the Scotch historians, the 21st in the lineal descent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been disputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman histories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a succession of brave and wise princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant resistance obliged Agricola himself, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous pretences or walls, one between the Frith of Clyde and the Firth already mentioned; and the other between Tinnouth and the Solway Frith, which will be described in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never subdued.

Christianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Christian era, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before mentioned, were the descendants of the ancient Britons, forced northwards by the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined the Romans against the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and considered themselves as one people; so that the Scots monarchy suffered a short eclipse; but it broke out with more lustre than ever, under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his successors gave many severe overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britain in 448, the Scots, as appears by Gildas, a British historian, were a powerful nation, and, in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very sea; so that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief; and in the famous letter, which they called their groans, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being swallowed up by the sea, or perishing by the swords of the barbarians; for so all nations were called, who were not Romans, or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldest histories, and those that are least favourable to monachy, that the succession to the crown of Scotland, still continued in the family of Fergus, but generally descended collaterally; till the inconveniences of that mode of succession were so much felt, that by degrees it fell into disuse, and it was at last settled in the descending line.

About the year 769, the Scots were governed by Achaianus, a prince so much respected, that his friendship was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which continued inviolate while the monarchy of Scotland had an existence. No fact of equal antiquity is better attested than this league, together with the great service performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the vast dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already observed under the article of Learning. The Picts still remained in Scotland as a separate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally subdued them; but not in the savage manner mentioned by some historians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themselves with their conquerors, by taking their names, and adopting their laws. The successors of
Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almost perpetual wars with the Saxons on the southward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the east: who being masters of the sea, harassed the Scots by powerful invasions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the English; for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at last driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Danish monarchs who then governed England were not more successful against the Scots, who maintained their freedom and independency, not only against foreigners, but against their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words which signify a large head, but most probably from his great capacity, was the eighty-sixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the supposed founder of the monarchy; the forty-seventh from its restorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-second from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakespeare, who keeps close to the facts delivered by historians, can be no stranger to the fate of Malcolm’s father, and his own history, previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wise and magnanimous prince, and in no respect inferior to his contemporaries the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, surnamed the Out-law, son to Edmund Ironside, king of England. By the death of her brother Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the posterity of that princess, who was one of the wisest and worthiest women of the age; and her daughter Maud was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his son, treacherously, it is said, at the siege of Alnwick, by the besieged.

Malcolm III. was succeeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was deposed by Duncan II. whose legitimacy was disputed. They were succeeded by Edgar, the son of Malcolm III. who was a wise and valiant prince; he was succeeded by Alexander I. and upon his death David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithstanding the endeavours of some historians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of this reign, it yet appears, that David was one of the greatest princes of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. The noble actions he performed in the service of his niece, the empress Maud, in her competition with King Stephen for the English crown, give us the highest idea of his virtues, as they could be the result only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightiest prince of his age, owed his crown; and his possessions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David’s power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to this island. His actions and adventures, and the resources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the first rank. If he appeared to be too lavish to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to consider these were the only means by which he could then civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws I have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him, do his memory immortal honour. They are said to have been compiled under his inspection by learned men, whom he assembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melrose. He was succeeded by his grandson Malcolm IV. and he by William, surnamed from his valour, The Lion. William’s son Alexander II. was succeeded in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, first, Margaret daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the Earl of Flander’s daughter; David and Margaret, who married Hangowan, or, as some call him, Eric, son to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway: in whom king William’s whole posterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the descendants of David Earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV. and king William.

I have been the more particular in this detail, because it was productive of great events. Upon the death of Alexander III., John Baliol, who was great-grandson to David earl of Huntingdon, by his eldest daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandson to the same earl of Hunting-
don, by his youngest daughter Isabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not then so well established in Europe as they are at present, rendered the case very difficult. Both parties were almost equally matched in interest; but after a confused interregnum of some years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most politic, ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete absurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a slave, without Baliol’s resenting it.

After this Edward used many endeavours to annex their crown to his own, which were often defeated; and though Edward for a short time made himself master of Scotland, yet the Scotch were ready to revolt against him on every favourable opportunity. Those of them who were so zealously attached to the independency of their country, as to be resolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed but few compared to those in the interest of Edward and Baliol, which was the same: and for some time they were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himself of their weakness and his own power. He accepted of a formal surrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a pension, but detained him in England and sent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the least suspected, to different prisons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to sign instruments of their subjection to him; and most barbarously carried off or destroyed all the monuments of their history, and the evidences of their independency: and particularly the famous fattidical or prophetic stone, which is still to be seen in Westminster-Abbey.

These severe proceedings, while they rendered the Scots sensible of their slavery, re- vived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward finding their spirits were not to be subdued, endeavoured to caress them, and affected to treat them on a footing of equality with his own subjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have since taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with disdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the truest hero of his age, to expel the English. Wallace performed actions that entitled him to eternal renown, in executing this scheme. Being however no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increasing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the son of the first competitor, began to suspect that he had an eye upon the crown, especially after he had defeated the Earl of Surrey, Edward’s viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garrisons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the States of Scotland their protector. Their jealousy operated so far, that they formed violent cabals against the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the most numerous and best disciplined army England had ever seen, for it consisted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horsemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed; and was attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. These, besides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irresistible body: Edward, however, was obliged to divide it, reserving the command of 40,000 of his best troops to himself. With these he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their disputes ran so high, that the brave regent was deserted by Cumming, the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the best division of his countrymen. Wallace, whose troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vast loss, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace still continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions against the English; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who most ungenerously put him to death at London, as a traitor; but he died himself as he was preparing to renew his invasion of Scotland with a still more desolating spirit of ambition, after having destroyed 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died soon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inspired his son, who was a prisoner at large about the English court, with the glorious resolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country’s independency. He escaped from London,
and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he assumed the crown, but was defeated by the English, who had a great army in Scotland, at the battle of Methven. After his defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Western isles, and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and sufferings were as inexpressible as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas especially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughters were sent prisoners to England, where the best of his friends and two of his brothers were put to death, yet such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the dissipated conduct of Edward II, who raised an army more numerous and better appointed still than that of his father, to make a total conquest of Scotland. It is said that it consisted of 100,000 men, though this has been supposed to be an exaggerated computation; however it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 50,000; but all of them heroes, who had been bred up in a detestation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led this mighty host towards Stirling, then besieged by Bruce, who had chosen, with the greatest judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Those under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who next to himself was reckoned to be the best knight in Scotland, his nephew Randolph earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high steward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmness of Bruce and his friends to resist it, which they did so effectually that they gained one of the most complete victories that is recorded in history. The great loss of the English fell upon the bravest part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in person against Bruce himself. The Scotch writers make the loss of the English to amount to 50,000 men. Be that as it will, there certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors lost 4000. The flower of the English nobility were either killed or taken prisoners. Their camp, which was immensely rich, and calculated for the purpose rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himself, with a few followers, favoured by the goodness of their horses, were pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he escaped in a fishing-boat. This great and decisive battle happened in the year 1314.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a series of the most glorious successes; and so well did his nobility understand the principles of civil liberty, and so unfettered were they by religious considerations, that, in a letter they sent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had set aside Baliol, for debasing the crown, by holding it of England, and that they would do the same by Robert, if he should make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, sent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greatest part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but, by exposing himself too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, which happened in 1326, made an advantageous peace with England; and, when he died, he was acknowledged to be indisputably the greatest hero of his age.

The glory of the Scotch may be said so have been in its zenith under Robert I., who was succeeded by his son David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipsed by his brother-in-law, and enemy, Edward III. of England, whose sister he married. Edward, who was as keen as any of his predecessors, upon the conquest of Scotland, espoused the cause of Baliol, son to Baliol, the original competitor. His progress was at first amazingly rapid, and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken prisoner by the English at the battle of Durham; and, after continuing above eleven years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ransom, and died in peace, without issue, in the year 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The first king of that name was Robert II.
a wise and brave prince. He was succeeded by his son Robert III. whose age and infirmities disqualified him from reigning; so that he was forced to trust the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who seems to have had an eye to the crown for his own family. Robert, upon this, attempted to send his second son to France; but he was most ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and, after suffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ransom. During the imprisonment of James, in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greatest height in France, where they supported that tottering monarchy against England, and their generals obtained some of the first titles of the kingdom.

James, the first of that name, upon his return to Scotland, discovered great talents for government, enacted many wise laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent education in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he saw the feudal system refined from many of the imperfections which still adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover such lands as had been unjustly wrested from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns; but the execution of these designs cost him his life; he being murdered in his bed by some of the chief nobility in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority succeeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greatest of his ancestors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been suddenly killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the thirteenth year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a female mind, are visible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, being slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His son, James IV. was the most accomplished prince of the age; he was naturally generous and brave; he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, so that they greatly increased in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family distemper, a predilection for the French, in whose cause he rashly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent; and when he grew up he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle, Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent presents. But James took little share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrines of the Reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the instigation of the clergy, to a religious persecution, though it is generally believed that, had he lived longer, he would have seized all the church revenues, in imitation of Henry. However, having rather slighted some friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great unbridge to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this short expedition, the English army retired to Berwick. Upon this the king of Scotland sent 10,000 men to the western borders, who entered England at Solway Frith, and he himself followed them at a small distance ready to join them upon occasion. But he soon after gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, Lord Maxwell, of his commission, and conferring the command on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman, who was his favourite. The army were so much disgusted with this alteration, that they were ready to disband, when a small body of English horse appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic seized the Scots, who immediately took to
flight, supposing themselves to be attacked by the whole body of the English army. The English horse, seeing them flee with such precipitation, closely pursued them, and slew great numbers, taking prisoners seven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred soldiers, with twenty four pieces of ordnance. This disaster so much affected King James, that it threw him into a fit of illness, of which he soon after died on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, imprudence, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient here to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the Reformation advanced in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her own cousin-german, the lord Darnley, whose untimely death hath given rise to so much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for eighteen years; and afterwards, on motives of state policy, beheaded by Queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-sixth year of her age.

Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of Queen Elizabeth, to the English crown, after shewing considerable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, destroyed the independency as it impoverished the people of Scotland: for the seat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to seek for bread in other countries. James, after a splendid, but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them in 1625, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his despotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottish and English subjects to take up arms against him; and indeed it was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn against Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himself into the power of the Scottish army; they at first treated him with respect, but afterwards delivered him up to the English parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was said to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made several bloody but unsuccessful attempts, to restore his son Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester, 1651, after which, to the time of his restoration, the commonwealth of England and the protector gave law to Scotland. I have, in another place, touched on the most material parts of Charles's reign, and that of his deluded brother, James VII. of Scotland, and II. of England, as well as of King William, who was so far from being a friend to Scotland, that, relying on his royal word to her parliament, she was brought to the brink of ruin.

The state of parties in England at the accession of Queen Anne, was such, that the Whigs once more had recourse to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate Union as it now stands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would listen to the proposal; but, at last, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money distributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; since which event the history of Scotland becomes the same with that of England.

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**ENGLAND.**

**EXTENT AND SITUATION.**

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England and Wales contain 57,680 square miles, with 164 inhabitants to each.

**CLIMATE AND BOUNDARIES.** THE longest day in the northern parts contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the shortest in the southern near eight hours. It is bounded
on the North by Scotland; on the East by the German ocean; on the West by St George's Channel; and on the South by the English Channel, which parts it from France.

The situation, by the sea washing it on three sides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, so that the inhabitants on part of the sea-coasts are often visited by aquas and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the same degree of latitude, are subject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, especially those who live on a dry soil. To this situation likewise we are to ascribe that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occasioned by refreshing showers and the warm vapours of the sea.

**NAME AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN.** Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word England; some derive it from a Celtic word, signifying a level country; but I prefer the common etymology of its being derived from Anglia, a province now subject to his Danish majesty, which furnished a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this island. In the time of the Romans the whole island went by the name of Britannia. The word Brit, according to Mr Camden, signified painted or stained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies; other antiquaries, however, do not agree in this etymology. The western tract of England, which is almost separated from the rest by the rivers Severn and Dee, is called Wales, or the land of strangers, because inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were strangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England, they divided it into,

1. **Britannia Prima**, which contained the southern parts of the kingdom.
2. **Britannia Secunda**, containing the western parts, comprehending Wales: And,
3. **Maxima Caesaris**, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To these divisions some add the Flavia Caesaris, which they suppose to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England about the year 450, and when they were established in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themselves, after the manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the most instrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political republic, consisting of seven kingdoms. But, in time of war, a chief was chosen out of the seven kingdoms; for which reason I call it a political republic, its constitution greatly resembling that of ancient Greece.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, usually styled the Saxon Heptarchy.

**KINGDOMS.**

1. Kent, founded by Hengist in 475, and ended in 823
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600
3. East Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793
4. West Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060

**COUNTRIES.**

1. Kent
2. Sussex
3. Surry
4. Norfolk
5. Suffolk
6. Cambridge, with The Isle of Ely
7. Cornwall
8. Devon
9. Dorset
10. Somerset
11. Wilts
12. Hants
13. Berks

**CHIEF TOWNS.**

1. Canterbury
2. Chichester
3. Southwark
4. Norwich
5. Bury St Edmund's
6. Cambridge
7. Ely
8. Launceston
9. Exeter
10. Dorchester
11. Bath
12. Salisbury
13. Winchester
14. Abingdon
### Kingdoms of Britain

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<th>Kingdoms</th>
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<td>7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874</td>
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It is more necessary to preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from different institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. The Circuits are:

### Circuits

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essex 226,437</td>
<td>Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Maidstone, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Brantree and Stratford.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hertford 97,577</td>
<td>Hertford, St Albans, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Bishop's-Stortford, Berkhamstead, Hemsted, and Barnet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kent 307,624</td>
<td>Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feversham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerness, Tunbridge, Margate, Gravesend, and Milton.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surry 269,043</td>
<td>Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, Richmond, Wandsworth, Battersea, Putney, Farnham, Godalming, Bagshot, Egham, and Dorking.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Circuits</td>
<td>Counties</td>
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<tr>
<td>I. Home circuit</td>
<td>Sussex 159,311</td>
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<td>Bucks 107, 444</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Bedford 63,393</td>
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<td>Huntingdon 37,568</td>
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<td>Cambridge 89,346</td>
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<td>Suffolk 210,431</td>
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<tr>
<td>II. Norfolk Circuit</td>
<td>Norfolk 273,371</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oxon 109, 620</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Berks 109,215</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Gloucester 250,809</td>
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<td>Worcester 139,333</td>
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<tr>
<td>III. Oxford Circuit</td>
<td>Monmouth 45,582</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Hereford 89,191</td>
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<td>Salop 167,639</td>
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<td>Stafford 239, 153</td>
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<td>Warwick 208,190</td>
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<tr>
<td>IV. Midland circuit</td>
<td>Leicester 139,081</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Derby 161,142</td>
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### CIRCUITS.

#### IV. Midland Circuit continued.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nottingham 140,350</td>
<td>Nottingham, Southwell, Wewark, East and West Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Workop, and Blithe.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rutland 16,356</td>
<td>Oakham and Uppingham.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hants 219,656</td>
<td>Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumsey, Alresford, and Newport, Yarmouth and Cowes, in the Isle of Wight.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dorset 115,319</td>
<td>Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborne, Shaftesbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham and Wimborne.</td>
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#### V. Western Circuit.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Devon 343,001</td>
<td>Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstable, Biddeford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, Topsham, Okehampton, Ashburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totnes, Axminster, Plympton, and Ilfracombe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cornwall 188,269</td>
<td>Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Saltash, Bodmyn, St Ives, Padstow, Tregony, Powey, Penryn, Kellington, Leskeard, Lestwithiel, Helston, Penzance, and Redruth.</td>
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* In the Lent or Spring assizes, the northern circuit extends only to York and Lancaster; the assizes at Durham, Newcastle, Appleby, and Carlisle, being held only in the Autumn, and distinguished by the appellation of the long circuit.
VI. Northern Circuit continued.

Durham 160,361
Northumberland 157,101
Lancaster 672,731

Westmoreland 41,617
Cumberland 117,230

Chief Towns.
Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, Darlington, Hartlepools, and Auckland.
Newcastle, Tynemouth, North Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Rochdale, Warrington, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkshead, and Newton.
Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglass, Egremont, Keswick, Workington, and Ireby.

Middlesex is not comprehended in these circuits; nor Cheshire, which, being a county palatine, enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

Circuits of WALES.

Chiefs.

North-East Circuit.
Flint, St Asaph, and Holywell.
Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthin.
Montgomery, Llanymynech, and Welshpool.

North-West Circuit.
Caernarvon, Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pwllheli.

South-East Circuit.
Radnor, Presteigne, and Knighton.
Brecknock, Builth, and Hay.
Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansea.
St David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiscard, and Milford Haven.
Cardigan, Aberystwyth, and Llanbadarn-Fawr.

South-West Circuit.
Caermarthenshire, Kidwelly, Llandysul, Llandilo, Langar, and Llanellty.

Middlesex 1,000,929
Chester 191,751

Counts exclusive of the Circuits.
London, first meridian, north lat. 51° 31', Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knutsford, Frodsham, and Hulton.

† Including London and Westminster.
### IN ENGLAND.

| Counties, which send up to parliament | 40 | 80 knights. |
| Cities (Ely none, London four)       | 25 | 50 citizens. |
| Boroughs, two each                   | 167 | 334 burgesses. |
| Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham-Ferrers, and Monmouth), one each | 5 | 5 burgesses. |
| Universities                          | 2 | 4 representatives. |
| Cinque ports (Hastings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hithe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelsea, and Seaord), two each | 8 | 16 barons. |

### WALES.

| Counties | 12 | 12 knights. |
| Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none), one each | 12 | 12 burgesses. |

### SCOTLAND.

| Shires | 35 | 30 knights. |
| Cities and Boroughs | 37 | 15 burgesses. |

### IRELAND.

| Counties | 32 | 64 knights. |
| Cities and Boroughs | 36 | 36 citizens and burgesses. |

**Total**, 658

Besides the fifty-two counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, consisting of certain districts, to which the liberties and jurisdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county distinct from Middlesex; the cities of York, Chester, Bristol, Exeter, Norwich, Worcester, and the towns of Kingston-upon-Hull and Newcastle-upon-Tyne, are counties of themselves, distinct from those in which they lie. The same may be said of Berwick-upon-Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and has within its jurisdiction a small territory of two miles on the north side of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained; for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is so called, because it sends up burgesses to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and some not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they still send burgesses to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that has, or has had, a bishop; for if the bishopric be dissolved, yet the city remains. To have suburbs, proves it to be a city. Some cities are also counties, as before mentioned.

**Soil, air, seasons, and water.** The soil of England and Wales differs in each county, not so much from the nature of the ground, though that must be admitted to occasion a very considerable alteration, as from the progress which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marshes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China.

As to air, I can add but little to what I have already said concerning the climate. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by westerly winds: but they are ventilated by winds and storms, so that in this respect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate constitutions, more disagreeable than unsalubrious. It cannot, however, be denied, that in England the weather is so excessively capricious and unfavourable to certain constitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to fly to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

After what we have observed in the English air, the reader may form some idea of its seasons, which are so uncertain, that they admit of no description. Spring, summers...
autumn, and winter, succeed each other, but in what month their different appearances take place is very undetermined. The spring begins sometimes in February, and sometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoar frost instead of blossoms. The beginning of June is sometimes as cold as in the middle of December, yet at other times the thermometer rises in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even August has its vicissitudes of heat and cold, and upon an average September, and next to it October, are the two most agreeable months in the year. The natives sometimes experience all the four seasons within the compass of one day, cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. After saying thus much, it would be in vain to attempt any farther description of the English seasons. Their inconstancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at most three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth: and it is hardly ever observed that the inhabitants suffer by a hot summer.

In speaking of water, I do not include rivers, brooks, or lakes; I mean waters for the common convenience of life, and those that have mineral qualities. The champaign parts of England are generally supplied with excellent springs and fountains; though a discerning palate may perceive that they frequently contain some mineral impregnation. In some very high lands, the inhabitants are distressed for water, and supply themselves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The constitutions of the English, and the diseases to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquisitive after salubrious waters, for the recovery and preservation of their health; so that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The most celebrated are the hot-baths of Bath and Bristol in Somersetshire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyshire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epsom, Harrogate, and Scarborough. Sea-water is used as commonly as any other for medical purposes; and so delicate are the tones of the English fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the sea-water of one coast and that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY AND MOUNTAINS.] No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful scenes. The variety of high lands and low lands, the former generally swelling, and both of them forming prospects equal to the most luxuriant imagination, the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of enclosures and plantations, the noble seats, comfortable houses, cheerful villages, and well stocked farms, often rising in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the most vivid colours of nature, are inexpressible. The most barren spots are not without their verdure; but nothing can give us a higher idea of the English industry than observing that some of the pleasantest counties in the kingdom are naturally the most barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be safely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its prospects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though England is full of delightful rising grounds, and the most enchanting slopes, yet it contains few mountains. The most noted are the Peak in Derbyshire, the Endle in Lancashire, the Wolds in Yorkshire, the Skiddaw or Saddle-back in Cumberland, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worcestershire, Cotswould in Gloucestershire, the Wrekin in Shropshire; with those of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in Wales. In general, however, Wales and the northern parts may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty as well as its opulence. The Thames, the noblest perhaps in the world, rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, a little S. W. of Cirencester; and, after receiving the many tributary streams of other rivers, it passes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Marlow, and Windsor: From thence to Kingston, where formerly it met the tide, which, since the building of Westminster bridge, is said to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Essex, it widens in its progress, till it falls into the sea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ships to London bridge.
The river Medway, which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welsh-pool; runs east to Shrewsbury; then turning south, visits Bridge-north, Worcester, and Tewkesbury; when it receives the Upper Avon; after having passed Gloucester, it takes a south-west direction; is near its mouth increased by the Wye and Ustre, and discharges itself into the Bristol-Channel, near King-road; and there lie the great ships which cannot get up to Bristol. The Trent rises in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, and running south-east by Newcastle-under-Line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-east on the confines of Derbyshire, visits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnshire, and being joined by the Ouse, and several other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the sea south-east of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England, are the Ouse (a Gaelic word signifying water in general), which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from west to east through Northumberland, and falls into the German sea at Tynemouth, below Newcastle. The Tees runs from west to east, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls into the German sea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from west to east on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German sea at Berwick. The Eden runs from south to the north through Westmoreland and Cumberland, and passing by Carlisle, falls into the Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs west through Wiltshire to Bath, and then dividing Sommersetshire from Gloucestershire, runs to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from east to west through Cumberland, and passing by Cockermouth, falls into the Irish sea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from east to west through Lancashire, and passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish sea. The Mersey, which turns from the south-east to the north-west through Cheshire, and then dividing Cheshire from Lancashire, passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish sea a little below that town; and the Dee rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish Channel below Chester.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain, from history and antiquity, and, indeed, in some places from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining, are Soham mere, Wittlesmere, and Ramsay mere, in the isle of Ely, in Cambridgeshire. All these meres in a rainy season are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winander mere lies in Westmoreland, and there are some beautiful small lakes in Cumberland, the principal of which is Derwent water.

Canals.] Within the last fifty years a great number of canals have been cut in various parts of England, which have greatly contributed to the improvement of the country, and the facilitating of commercial intercourse between the trading towns. The first of these, in point of date, is the Sanky canal, the act of parliament for which was obtained in 1755. It was cut to convey coals from the coal-pits at St Helens to the river Mersey, and so to Liverpool, and is in length 12 miles. But the canals of the late duke of Bridgewater, the great father of inland navigation in this country, are of much greater importance, both for the extent and the natural difficulties that were surmounted by the fertile genius of that extraordinary mechanic Mr Brindley. Of these great works the first was begun in 1758, at Worsley-mill, about seven miles from Manchester, where a basin is cut, containing a great body of water, which serves as a reservoir to the navigation. The canal runs through a hill, by a subterranean passage large enough for the admission of long flat-bottomed boats, towed by hand-rails on each side, near three quarters of a mile, to the duke's coal-works. There the passage divides into two channels, one of which goes 500 yards to the right, and the other as many to the left. In some places the passage is cut through solid rock, in others arched over with brick. Air-funnels, some of which are 37 yards perpendicular, are cut, at certain distances, through the rock to the top of the hill. At Bartonbridge, three miles from the basin, is an aqueduct, which, for upwards of
200 yards, conveys the canal across a valley, and the navigable river Irwell. There are three arches over this river; the centre one 63 feet wide, and 38 feet high above the water, which will admit the largest barges to go through with masts and sails standing. The whole of the navigation is more than 29 miles; it falls 95 feet, and was finished in five years.

The Grand Trunk or Staffordshire canal was begun in 1766, under the direction of Mr Brindley, in order to form a communication between the Mersey and Trent, and in consequence between the Irish Sea and the German Ocean. It was completed in 1777, after the death of Mr Brindley, who died in 1772, by his brother-in-law Mr Henshall. Its length is 22 miles; it is 29 feet broad at the top, 26 at the bottom, and 5 deep. It is carried over the river Dove by an aqueduct of 23 arches, and over the Trent by one of 6. At the hill of Harecastle, in Staffordshire, it is conveyed through a tunnel more than 70 yards beyond the surface of the ground, and 2880 yards in length. In the same neighbourhood there is another subterraneous passage of 350 yards, and at Preston on the hill another 1241 yards in length. From the neighbourhood of Stafford a branch goes off from this canal, and joins the Severn near Beverley; two other branches go the one to Birmingham, and the other to Worcester.

The Braunston or Grand Junction canal (so called from its uniting the inland navigation of the central counties) extends from the Thames at Brentford, to the Oxford canal at Braunston in Northamptonshire. A branch of it likewise goes from Uxbridge to Paddington, and a plan has been proposed, and considerable sums of money subscribed, for extending a cut from the latter place to the new West India docks at Blackwall; but whether this design will be carried into execution is as yet uncertain.

A great number of other canals have been cut in various parts of the kingdom; as the Lancaster canal; the canal from Liverpool to Leeds, carried through an extent of 117 miles; the canal from Halifax to Manchester 31 miles; a canal from Basingstoke in Hampshire to the Thames at Weybridge; another from Andover in the same county to the river near Southampton; and many others, which it would be tedious here only to enumerate.

Forests. The first Norman kings of England, partly for political purposes, that they might the more effectually enslave their new subjects, and partly from the wantonness of power, converted immense tracts of ground into forests, for the benefit of hunting, and these were governed by laws peculiar to themselves; so that it was necessary, about the time of passing the Magna Charta, to form the code of the forest laws; and justices in Eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those vast tracts were deforested, and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are those of Windsor, New Forest, the Forest of Dean, and Sherwood Forest. Those forests produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash, and beech, besides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not forests, of chestnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber, for the purposes of building, as appears from many great houses still standing, in which the chestnut beams and roofs remain still fresh and un decayed, though some of them are above 600 years old.

Metals and Minerals. Among the minerals, the tin-mines of Cornwall deservedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phcenicians, the latter especially, some ages before the Christian era; and since the English have found a method of manufacturing their tin into plates and white iron, they are of immense advantage to the nation, their annual produce amounting nearly to the value of 200,000l. including what is conveyed to foreign markets. These tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stannary laws, and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. Iron is found in plenty in England: the principal mines of it are in Coalbrook-dale, Shropshire; Dean’s forest in Gloucestershire, and some parts of the north of England. Lead is obtained in many parts of this island, particularly in Derbyshire, Yorkshire, Northumberland, and some counties in Wales. Near 20,000 tons of this metal are exported annually, notwithstanding great quantities are employed in different fabrications within the country.
Of copper, Cornwall is said to furnish the value of 200,000l. annually, and the whole of the island to the amount of a million; the quantity exported having been estimated at above 1000 tons. The number of miners employed in Cornwall is said to amount to 100,000. There are no gold or silver mines in Britain; but particles of the former metal are found in the tin-mines of Cornwall, and some silver may be extracted from the ore of lead. Near Keswick in Cumberland is a rich mine of plumbago or black-lead, which the proprietors permit only to be opened once in six or seven years, to prevent the markets from being overstocked. Zinc, in the form of *lapis calaminaris*, is found in Cornwall and Derbyshire. Devonshire, and other counties of England, produce marble; but the best kind, which resembles Egyptian granite, is excessively hard to work. Quarries of freestone are found in many places. Near Northwich, in Cheshire, are immense mines of rock-salt, which were discovered about the beginning of the last century. The quarries extend over many acres, and their crystal roof, supported by pillars, has a most beautiful appearance. The pit at Witton is of a circular form, 103 yards in diameter, and the roof is supported by 25 pillars, each containing 294 solid yards of rock-salt. The annual produce of rock-salt at Northwich is estimated by Mr Pennant at 65,000 tons. Cheshire likewise produces alum. The fullers earth found in Berkshire, and in some other counties, is of such consequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties. Pit and sea coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nusery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland and the county of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland. The exportation of coals to other countries is very considerable. The mines of Northumberland alone send every year upwards of 600,000 chaldrons of coals to London, and 1500 vessels are employed in carrying them to that port along the eastern coast of England.

**Vegetable and Animal Productions by Sea and Land.** The quantity of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other grain growing in England, is very great. Excellent institutions for the improvement of agriculture, are now common in England, the principal of which is a Board of Agriculture, under the Royal patronage. Honey and saffron are natives of England. It is almost needless to mention to the most unenformed reader, in what plenty the most excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here, and what vast quantities of cyder, perry, mead, and the like liquors, are made in some counties. The cyder, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention those improvements, did we not observe that the natives of England have made the different fruits of all the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, but often by hot beds, and other means of forcing nature. The English pine apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The same may be said of other natives of the East and West Indies, Persia and Turkey. The English grapes are pleasing to the taste, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine, and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raised here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all sorts of greens, roots, and salads, in perfection, such as artichokes, asparagus, caulisflowers, cabbages, coleworts, broccoli, peas, beans, kidney beans, spinage, beets, lettuce, cellary, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, mushrooms, leeks, onions and shallots.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordshire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing, however, have the English been more successful, than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, saintfoin, lucern, and other mellowing grasses for the soil. It belongs to a botanist to recount the various kinds of useful and salutary herbs, shrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The soil of Kent, Essex, Surry, and Hampshire, is most favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which is now become a very considerable article of trade.

With regard to animal productions, I shall begin with the quadrupeds. The English oxen are large and fat, but some prefer for the table the smaller breed of the Scotch, and the Welsh cattle, after grazing in English pastures. The English horses, upon the whole, are the best of any in the world, whether we regard their spirit, strength, swift-
ness, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken by all ranks, from the monarch down to the peasant, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the success has been answerable, for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Persian, Arabian, Spanish, and other foreign horses. It is no uncommon thing for an English horse, mare, or gelding, though not of the race kind, to run above 20 miles within the hour, and they have been known to do it in a carriage. The irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry, renders them the best in the world in war: and an English hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or stag chase. Those which draw equipages on the streets of London, are particularly beautiful. A stronger and a heavier breed is employed for other draughts. The exportation of horses has of late become a considerable article of commerce. The breed of asses and mules begin likewise to be improved and encouraged in England.

The English sheep are of two kinds, those that are valuable for their fleece, and those that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces constitute the original staple commodity of England. In some counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in their horses and dogs, and that in Lincolnshire, particularly, those animals sell for enormous prices. It must, however, be owned, that those large fat sheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England twelve millions of fleeces are shorn annually, which at a medium of 2s. a fleece, make 1,200,000l. The other kind of sheep, which are fed upon the downs, such as those of Banstead, Bagshot-heath, and Devonshire, where they have, what the farmers call, a short bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and sweetness, to venison.

The English mastiffs and bull-dogs, are the strongest and fiercest of the canine species in the world, but, either from the change of soil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two English bull-dogs, upon one of the most terrible lions in the Tower, and they laid him on his back. The mastiff, however, has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly distinguished for his fidelity and docility. All the different species of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domestic uses, are to be found in England.

What I have observed of the degeneracy of the English dogs in foreign countries, is applicable to the English game cocks, which afford much barbarous diversion to our sportsmen. The courage of these birds is astonishing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this generous animal are likewise extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are pretty much the same in England as in other countries; turkeys, peacocks, common poultry, such as cocks, pullets, and capons, geese, swans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild sort, are bustards, wild gese, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, grouse, quail, sandrill, snipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws, and jays, blackbirds, thrushes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of small birds; canary birds also breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its flesh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better supplied than England with river and sea-fish. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of salmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, smelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fish, besides a delicate lake-fish called char, which is found in some fresh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and as some say so where else. The sea-fish, are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, skait, soles. The john-dory, found towards the western coast, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fish are found on the same coasts. As to shell-fish, they are chiefly oysters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobsters, crabs, shrimps, and scallops, one of the most delicious of shell-fishes, cockles, wilks, perriwinkles, and mussels, with many other small shell-fish, abound in the English seas. The whales chiefly visit the northern coast: but great numbers of porpoises and seals appear in the channel.

With regard to reptiles, such as adders, vipers, snakes, and worms; and insects, such as ants, gnats, wasps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the rest of L.
Europe; and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural history than geography.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.] The population of Great Britain, as ascertained by act of parliament in 1801, was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>8,614,234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>541,546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>1,607,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Army</td>
<td>198,351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy</td>
<td>126,279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seamen in registered vessels</td>
<td>144,558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convicts</td>
<td>1,410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11,234,138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The population of Ireland is estimated at four millions, so that the entire population of the united kingdom amounts to more than fifteen millions of souls.

Englishmen, in their persons, are generally well-sized, regularly featured, commonly fair rather than otherwise, and florid in their complexions. It is however to be presumed, that the vast number of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a cast to their persons and complexions different from those of their ancestors 150 years ago. The women in their shape, features, and complexion, appear so graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But besides the external graces so peculiar to the women in England, they are still to be more valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanliness, and a tender affection for their husbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domestic life.

Of all the people in the world, the English keep themselves the most cleanly. Their nerves are so delicate, that people of both sexes are sometimes forcibly, nay mortally affected by imagination; insomuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the small pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathsome disease by its true name, in any polite company. This over-sensibility has been considered as one of the sources of those singularities which so strongly characterise the English nation. They sometimes magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution or constancy of mind. They are fond of clubs and convivial associations; and when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cure for those mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The same observations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which must be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change since the accession of the House of Hanover, especially of late years. The English nobility and gentry of great fortunes now assimilate their manners to those of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourse than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they visit, under the tuition perhaps of a despicable pedant, or family-dependant; but they travel for the purposes of society, and at the more advanced stages of life, while their judgments are mature, and their passions regulated. This has enlarged society in England, which foreigners now visit as commonly as Englishmen visited them, and the effects of the intercourse become daily more visible, especially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex.

Such of the English noblemen and gentlemen as do not strike into those high walks of life, affect what we call a snug rather than a splendid way of living. They study and understand better than any people in the world, convenience in their houses, gardens, equipages, and estates, and they spare no cost to purchase it. It has, however, been observed, that this turn renders them less communicative than they ought to be: but, on the other hand, the few connections they form, are sincere, cheerful, and indissoluble. The like habits descend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often discernible among tradesmen. This love of snugness and convenience may be called the ruling
passion of the English people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues, which are incredible. A good economist with a brisk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from business; that is, either to purchase an estate, or to settle his money in the funds. He then commonly resides in a comfortable house in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his style of living is always judiciously suited to his circumstances.

The oversensibility of the English is discovered in nothing more than in the vast subscriptions for public charities, raised by all degrees of both sexes. An Englishman feels all the pains which a fellow-creature suffers, and poor and miserable objects are relieved in England with a liberality that some time or other may prove injurious to industry: because it takes from the lower ranks the usual motives of labour, that they may save somewhat for themselves and families, against the days of age or sickness. The very people who contribute to those collections are assessed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for their maintenance; and upwards of three millions sterling is said to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purposes. The institutions however of extra-parochial infirmaries, hospitals, and the like, are in some cases reprehensible. The vast sums bestowed in building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of physicians, who thereby, qualified or unqualified, acquire credit, which is the same as profit, very often beget heats and cabals, which are very different from the purposes of disinterested charity, owing to the violent attachments and prepossessions of friends, and too often even to party considerations.

Notwithstanding those noble provisions, which would banish poverty from any other country, the streets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of distress, who beg in defiance of the laws, which render the practice severely punishable. This is partly owing to the manner in which the poor people live, who consider the food to be uneatable which in other countries would be thought luxurious.

The English listen to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deserved or accidental, and generously contribute to the relief of the parties, sometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever. The lowest bred of the English are capable of these and the like generous actions; but they often make an ostentatious display of their own merits, which diminishes their value. There is among the generality of the English of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above most other considerations. Riches, both in public and private, are often thought to compensate for the absence of almost every good quality. This offensive falling arises partly from the people being so much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain: and partly from the democratical part of their constitution, which makes the possession of property a qualification for the legislature, and for almost every other species of magistracy, government, honours, and distinctions.

An Englishman, of education and reading, is the most accomplished gentleman in the world; he is however shy and reserved in his communications. This unamiable coldness is so far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural constitution. Living learning and genius often meet not with their suitable regard even from the first-rate Englishmen: and it is not unusual for them to throw aside the best productions of literature, if they are not acquainted with the author. While the state distinction of Whig and Tory subsisted, the heads of each party affected to patronize men of literary abilities; but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate, and the very few who met with preferments in the state, might have earned them by a competent knowledge of business, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally possess. We scarcely have an instance, even in the munificent reign of Queen Anne, or of her predecessors, who owed so much to the press, of a man of genius, as such, being made easy in his circumstances. Mr Addison had about 300l. a year of the public money to assist him in his travels, and Mr. Pope, though a Roman catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like pension from Mr Craggs, the whig secretary of state; and it was remarked, that his Tory friend and companion the Earl of Oxford, when sole minister, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papist.

L 2
Indeed, a few men of distinguished literary abilities, as well as some without, have of late received pensions from the crown; but from the conduct of some of them it should seem, that state and party services have been expected in return.

The unevenness of the English in their conversation is very remarkable; sometimes it is delicate, sprightly, and replete with true wit; sometimes it is solid, ingenious, and argumentative; sometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon disgust, and all in the same person. In many of their convivial meetings they are very noisy, and their wit is often offensive, while the loudest are the most applauded. This is particularly apt to be the case in large companies; but in smaller and more select parties, all the pleasures of rational conversation, and agreeable society, are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that seems to be congenial to the English nation. Boys, before they can speak, discover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fists; a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the English, and is seconded by a strength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the English soldier an infinite superiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet screwed upon the musket. The English courage has likewise the property, under able commanders, of being equally passive as active. Their soldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger, but when they deliver it, it has a most dreadful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The English are not remarkable for inventions, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others, and in the mechanical arts they excel all nations in the world. The intense application which an Englishman gives to a favourite study is incredible, and, as it were, absorbs all his other ideas. This creates the numerous instances of mental absences that are to be found in the nation.

All that I have said concerning the English, is to be understood of them in general, as they are at present, or rather perhaps as they were; for it is not to be dissembled, that every day produces strong indications of great alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immense acquisitions of territory, as well as commercial property, in the East Indies, introduced a species of people among the English, who have become rich without industry, and, by diminishing the value of gold and silver, have created a new system of finance in the nation. Time alone can shew the event; hitherto the consequences seem to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a spirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the most fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal or surpass the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of business, which prevailed so lately as the accession of the present family to the crown, are now disregarded for tasteless extravagance of dress and equipage, and the most expensive amusements and diversions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even the customs of the English have, since the beginning of this century, undergone an almost total alteration. Their ancient hospitality subsists but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occasions. Many of their favourite diversions are now disused. Those remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and sometimes masquerades, in or near London; but concerts of music, and card and dancing assemblies, are common all over the kingdom. I have already mentioned stag and fox hunting, and horse races, of which many of the English are fond, even to infatuation. Somewhat however may be offered by way of apology for those diversions; the intense application which the English give to business, their sedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exercise; and some think that their excellent breed of horses is increased and improved by those amusements. The English are remarkably cool, both in losing and winning, at play; but the former is sometimes attended with acts of suicide. An Englishman will rather murder himself, than bring a sharper, who he knows has fleeced him, to condign punishment, even though warranted by law. Next to horse racing and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diversion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both classes assemble round the pit at one of these matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of this generous animal, every spectator being concerned in a bet, sometimes of high sums. The athletic diversion of
cricket is still kept up in the southern and western parts of England, and is sometimes practised by people of the highest rank. Many other pastimes are common in England, some of them of a very robust nature, such as cudgelling, wrestling, bowls, skittles, quoits, and prison-base: not to mention duck-hunting, foot and ass races, dancing, puppet-shows, May garlands, and, above all, ringing of bells, a species of music which the English boast they have brought into an art. The barbarous diversion of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England as the shews of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, though often practised; and all places of public diversions, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diversions, which are common in other countries, such as tennis, lives, billiards, cards, swimming, angling, rowing, coursing, and the like, are familiar to the English. Two kinds, and those highly laudable, are perhaps peculiar to them, and these are rowing and sailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged by his present majesty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The English are amazingly fond of skailing, in which, however, they are not very expert, but they are adventurous in it often to the danger and loss of their lives. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diversion, though without answering the purposes of the rich: for the farmers and country people destroy the game in their nests, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among so free a people as the English, has been considered in various lights.

DRESS.] In the dress of both sexes, before the present reign of George III., they followed the French: but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majesty. The English, at present, bid fair to be the dictators of dress to the French themselves, at least with regard to elegance, neatness, and richness of attire. People of quality and fortune, of both sexes, appear on high occasions, in cloth of gold and silver, the richest brocades, satins, silks, and velvets, both flowered and plain; and it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all these are discouraged. Some of these rich stuffs are said to be brought to as great perfection in England as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occasions are incredible, especially since the vast acquisitions of the English in the East Indies. The same nobility and persons of distinction, on ordinary occasions, dress like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean and plain, in the finest cloth and the best of linen. The full dress of a clergyman consists of his gown, cassock, scarf, beaver hat and rose, all of black; his undress is a dark grey frock, and plain linen. The physicians, the formality of whose dress, in large tie perukes, and swords, was formerly remarkable, if not ridiculous, begin now to dress like other gentlemen, and men of business. Few Englishmen, tradesmen, merchants, and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without some passion for the sports of the field, on which occasion they dress with remarkable propriety in a light frock, narrow-brimmed hat, &c. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; but, since the accession of his present majesty, the dresses at court; on particular occasions, are superb beyond description. Few even of the lowest tradesmen, on Sundays, carry about them less than 10l. in clothing, comprehending hat, wig, stockings, shoes, and linen, and even many beggars in the streets appear decent in their dress. In short, none but the most abandoned of both sexes are otherwise; and the appearance of an artisan or manufacturer in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his industry and morals.

RELIGION.] Eusebius, and other ancient writers, positively assert, that Christianity was first preached in South Britain by the apostles, and their disciples; and it is reasonable to suppose, that the success of the Romans opened a highway for the triumphs of the gospel of peace. It is certain also, that many of the soldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Christians; and as their legions were repeatedly sent over to England to extend as well as preserve their conquests, it is probable that thus Christianity was diffused among the natives. If any of the apostles visited this country, and our heathen ancestors, it was St Paul, whose zeal, diligence, and fortitude were abundant. But who was the first preacher, or the precise year and period, the want of records leave us at a loss; and all the traditions about Joseph of Arimathea and St Peter's preaching the gospel in Britain, and Simon Zeolotes suffering martyrdom here, are romantic fables, ex-
monkish legends. We have good authority to say, that about the year 150 a great number of persons professed the Christian faith here, and, according to Archbishop Usher, in the year 162 there was a school of learning to provide the British churches with proper teachers; and from that period it seems as if Christianity advanced its benign and salutary influences among the inhabitants in their several districts. It is unnecessary to repeat what has been said in the introduction respecting the rise and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. I shall only observe in this place, that John Wickliffe, an Englishman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III., has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted, those doctrines which had passed for certain during so many ages. The constitution of the church is episcopal, and it is governed by bishops, whose benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which every bishop has a seat and vote in the house of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold, but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The economy of the church of England has been accused for the inequality of its livings; some of them extending from three hundred to fourteen hundred a-year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman, especially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this seems not easily to be remedied, unless the dignified clergy would adopt and support the reforming scheme. The crown, as well as private persons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, such as deans, prebendaries, and the like, have generally large incomes; some of them exceeding in value those of bishoprics, for which reason the revenues of a rich deanery, or other living, is often annexed to a poor bishopric. At present, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a most flourishing situation, because the value of their tithes increases with the improvement of lands, which of late have been very great in England. The sovereigns of England, ever since the reign of Henry VIII., have been called, in public writs, the supreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no spiritual meaning; as it only denotes the regal power to prevent any ecclesiastical differences, or, in other words, to substitute the king in place of the pope before the Reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal economy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in ecclesiastical disputes, unless by preventing the convocation from sitting to agitate them, and are contented to give a sanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this description of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbishops, and twenty-four bishops, besides the bishop of Sodor and Man, who, not being possessed of an English barony, does not sit in the house of peers. The two archbishops are those of Canterbury and York, who are dignified with the

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* To the following list is subjoined the sum each see is charged in the king's books; as also their estimated real value at present.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canterbury</td>
<td>£2682 12 2-8,004</td>
<td>York</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BISHOPRICS.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London</td>
<td>2090 0 0-6,200</td>
<td>Chichester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durham</td>
<td>1821 1 3-5,700</td>
<td>St Asaph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Winchester</td>
<td>3124 12 8-7,400</td>
<td>Salisbury</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>These three bishoprics take precedence of all others in England; and the others according to the seniority of their consecrations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ely</td>
<td>2134 18 6-4,000</td>
<td>Lincoln</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bath and Wells</td>
<td>533 1 3-2,200</td>
<td>Landaff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hereford</td>
<td>168 11 0-3,000</td>
<td>Bristol</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rochester</td>
<td>255 4 0-2,400</td>
<td>Carlisle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litchfield and</td>
<td>550 17 3-2,600</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coventry</td>
<td>420 1 8-2,700</td>
<td>Peterborough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chester</td>
<td>920 13 2-5,100</td>
<td>Oxford</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worcester</td>
<td></td>
<td>St David's</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
address of Your Grace. The former is the first peer of the realm, as well as metropo-
titan of the English church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes
and officers of state. He is enabled to hold ecclesiastical courts upon all affairs that
were formerly cognisable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God,
or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege consequently of granting, in certain
cases, licenses and dispensations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dy-
ing is worth upwards of five pounds. Besides his own diocese, he has under him the
bishops of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Litchfield and Coventry,
Hereford, Worcester, Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Norwich, Glou-
cester, Oxford, Peterborough, Bristol; and, in Wales, St David's Landaff, St Asaph,
and Bangor.

The archbishop of Canterbury has, by the constitution and laws of England, such
extensive powers, that, ever since the death of Archbishop Laud (whose character will
be hereafter given), the government of England has prudently thought proper to raise
to that dignity men of very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of
considerable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent
effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and consequently of the
state.

The archbishop of York takes place of all dukes not of the blood-royal, and of all
officers of state, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, besides his own
diocese, the bishoprics of Durham, Carlisle, Chester, and Sodor and Man. In North-
umberland, he has the power of a palatine, and jurisdiction in all criminal proceedings.
The bishops are addressed by the appellation of Your Lordship, styled "right
" reverend Fathers in God," and take precedence of all temporal barons. They have
all the privileges of peers; and the bishoprics of London, Winchester, Durham, Salis-
bury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no additional revenues to support their prelates in the
rank of noblemen. English bishops are to examine and ordain priests and deacons, to
consecrate churches and burying-places, and to administer the rite of confirmation.
Their jurisdiction relates to the probate of wills; to grant-administration of goods to
such as die intestate; to take care of perishable goods when no one will administer; to
collate to benefices; to grant institutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church;
and to visit their own dioceses once in three years.

Deans and prebendaries of cathedrals have been already mentioned; but it would per-
haps be difficult to assign their utility in the church, further than to add to the pomp of
worship, and to make provision for clergymen of eminence and merit; but interest often
prevails over merit in the appointment. England contains about sixty archdeacons,
whose office is to visit the churches twice or thrice every year; but their offices are less
livelihood than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly
styled arch-presbyters, who signify the bishop's pleasure to his clergy, the lower class of
which consists of priests and deacons.

The ecclesiastical government of England is, properly speaking, lodged in the con-
vocation, which is a national representative body or synod, and answers pretty nearly
to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the same time with eve-
ry parliament; and their business is to consider of the state of the church, and to call
those to an account who have advanced new opinions inconsistent with the doctrines of
the church of England. Some clergymen of an intolerant and persecuting spirit, during
the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I., raised the power of
the convocation to a height, that was inconsistent with the principles of religious tolera-
tion, and indeed of civil liberty; so that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative
of calling the members together, and of dissolving them; and, ever since, they have not
been permitted to sit for a time sufficient to enter into any discussions.

The court of arches is the most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury; and
all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to
this. The processes run in the name of the judge, who is called dean of the arches;
and the advocates who plead in this court must be doctors of the civil law. The court
of audience has the same authority with this, to which the archbishop's chancery was
formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and admini-
The courts of peculiars, relating to certain parishes, have a jurisdiction among themselves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the bishop's courts. The see of Canterbury has no less than fifteen of these peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its consisting of commissioners delegated or appointed by the royal commission; but it is no standing court. Every bishop has also a court of his own, called the consistory court. Every archdeacon has likewise his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is now, beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character; and in England no religious sect is prevented from worshipping God in that manner which their consciences approve. Some severe laws were, indeed, lately in force against those protestant dissenters who did not assent to the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but these laws were not executed; and in 1779 religious liberty received a considerable augmentation, by an act which was then passed for granting a legal toleration to dissenting ministers and schoolmasters, without their subscribing any of the articles of the church of England. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII., it is certain that episcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil wars under Charles I. to the restoration of his son, has ever since prevailed in England. The wisdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conspicuous, in discouraging all religious persecution and intolerance; and if religious sectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the same principle that civil licentiousness has prevailed—that is, a tenderness in matters that can affect either conscience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards poverty in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI., and even so late as that of Elizabeth, occasioned an interposition of the civil power for a further reformation. Thence arose the puritanism, so called from their maintaining a singular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and some of them good patriots. Their descendents are the modern presbyterians, who retain the same character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological sentiments have undergone a considerable change. Their doctrine, like that of the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan instituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of episcopacy, and to vesting the government of the church in a parity of presbyters. But the modern English presbyterians, in their ideas of church government, differ very little from the independents, or congregationalists, who are so called from holding the independency of congregational churches, without any respect to doctrine; and, in this sense, almost all the dissenters in England are now become independents. As to points of doctrine, the presbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of their ministers have greatly distinguished themselves by their learning and abilities; and some of their writings are held in high estimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the established church. The same may be said of some of the independent and baptist ministers. The independents are generally Calvinists. The baptists do not believe that infants are proper subjects of baptism; and in the baptism of adults they practise immersion into water. They are divided into two classes, which are styled general baptists and particular baptists. The general baptists are Arminians, and the particular baptists are Calvinists. The moderate clergy of the church of England treat the protestant dissenters with affection and friendship; and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of bishops, are great points in their religion, they consider their differences with the presbyterians, and even with the baptists, as not being very material to salvation; nor indeed do many of the established church think that they are strictly and conscientiously bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to subscribe before they can enter into holy-orders. Several of them have contended, in their writings, that all subscriptions to religious systems are repugnant to the spirit of Christianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines, which were formerly generally considered as too sacred to be opposed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worship have been established, in which that doctrine has been openly renounced; and several clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and assigned their disbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.
The Methodists, are a sect of a late institution, of which the late Mr George Whitfield and Mr John Wesley are considered as the founders. They profess great fervour and devotion. Their teacher, Mr Whitfield, thought that the form of ecclesiastical worship, and prayers, whether taken from a common-prayer book or poured forth extempore, were matters of indifference: he therefore made use of both these methods. His followers are rigid observers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profess themselves to be Calvinists. Mr Whitfield died in the year 1770; but the places of worship, erected by him near London, are still frequented by persons of the same principles; and they profess a great respect for his memory. Mr Wesley and his followers separated from Mr Whitfield in consequence of their rejection of the Calvinistic doctrine of predestination. He erected a very large place of public worship near Moorfields, and had under him a considerable number of subordinate preachers, who submitted to their leader very implicitly, propagated his opinions, and made proselytes throughout the kingdom with great industry. After a very long life, spent in the most strenuous endeavours to do good, and having been blest in reforming the morals of thousands of the lower ranks of society, he died in 1791.

There are also a variety of subordinate sects (some of whom are from Scotland, particularly the Sandemanians) who have their separate followers, but very few at London and other places in England.

Of late years a sect called Swedenborgians has arisen, who derive their name from baron Swedenborg, a native of Sweden, whose reveries they have adopted. They resolve the scriptures almost entirely into allegory, and deal in a mysticism not easily explained.

The Quakers are a religious sect which took its rise about the middle of the 17th century. They believe in the immediate influence of the Divine Spirit, and reject all forms in worship, even the sacraments of Baptism and the Lord's Supper. They declare against oaths and war, abiding literally by Christ's positive injunction, “Swear not at all.” They disuse the names of the months and days of the week, as being given in honour of the false gods of the heathens; and the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen from motives of adulation. They declare it their decided judgment that it is contrary to the Gospel to sue each other at law; and they enjoin all to end their differences by speedy and impartial arbitration, according to rules laid down. If any refuse to adopt this mode, or, having adopted it, to submit to the award, it is the rule of the society that such be disowned.

It is well known that William Penn, one of this society, founded the province of Pennsylvania, and introduced therein a plan of civil and religious liberty, particularly of the latter, at that time unexampled. The government of the province was at first, and for many years, chiefly in the hands of the quakers; but as persons of other persuasions increased, and became partakers of power, they grew uneasy at the pacific plan of the quakers; and at length succeeding to establish such modes of defence for their country as did not accord with the principles of the latter, these gradually withdrew themselves from active employments in the state. For some time previous to the revolution, few of them were in any other station than that of private citizens; and during its progress, their refusing to arm exposed them to much suffering, by distresses levied on them, in order to procure their quota in support of the war.

Many families in England still profess the Roman Catholic religion, and its exercise is under very mild and gentle restrictions. Though the penal laws against papists in England appear at first to be severe, yet they are either not executed, or with so much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himself under few hardships. Legal evasions are found out for the double taxes upon their landed property, and as they are subject to none of the expenses and troubles (unless voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the English papists are in general in good circumstances as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws against them have also lately been repealed, much to the satisfaction of all liberal minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raised against the measure by ignorance and bigotry. The papists now seem to be convinced that a change of government, instead of bettering would hurt their situation, because it would increase the jealously of the Legislature,
which must undoubtedly expose them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties. This sensible consideration has of late made the Roman catholics to appear as dutiful and zealous subjects as any his majesty has. Scarcely any English papists, excepting those who were bred, or had served abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745, and though those at home were most carefully observed, few or none of them were found guilty of disloyal practices.

As England has been famous for the variety of its religious sects, so it has also for its Free thinkers; but that term has been applied in very different senses. It has sometimes been used to denote opposers of religion in general, and in particular revealed religion; but it has also been applied to those who have been far from disbelieving Christianity, and who have only opposed some of those doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceived to be no part of the original Christian system. As to those who are truly deists or infidels, there is abundant reason to believe, that this class of men is much more numerous in some popish countries than in England. Christianity is so much obscured and disfigured by the fopperies and superstitions of the Romish church, that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced against it, when they see it in so disadvantageous a form; and this appears to be in fact very much the case abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of seeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have less cause to be prejudiced against it; and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of the evidence of its divine origin. Nor does it appear, that the writings of the Deists against Christianity have been of any real disservice to it. On the contrary, they have caused the arguments in its favour to be used with greater force and clearness, and have been the means of producing such defences of it, as all the acuteness of modern infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

Language.] The English language is known to be a compound of almost every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon, however, predominates: and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. Numerous words, chiefly scientific or technical, have been introduced from the Greek and Latin. To describe it abstractedly, would be superfluous to an English reader, but relatively, it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expressive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spanish, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is however subject to some considerable provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties; but this chiefly affects the lowest of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred persons, there is little difference in their pronunciation all over the kingdom. People of fortune and education in England, of both sexes, also commonly either speak or understand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spanish; but it has been observed, that foreign nations have great difficulty in understanding the few English who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reason why that language is much disused in England, even by the learned professions.

Learning and learned men.] England may be looked upon as another word for the seat of learning and the muses. Her great Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbarism and ignorance overspread the rest of Europe: nor has there since his time been wanting a continual succession of learned men, who have distinguished themselves by their writings or studies. These are so numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume.

The English institutions, for the benefit of study, partake of the character of their learning. They are solid and substantial, and provide for the ease, the disencumberance, the peace, the plenty, and the convenience, of its professors; witness the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, institutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were respected even amidst the barbarous rage of civil war. The industrious Leland, who was himself a moving library, was the first who published a short collection of the lives and characters of those learned persons who preceded the reign of his master Henry VIII., among whom he has inserted several of the blood royal of both
In speaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable if I should omit the mention of that prodigy of learning, and natural philosophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in science to the great Bacon lord Verulam, as the latter was to Sir Isaac Newton. Among the other curious works written by this illustrious man, we find treatises upon grammar, mathematics, physics, the flux and reflux of the British sea, optics, geography, astronomy, chronology, chemistry, logic, metaphysics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year 1294. The honourable Mr Walpole has preserved the memory of some noble and royal English authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muses, and to this work I must refer. Since the Reformation, England resembles a galaxy of literature*; and it is but doing justice to the memory of Cardinal Wolsey, though otherwise a dangerous and profligate minister, to acknowledge, that both his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of classical learning in England. As many of the English clergy had different sentiments in religious matters at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to settle in England. Edward VI. during his short life, did a great deal for the encouragement of these foreigners, and showed dispositions for cultivating the most useful parts of learning had he lived. Learning, as well as liberty, suffered an almost total eclipse in England, during the bloody bigoted reign of Queen Mary. Elizabeth her sister, was herself a learned princess. She advanced many persons of consummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and state; but she seems to have considered their literary accomplishments to have been only secondary to their civil. In this she showed herself a great politician, but she would have been a more amiable queen had she raised genius from obscurity: for though she was no stranger to Spenser’s muse, she suffered herself to be so much imposed upon by a tasteless minister, that the poet languished to death in obscurity. Though she tasted the beauties of the divine Shakespeare, yet we know not that they were distinguished by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parsimony was nobly supplied by her favourite the Earl of Essex, the politest scholar of his age, and his friend the Earl of Southampton, who were liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Casaubon, and other foreign authors of distinction, even of different principles. He was himself no great author, but his example had a considerable effect upon his subjects; for in his reign were formed those great masters of polemic divinity, whose works are almost inexhaustible mines of knowledge. Nor must it be forgotten, that the second Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created Viscount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewise the patron of Camden and other historians, as well as antiquaries, whose works are to this day standards in those studies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that English learning is under obligations to James I., though, as he had a very pedantic taste himself, he was the means of diffusing a similar taste among his subjects.

His son Charles I. had a taste for the polite arts, especially sculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artists; so that, had it not been for civil wars, he would probably have covered his court and capital into a second Athens; and the collections he made for that purpose, considering his pecuniary difficulties, were stupendous. His favourite, the Duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that respect, and laid out the amazing sum of 400,000l. upon his cabinet of painting and curiosities.

The Earl of Arundel was, however, the great Maccenas of that age, and, by the immense acquisition he made of antiquities, especially his famous marble inscriptions, he

* See the Biographia Britannica.
may stand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greatest of the Medicean princes. Charles and his court had little or no relish for poetry; but such was his generosity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increased the salary of his poet-laureat, the famous Ben Johnson, from 100 marks to 100l. per annum, and a large of Spanish wine; which salary is continued to this day.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts suffered indeed an eclipse, during the time of the civil wars, and the succeeding interregnum. Many very learned men, however, found their situations under Cromwell, though he was no stranger to their political sentiments, so easy, that they followed their studies, to the vast benefit of every branch of learning; and many works of vast literary merit appeared even in those times of distraction. Usher, Walton, Willes, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmolested and even favoured by that usurper: and he would also have filled the universities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of safety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly distinguished by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, especially by the institution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of those studies, and, though irreligious himself, England never abounded more with learning and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting, and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable Paradise Lost, by Milton, was published in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit; though it was far from being disregarded so much as has been commonly apprehended. The reign of Charles II. notwithstanding the bad taste of his court in several of the polite arts, by some is reckoned the Augustan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hook, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotson, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherly, and Otway. The pulpit assumed more majesty, a better style, and truer energy, than it had ever known before. Classic literature recovered many of its native graces; and although England could not under him boast of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet Sir Christopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than had ever been known before in architecture. Nor was Sir Christopher Wren merely distinguished by his skill as an architect. His knowledge was very extensive, and his discoveries in philosophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the new established Royal Society. Some excellent English painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) also flourished in this reign.

That of James II., though he likewise had a taste for the fine arts, is chiefly distinguished in the province of literature by those compositions that were published by the English divines against popery, and which, for strength of reasoning, and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular esteem for the latter, as he had also for Tillotson and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flourished, however in his reign, merely by the excellency of the soil in which it had been planted.

The most uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auspices of queen Anne, and which put her court at least on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its most splendid days. Many of the great men, who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William were still alive, and in the full exercise of their faculties, when a new race sprung up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, *Mr Horace Walpole says, that a variety of knowledge proclaims the universality, a multiplicity of works the abundance, and St Paul's the greatness, of Sir Christopher's genius. So many great architects as were employed on St Peter's have not left, upon the whole, a more perfect edifice than this work of a single mind. The noblest temple, the largest palace, and the most sumptuous hospital, in such a kingdom as Britain, are all the works of the same hand. He restored London, and recorded its fall. He built about fifty parish churches, and designed the monument.
ford Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both in verse and prose, need but to be mentioned to be admired; and the English were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philosophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political disputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in speculative matters, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of true and valuable knowledge.

The ministers of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and some of them were no mean proficients themselves. George II. was himself no Maecenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of bishops was never known to be so well provided with able prelates as it was in the early years of his reign; a full proof that his nobility and ministers were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally supplied the coldness of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr Pelham was considered as being first minister, this screen between government and literature was in a great measure removed, and men of genius began then to taste the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progress has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been instituted, some very able artists have arisen, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and sculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a spirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general. But notwithstanding these favourable circumstances, the fine arts have been far from meeting with that public patronage to which they have so just a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with statues. The sculptors meet with little employment, and is the historical painter much patronized. Though the British artists of the present age have proved that their genius for the fine arts is equal to those of any other nation.

Besides learning, and the fine arts in general, the English excel in what are called the learned professions.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, chemistry, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the English. The same may be said of music and theatrical exhibitions, and even agriculture is now reduced in England to a science.

Universities. I have already mentioned the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the seminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, and some have ventured to say, than all other literary institutions. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which in splendour and architecture rival the most superb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners, who visit them, conceive of literary societies. So respectable are they in their foundations, that each university sends two members to the British parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed those of many other universities.

In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls; the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. This university is of great antiquity: it is supposed to have been a considerable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden says, that "wise antiquity did, even in the British age, consecrate this place to the Muses." It is said to have been styled an university before the time of king Alfred; and the best historians admit, that this most excellent prince was only a restorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford; one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar. The present colleges are, however, of a more recent date, none being older than the 13th century. The number of officers, fellows, and students, maintained at present by this university, is about 1000; and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge, usually about 2000.

The university of Cambridge consists of twelve colleges, and four halls; but though they are distinguished by different names, the privileges of the colleges and halls are
every respect the same. The number of fellows at this university is 400, that of scholars 666, with 236 officers and servants of various kinds. All these are maintained on the foundation. They are not, however, all the students here: there are others called pensioners; the greater and the less. The greater pensioners are sons of the nobility, and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners, because, though they are scholars, they dine with the fellows. The lesser pensioners dine with the scholars who are on the foundation, but live at their own expense. There are also a considerable number of poor scholars, called sizars, who wait upon the fellows and scholars, and pensioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained; but the number of pensioners and sizars cannot be ascertained with any accuracy, as it is in a state of perpetual fluctuation.

The senate house at Cambridge is a most elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is said to have cost sixteen thousand pounds. Trinity-college library is also a very magnificent structure; and in Corpus Christi college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuscripts, which were preserved at the dissolution of the monasteries, and given to this college by Archbishop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The antiquities of England are either British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, or Anglo-Norman; but these, excepting the Romans, throw no great light upon ancient history. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, which probably were places of worship in the times of the Druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr Stukely, and others, described as a regular circular structure. The body of the work consists of two circles and ovals, which are thus composed: The upright stones are placed at three feet and a half distance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart stones, with tenons fitted to the mortoises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due position. Some of these stones are vastly large, measuring two yards in breadth, one in thickness, and above seven in height; others are less in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chisel, and sometimes tapered; but the transones, or over-thwart stones, are quite plain. The outside circle is near 180 feet in diameter, between which and the next circle there is a walk of 300 feet in circumference, which has a surprising and awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the same kind as that of Stonehenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland, and the isles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and passing through Kent to London, from thence to St Alban's, Dunstable, Stratford, Towchester, Littleburn, St Gilbert's Hill near Shrewsbury, then by Stratton, and so through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris, called Hermon-Street, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it from Pontefract to Doncaster strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermon-street. There would, however, he no end of describing the vestiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which serve as foundations to our highways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated English antiquary, had formed a noble plan for describing those which pass through Sussex and Surrey towards London; but the civil war breaking out put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England; one particularly very little defaced, near Dorchester in Dorsetshire, where also is a Roman amphitheatre. Their situations are generally so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so complete, that there is some reason to believe that they were the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and tessellated pavements that have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magistrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewise been found in England, and perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and castles are
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blended with those of a later date; and it is difficult for the most expert architect to pronounce that some halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, fibulae, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the pretenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland, beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Firth, being about 80 miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone-forts, and turrets at proper distances, so that each might have a speedy communication with the other, and it was attended all along by a deep ditch or vallum to the north, and a military highway to the south.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly in ecclesiastical edifices, and places of strength. At Winchester is shewn the round table of king Arthur, with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been disputed by Camden, and later writers, perhaps with reason; but if it be not British, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Winchester served as the burying-place of several Saxon kings, whose bones were collected together by bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity present themselves all over the kingdom, though they are often not to be discerned from the Norman; and the British Museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor or witness to his respective cross. The Danish erections in England are hardly discernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences, but their forts are square.

All England is full of Anglo-Norman monuments, which I choose to call so; because, though the princes under whom they were raised were of Norman original, yet the expense was defrayed by Englishmen, with English money. York-minster and Westminster-hall and abbey are perhaps the finest specimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals and old churches in the kingdom are more or less in the same taste, if we except St Paul's; in short, those erections are so common, that they scarcely deserve the name of curiosities. It is uncertain whether the artificial excavations found in some parts of England, are British, Saxon, or Norman. That under the old castle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and seems to have been designed for secreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invasion. It contains an oblong square hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the same rock, for sitting upon; and tradition says, that it was the room in which the barons of England met during the wars with king John. The rock itself is soft, and very practicable; but it is hard to say where the excavation, which is continued in a square passage, about six feet high, and four feet wide, terminates, because the work is fallen in, in some places.

The natural curiosities of England are so various, that I can touch upon them only in general, as there is no end in describing the several medicinal waters and springs which are to be found in every part of the country.

The Bath waters are famous through all the world, both for drinking and bathing. Spas of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich in Surry; and at Acton and Islington in Middlesex. There are also many remarkable springs, whereof some are impregnated either with salt, as that at Droitwich in Worcestershire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicestershire; and a dropping well in the West Riding of Yorkshire. And finally, some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, and Laywell near Torbay, whose waters rise and fall several times in an hour. To these we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's castle in Herefordshire, commonly called Bonewell, which is generally full of small bones, like those of frogs or fish, though often cleared out. At Anecliff, near Wigan
in Lancashire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any smell; yet there is so strong a vapour of sulphur issuing out with the stream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasts several hours, and emits a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itself will not burn when taken out of the well.

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is said to be continually mouldering away, but never diminishes. The Eildon Hole is about four miles from the same place; this is a chasm in the side of a mountain, near seven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the last 80 were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole, near Buxton, for several paces, is very low, but soon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inside of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much short of what some have asserted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimension; a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its sounding stream, re-echoed on all sides, very much to the astonishment of all who visit this vast concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the sides, have an amusing effect; for they not only reflect numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in several places into various forms, which, with the help of a strong imagination, may pass for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder at Castleton, which is from its hideousness named the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who seem in a great measure to subsist by guiding strangers into the cavern, which is crossed by four streams of water, and then is thought impassable. The vault in several places makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful, by being chequered with various coloured stones.

Some spots of England are said to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkshire are found certain stones, resembling the folds and wreaths of a serpent; also other stones of several sizes, and so exactly round, as if artificially made for cannon-balls, which being broken, do commonly contain the form and likeness of serpents wreathed in circles, but generally without heads.

Cities, chief towns, edifices public and private. London, the metropolis of the British empire, and perhaps the most populous and wealthy city in the world, appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero; but by whom, is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and soon after became the capital of the island. It was first walled round, with hewn stones and British bricks, by Constantine the Great; and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 214. He also established a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London, in the extensive sense of the name, including Westminster, Southwark, and part of Middlesex, is a city of surprising extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the most extensive trade. This city, when considered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was, the seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade, it has an intimate connexion with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts send their commodities, from whence they are again sent back into every town in the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed; and from hence arises the circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a prosperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and the most distant members. Merchants

† This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals which has been since dug from under this well, at which time the uncommon warmth ceased.
are here as rich as noblemen—witness their large and numerous loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen make such a noble and elegant appearance, or are better stocked.

It is situated on the banks of the Thames, a river which, though not the largest, is the richest and most commodious for commerce of any in the world; it being continually filled with fleets sailing to or from the most distant climates; and its banks, from London-bridge to Blackwall, are almost one continued great magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ships for the use of the merchants, beside the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters, and the king's yards, down the river, for the building of men of war. As this city is about 60 miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of this noble river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moist vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water-side, and, extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from east to west, in a kind of amphitheatrical towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas and populous villages, the country seats of gentlemen and tradesmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of fresh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of business. The regard paid by the Legislature to the property of the subject has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extension.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. However, its length from east to west is generally allowed to be above seven miles, from Hyde-park Corner to Poplar; and its breadth in some places three, in others two, and in others, again, not much above half a mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almost 18 miles; or, according to a modern measurement, the extent of continued and still increasing buildings is 35 miles, 2 furlongs, and 39 roods. But it is much easier to form an idea of the large extent of a city so irregularly built, by the number of the people, amounting, by the returns under the late population act, to 885,577; and from the number of edifices, devoted to the service of religion.

Of these, besides St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Westminster, here are 102 parish churches, and 69 chapels, of the established religion; 21 French protestant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c.; 26 independent meetings; 34 presbyterian meetings; 20 baptist meetings; 19 popish chapels, and meeting-houses for the use of foreign ambassadors, and people of various sects; and three Jews' synagogues. So that there are 805 places devoted to religious worship, in the compass of this vast pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-parishes usually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodist tabernacles.

There are also in and near this city 100 almshouses; about 20 hospitals and infirmaries; 3 colleges; 10 public prisons; 15 flesh-markets; 1 market for live cattle; 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c.; 15 inns of court; 37 public squares, besides those within single buildings, as the Temple, &c.; 3 bridges; 19 halls for companies; 8 public schools, called free-schools; and 131 charity schools, which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns; 447 taverns; 551 coffee-houses; 5975 ale-houses; 1200 hackney-coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 streets, lanes, courts, and alleys; and 130,000 dwelling-houses, containing, as has been already observed, nearly 900,000 inhabitants, who, according to calculations made so many years ago that they may be considered as low in the present enlarged state of this great city, consume annually 101,000 black cattle; 710,000 sheep; 195,000 calves; 240,000 swine and pigs; 1,172,500 barrels of strong beer; 3000 tuns of foreign wines; and eleven millions of gallons of rum, brandy, and other distilled liquors; with 500,000 chaldrons of coals for fuel.

London-bridge was first built of stone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which, in the course of time, gave rise to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs: from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly since the year 1756, when the houses were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The passage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each side for foot passengers. It crosses the Thames where it
is 915 feet broad, and has 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each; but the centre one is considerably larger.

Westminster-bridge is reckoned one of the most complete and elegant structures of the kind known in the world. It is built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge. On each side is a fine balustrade of stone, with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet; having on each side a fine foot-way for passengers. It consists of 14 piers, and 13 large and two small arches, all semicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the 13 great ones are each 52 feet. This magnificent structure was begun in 1738, and finished 1750, at the expense of 389,000l. defrayed by the parliament.

Blackfriars-bridge is not inferior to that of Westminster, either in magnificence or workmanship, but the situation of the ground on the two shores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many persons even prefer it to Westminster-bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expence of 152,840l.

The cathedral of St Paul is the most capacious, magnificent, and regular protestant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland stone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a cross, after the model of St Peter's at Rome, to which, in some respects, it is superior. St Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Christopher Wren, and, undoubtedly, the only work of the same magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finished the building 37 years after he himself laid the first stone. It occupies six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St Peter's. The expense of building, or rather rebuilding it, after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million sterling.

Westminster-abbey, or the collegiate church of Westminster, is a venerable pile of building in the Gothic taste. It was first built by Edward the Confessor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the east end of it. This is the repository of the deceased British kings and nobility; and here are also monuments erected to the memory of many great and illustrious personages, command-ers by sea and land, philosophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000l. a-year out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inside of the church of St Stephen, Walbrook, is admired for its lightness and elegance, and does honour to the memory of Sir Christopher Wren. The same may be said of the steeples of St Mary's-le-Bow, and St Bride's, which are supposed to be the most complete in their kind of any in Europe. The simplicity of the portico in Covent-garden is worthy the purest ages of ancient architecture. That of St Martin's in the Fields would be noble and striking, could it be seen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taste, and even some of the chapels have gracefulness and proportion to recommend them. The banqueting-house at Whitehall is but a very small part of a noble palace designed by Inigo Jones, for the royal residence; and, as it now stands, under all its disadvantages, its symmetry and ornaments are in the highest style and execution of architecture.

Westminster-hall, though on the outside it makes no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is said to be the largest room in the world the roof of which is not supported by pillars; it being 230 feet long, and 70 broad. The roof is the finest of its kind. Here are held the coronation-feasts of our kings and queens; also the courts of chancery, king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer.

The Monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being destroyed by fire, is worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obelisks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a staircase in the middle to ascend to the balcony, whence there are other steps to the top, which is fashioned like an urn, with a flame issuing from it. On the base of the monument, next the street, the destruction of the city, and the relief given to the sufferers by
Charles II. and his brother, are eminently represented in bas-relief. The north
and south sides of the base have each a Latin inscription, the one describing its dreadful
desolation, and the other its splendid resurrection; and on the east side is an inscription,
stating when the pillar was begun and finished. The charge of erecting this monument,
which was begun by Sir Christopher Wren in 1671, and finished by him in 1677, am-
mounted to upwards of £13,000.

The Royal Exchange is a large and noble building, and is said to have cost above
80,000l.

The Terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open
one of the finest prospects in the world.

We might here give a description of the Tower, Bank of England, the new Tre-
sury, the Admiralty office, and the Horse-guards at Whitehall, the Mansion-house, or
house of the lord-mayor, the Custom-house, Excise office, India-house, and a vast num-
ber of other public buildings; beside the magnificent edifices raised by our nobility; as
lord Spencer’s house, Marlborough house, and Buckingham house, in St James’s park;
the earl of Chesterfield’s house near Hyde park; the duke of Devonshire’s, and the late
earl of Bath’s in Piccadilly; the marquis of Lansdowne’s in Berkeley square; Northum-
berland-house in the Strand; Montague-house (the British Museum*), in Bloomsbury;
Carlton-house, the residence of his royal highness the prince of Wales, in Pall-Mall;
Foley-house, and Burlington-house; with a number of others of the nobility and gentry:
but these would be sufficient to fill a large volume.

This great and populous city is supplied with abundance of fresh water, from the
Thames and the New River, which is not only of inconceivable service to every family,
but, by means of fire-plugs every where dispersed, the keys of which are deposited with
the parish-officers, the city is in a great measure secured from the spreading of fire.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London (which, like most other great cities, had
arisen from small beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy; which
latter misfortune, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the
unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and, joined with
other circumstances, such as the want of water, rendered the city seldom free from pes-
tiferous contagion. The fire, which consumed the greatest part of the city, dreadful as
it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of consequences which made ample
amends for the losses sustained by individuals: a new city arose on the ruins of the old;
but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it by no
means had the character of magnificence or elegance, in many particulars; and it is ever
to be lamented that the magnificent, elegant, and useful plan of the great Sir Christo-
pher Wren, was totally disregarded and sacrificed to the mean and selfish views of pri-
ivate property.

The plan of London, in its present state, will in many instances appear, to very mo-
derate judges, to be as injudicious a disposition as can easily be conceived for a city of
extensive commerce, on the border of so noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and
quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient; and the want of regularity
and uniformity in the streets of the city of London, and the mean avenues to many
parts of it, are also circumstances that greatly lessen the grandeur of its appearance.
Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewise thrust up in corners, in
such a manner as might tempt foreigners to believe that they were designed to be con-
cealed. The improvements of the city of London for some years past have however

* Sir Hans Sloane, Bart. (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the British
Museum; for its being established by parliament was only in consequence of his leaving, by will, his
noble collection of natural history, his large library, and his numerous curiosities, which cost him 50,000l.
to the use of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000l. to his executors. To this
collection were added the Cottonian library; the Harleian manuscripts, collected by the Oxford
family, and purchased likewise by the parliament; and a collection of books given by the late Major Edwards.
His late majesty, in consideration of its great usefulness, was graciously pleased to add thereto the royal
libraries of books and manuscripts collected by the several kings of England.
been very great; and the new streets, which are numerous, are spacious, and built with great regularity and elegance.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the noblest river in Europe, was a chain of wretched, ruinous houses, known by the name of Durham-yard, the Savoy, and Somerset-house. The first, being private property, engaged the notice of the ingenious Adams, who opened the way to a piece of scenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On the site of Durham-yard was raised, upon arches, the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting prospect, the utility of its wharfs, and its subterraneous apartments, answering a variety of purposes of general benefit. Contiguous to the Adelphi stands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuisance; and, adjoining to the Savoy, towards the Temple, stood Somerset-house, where, being the property of government also, a pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apartments appropriated for the use of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of painting and sculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Moorfields, long a waste and mean part of the town, has become the site of a square, called Finsbury-square, more regular and elegant than many of those at the west end of the metropolis. The narrow and inconvenient passage of Snow-hill has been opened by a spacious street of lofty and elegant houses. A considerable improvement of the same nature is likewise making at Temple-bar, though the gate is still suffered to remain. Near Bedford-square, which is likewise of recent date, the new streets and squares now building on the estate of the duke of Bedford, and which were planned and begun by the late duke, are on a most extensive and sumptuous scale. A spirit of improvement, indeed, seems universal among all degrees of people.

The roads leading to this great metropolis are not only lighted by lamps regularly placed on each side at short distances, but are rendered more secure by watchmen stationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than those lights, when viewed at a distance, especially where the roads run across; and even the principal streets, such as Pall-Mall, New Bond-street, Oxford-street, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

Foreigners are surprised that the monarch of the richest nation in Europe should be so indifferently lodged in his capital. The palace of St James is commodious, but has the air of a conven; and that of Kensington, which was purchased from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens. Other houses, though belonging to the king, are far from deserving the name of royal.

Windsor-castle is the only fabric that merits the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding situation, which, with the form of its construction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton-court was the favourite residence of king William. It is built in the Dutch taste, and has some good apartments, and, like Windsor, is near the Thames. Both these palaces have some good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I., and dissipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which, for design and expression, are reckoned the master-pieces of painting, have by his present majesty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton-court, to the Queen's palace, formerly Buckingham house in St James's park.

Next to the Royal palaces, if not superior in magnificence and expensive decorations, are many private seats in the neighbourhood of London, and in every part of the kingdom, in which the amazing opulence of the English nation shines forth in its fullest point of view. In these also the princely fortunes of the nobility are made subservient to the finest classical taste; witness the seats of the marquis of Buckingham and earl Pembroke. At the seat of the latter, more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the possession of, perhaps, any other subject.

The houses of the English nobility and gentry are peculiarly distinguished by the appropriate adaptation of their parts, the richness and elegance of their furniture, and the admirable preservation in which the whole is kept; as well by their hortulan and rural decorations, vistas, opening landscapes, temples;—all the result of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.
It cannot be expected that we should here enter into a particular detail of all the cities and towns of England, which would far exceed the limits of this work; we shall therefore only mention some of the most considerable.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleasantly situated on the river Ouse. It is surrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates and five posterns. Here are seventeen parish-churches, and a very noble cathedral, or minster—it being one of the finest Gothic buildings in England. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave, which is larger than any in Christendom, except that of St Peter’s church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St Paul’s cathedral at London. At the west end are two towers, connected and supported by an arch which forms the west entrance, and is reckoned the largest Gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted, and the front of the choir is adorned with statues of all the kings of England, from William the Norman to Henry VI.; and there are thirty-two stalls, all of fine marble, with pillars, each consisting of one piece of alabaster. Here is also a very neat Gothic chapter-house. Near the cathedral is the Assembly-house, which is a noble structure, and which was designed by the late earl of Burlington. The city has a stone bridge of five arches over the river Ouse. It contains above 16,000 inhabitants.

Bristol is reckoned the second city in the British dominions, for trade, wealth, and the number of its inhabitants. It stands upon the north and south side of the river Avon; and the two parts of the city are connected by a stone bridge. The city is not well built; but, according to the late enumeration, contains 10,896 houses, and 63,645 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and eighteen parish churches, besides seven or eight other places of worship. On the north side of a large square, called Queen’s-square, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equestrian statue of William the Third, there is a custom-house, with a quay half a mile in length, said to be one of the most commodious in England, for shipping and landing of merchants’ goods. The Exchange, where the merchants and traders meet, is all of freestone, and is one of the best of its kind in Europe.

Liverpool, situate at the mouth of the river Mersey, carries on an extensive traffic, and in population exceeds Bristol; containing, in 1801, 77,653 inhabitants. Its naturally advantageous situation has been considerably improved by art; particularly by the construction of three basins or wet-docks, capable of containing near 400 ships of 500 tons in perfect security.

The city of Exeter was for some time the seat of the West-Saxon kings; and the walls, which at this time enclose it, were built by king Athelstan, who encompassed it also with a ditch. It is one of the first cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent, and the number of its inhabitants. It has six gates, and, including its suburbs, is more than two miles in circumference. There are sixteen parish churches, besides chapels, and five large meeting-houses, within the walls of this city. The trade of Exeter, in serge, perperuan, long-clls, druggets, kerseys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to this city by means of sluices.

The city of Gloucester stands on a pleasant hill, with houses on every descent, and is a clean, well-built town, with the Severn on one side, a branch of which brings ships up to it. The cathedral here is an ancient and magnificent structure; and there are also five parish churches.

Litchfield stands in a valley, three miles south of the Trent, and is divided by a stream which runs into that river. The cathedral was founded in the year 1148: it was much damaged during the civil war, but was so completely repaired soon after the Restoration, that it is now one of the noblest Gothic structures in England. Litchfield is thought to be the most considerable city in the north-west of England, except Chester.

Chester is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a noble bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches over the Dee, which falls into the sea. It has eleven parishes, and nine well-built churches. The streets are generally even and spacious, and crossing one another in straight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were first erected by Edelfleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the south side of the
city to the castle, from whence there is a pleasant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by some of the towers over the gates; and from thence there is a prospect of Flintshire, and the mountains of Wales.

Warwick is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have been of eminence even in the time of the Romans. It stands upon a rock of free-stone, on the banks of the Avon; and a way is cut to it through the rocks, from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, and the streets are spacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the town.

The city of Coventry is large and populous. It was formerly surrounded by a strong wall, and had twelve noble gates. It has a handsome town-house, and three parish churches, the steeple of one of which (St Michael’s) is esteemed a master piece of architecture. Salisbury is a large, neat, and well-built city, situated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the west and south, and by the Bourne on the east. The streets are generally spacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finished in 1358, at the expense of above 26,000l. is, for a Gothic building, the most elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lantern, with a beautiful spire of free-stone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the tallest in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The church has a cloister, which is 150 feet square, and of as fine workmanship as any in England. The chapter-house, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one small pillar in the centre, so much too weak, in appearance, for the support of such a prodigious weight, that the construction of this building is thought one of the greatest curiosities in England.

The city of Bath took its name from some natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has been long celebrated, and much frequented. The seasons for drinking the Bath waters are the spring and autumn; the spring season begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn season begins with September, and lasts to December; and some patients remain here all the winter. In the spring, this place is most frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleasure, when at least two thirds of the company, consisting chiefly of persons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amusements of the place. In some seasons there have been no less than 8000 persons at Bath, besides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings lately erected here are extremely elegant, particularly Queen’s-square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus, and Crescent.

Nottingham is pleasantly situate on the ascent of a rock, overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the south, and has been made navigable. It is one of the neatest places in England, and has a considerable trade.

Manchester, situate at the confluence of the rivers Irk and Irwell in Lancashire, though considered only as a village or market-town, exceeds in population every other town or city in England except the metropolis; the number of its inhabitants in 1801 being 84,020. This it owes to its immense cotton manufactories, which, besides the towns-people, are said to give employment to fifty or sixty thousand persons.

Birmingham in Warwickshire, and Sheffield in the southern part of Yorkshire, contain extensive manufactories of different kinds of hardware and cutlery; and both (the former especially) are in consequence extremely populous, the number of inhabitants being in the former, in 1801, 73,670, and in the latter 31,314.

No nation in the world has such dock yards, and all conveniences for construction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portsmouth (the most regular fortification in England) Plymouth (by far the best dock-yard), Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The Royal Hospital at Greenwich, for superannuated seamen, is scarcely exceeded by any royal palace, for its magnificence and expense.

Commerce and Manufactures.] It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raised the English to be the first and most powerful people in the world. Historical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is sufficient then to say, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the scale of commerce. She planned some settlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expense attending them to be defrayed by her subjects; and indeed she
was too parsimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial schemes for the English trade. The East-India Company owes to him their success and existence; and British America saw her most flourishing colonies rise under him and his family. The spirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty; and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation was greatly increased. It is not intended to follow Commerce through all her fluctuations, but, only to give a general representation of the commercial interest of the nation.

The present system of English politics may properly be said to have taken rise in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At that time the protestant religion was established, which naturally allied us to the reformed states, and made all the popish powers our enemies.

We began in the same reign to extend our trade, by which it became necessary for us also to watch the commercial progress of our neighbours, and, if not to incommode and obstruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours.

We then likewise settled colonies in America, which was become the great scene of European ambition; for, seeing with what treasures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conquest or plantation would certainly fill the mother-country with gold and silver.

The discoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the necessity of long voyages, produced, in a few years, a great multiplication of shipping. The sea was considered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of sovereignty arose, called naval dominion.

As the chief trade of Europe, so the chief maritime power, was at first in the hands of the Portuguese and Spaniards, who, by a compact to which the consent of other princes was not asked, had divided the newly discovered countries between them; but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being seized by him, he was master of the shipping of the two nations, with which he kept all the coasts of Europe in alarm, till the armada he had raised at a vast expense for the conquest of England was destroyed; which put a stop, and almost an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppressed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, resolved no longer to endure the insolence of their masters; they therefore revolted, and, after a struggle in which they were assisted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low-Countries had forced their system of government, and some remission of the war gave them leisure to provide for their future prosperity, they easily perceived, that, as their territories were narrow, and their numbers small, they could preserve themselves only by that power which is the consequence of wealth; and that by a people, whose country produced only the necessaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by transportation of the products of one country into another.

From this necessity, thus justly estimated, arose a plan of commerce, which was for many years prosecuted with an industry and success perhaps never seen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impassable bogs, erected themselves into high and mighty states, who set the greatest monarchs at defiance, whose alliance was courted by the proudest, and whose power was dreaded by the fiercest nations. By the establishment of this state, there arose to England a new ally, and a new rival.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the customs produced only 36,000l. a year; at the Restoration, they were let to farm for 400,000l., and produced considerably above double that sum before the Revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and when our trade was inconsiderable, were computed at about 100,000, at the death of queen Elizabeth they were increased to 150,000, and are now nearly six times that number. In those days we had not only naval stores, but ships, from our neighbours. Germany furnished us with all things made of metal, even to nails; wine, paper, linen, and a thousand other things, came from France. Portugal
furnished us with sugars; all the produce of America was brought to us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of the East Indies at their own price. The legal interest of money was twelve per cent., and the common price of our land ten or twelve years purchase. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and those but indifferent; the number of English merchants very small; and our shipping much inferior to what lately belonged to the American colonies.

Great Britain is, of all other countries, the most proper for trade; as well from its situation as an island, as from the freedom and excellency of its constitution, and from its natural products and considerable manufactures. For exportation, our country produces many of the most substantial and necessary commodities; as butter, cheese, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, saffron, &c. Our corn sometimes preserves other countries from starving. Our horses are the most serviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardiness, beauty, and strength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biscuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign vessels that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcasses, bombs, &c. Prodigious and almost incredible is the value likewise of other goods from hence exported, viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, shoes, household-stuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pitchards, salmon, oysters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is scarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England. The woollen manufacture is the most considerable, and exceeds in goodness and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another principal article; locks, edge-tools, guns, swords, and other arms, are of superior excellence; household utensils of brass, iron, and pewter, also, are very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in great esteem.

Of the British commerce, that branch which we enjoyed exclusively; viz. the commerce with our colonies, was long regarded as the most advantageous. Yet, since the separation of the American States from Great Britain, the trade, the industry, and manufactures of the latter have continually increased. New markets have opened, the returns from which are more certain and less tedious than those from America. By supplying a greater variety of markets, the skill and ingenuity of our artisans have taken a wider range; the productions of their labour have been adapted to the wants, not of rising colonies, but of nations the most wealthy and the most refined; and our commercial system, no longer resting on the artificial basis of monopoly, has been rendered more solid as well as more liberal. The trade of England to the United States, in a variety of articles, is likewise very considerable.

The principal islands belonging to the English, in the West Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St Christopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montserrat, the Bermudas or Somers' Islands, and the Bahama or Lucayan Islands in the Atlantic Ocean; besides Trinidad, ceded to England by the late treaty of Amiens, and St Lucia, recently taken from the French.

The English trade with their West-India Islands consists chiefly in sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchincel planks, drugs and preserves. For these, the exports from England are Osnaburgs, a coarse kind of linen, with which the West-Indians now clothe their slaves; linen of all sorts, with broad-cloth and kerseys, for the planters, their overseers, and families; silks and stuffs for their ladies, and household servants; hats; red caps for their slaves of both sexes; stockings and shoes of all sorts; gloves and millinery ware, and perukes; laces for linen, woollen, and silks; strong-beer, pale-beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese; iron-ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chisels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augers, nails, lead, powder and shot; brass and copper-wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet-wares, snuff; and in general whatever is raised or manufactured in Great Britain; also negroes from Africa, and all sorts of Indian goods.

The trade of England to the East Indies constitutes one of the most stupendous political as well as commercial machines that is to be met with in history. The trade itself is exclusive, and lodged in a company which has a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. This company exports to the East
Indies, all kinds of woollen manufacture, all sorts of hardware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver. Their imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw silks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrac, porcelain or China-ware, salt-petre for home-consumption; and of wrought silks, muslins, calicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries.

To Turkey, England sends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hardware, iron utensils, clocks, watches, verdigris, spices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw silks, carpets, skins, dyeing-drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal-drugs, coffee, and some other articles. Formerly the balance of this trade was about 500,000l. annually, in favour of England. The English trade was afterwards diminished through the practices of the French; but the Turkey trade at present is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the English.

England exports to Italy woollen goods of various kinds; peltry, leather, lead, tin, fish, and East India goods; and brings back raw and thrown silk, wines, oil, soap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury.

To Spain, England sends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fish, corn, iron, and brass manufactures, haberdashery wares, assortments of linen, from Germany and elsewhere, for the American colonies; and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dyeing drugs, colours, gold and silver coin.

Portugal formerly was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whose fleets and armies have more than once saved her from destruction. England sends to this country almost the same kind of merchandises as to Spain, and receives in return vast quantities of wines, with oils, salt, dried and moist fruits, dyeing-drugs, and gold coin.

The direct trade with France, Holland, and Flanders, has been interrupted by the late and present wars, though great quantities of English commodities still continue to be introduced into those countries through the ports of the north of Germany.

England sends to the coast of Guinea sundry sorts of coarse woollen and linen, iron, pewter, brass, and hardware manufactures, lead, shot, swords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glass manufactures. And, besides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately supplied the American colonies with negro slaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-dust, gum, dying and other drugs, red-wood, guinea-grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Persia, China, and other parts of Asia, England sends much foreign silver coin and bullion, and sundry English manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron and brass; and brings home from those remote regions, muslins and cottons of many various kinds, calicoes, raw and wrought silk, chintz, teas, porcelain, gold-dust, coffee, salt-petre, and many other drugs. And so great a quantity of those various merchandises is exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compensates for all the silver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce to foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the East-India, South-Sea, Hudson's-Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal-African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa, is now laid open; though the merchant who proposes to trade thither must become a member of the company, be subject to their laws and regulations, and advance a small sum at admission, for the purpose of supporting consuls, forts, &c.

The prodigious extent of the trade of England, and its great and rapid increase of late years, will clearly appear from a comparative statement of the imports and exports at different periods; the value of which, including foreign merchandise and manufactures, in the years undermentioned, was as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Imports</th>
<th>Exports</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1772</td>
<td>14,500,000</td>
<td>17,199,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1783</td>
<td>13,325,000</td>
<td>14,741,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>1792</td>
<td>19,629,000</td>
<td>24,878,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1797</td>
<td>21,450,000</td>
<td>28,917,000</td>
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And on the 22d of June, 1802, the chancellor of the exchequer, Mr Addington, stated to the house of commons, that the real value of imports in the year ending the 5th of January, supposing the imports from the East Indies to be the same as in the preceding year, might be estimated at about 58,680,000l.; that the real value of British manufactures exported in the year 1801 might be estimated at 41,770,000l.; and that of foreign merchandise at 15,750,000l. making for the whole of the exportation 57,520,000l.

He at the same time stated, that the number of registered vessels belonging to the British dominions, employed in trade in the year 1801, was 19,772; their tonnage 2,037,317; and their number of men 143,987.

As the quantity of circulating specie may in some measure indicate the extent of commerce, we may judge of the increase of the latter by comparing the sums which the three last monarchs found it necessary to coin. By George I., 8,725,921. Sterling were coined. In the long reign (thirty-three years) of George II., 11,966,576l. Sterling; and in the first twenty-four years of his present majesty’s reign, the sums coined amounted to 33,069,274l. Sterling.

Our bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular detail of the places where those English manufactures, which are mentioned in the above account, are fabricated; a few general strictures, however, may be proper.

Cornwall and Devonshire supply tin and lead; and woollen manufactures are common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of sheep, and has large lace-manufactures. Somersetshire, besides furnishing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactures of bone-lace, stockings, and caps. Bristol is said to employ 2000 vessels of all sizes, coasters as well as ships employed in foreign voyages. It has many very important manufactures; its glass-bottle and drinking-glass one alone occupying fifteen large houses: its brass- and copper-manufactures are also very considerable. Extensive manufactures of all kinds (glass, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery in particular) are carried on in London, and its neighbourhood; the gold and silver manufactures of London through the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, those of any country in Europe. Colchester is famous for its manufacture of baize and serge: Exeter for serges and long-ells; and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camlets, druggets, and stockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largest and most populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly snuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, buckles, etees, and many other sorts of steel and brass wares. It is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of English art and industry is to be seen; for such are their excellent invention for fabricating hardware, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furnish the same of an inferior kind; the cheapness of coals and necessaries, and the convenience of situation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this. One company of iron manufacturers in Shropshire use every day 500 tons of coals in their iron works. In Great Britain there are made every year from 50 to 60,000 tons of pig-iron, and from 20 to 30,000 tons of bar-iron.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarser and slighter woollen manufactures; witness those of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond; and, above all, Manchester, which by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimittices, tirkens, checks, and the like stuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its highest magistracy a constable. Beautiful porcelain and earthen-ware have of late years been manufactured in different places in England, particularly in Worcestershire and Staffordshire. The English carpets, especially those of Axminster, Wilton, and Kidderminster, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable, and consequently are a vast saving to the nation. Paper, which was formerly imported in vast quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom.

The English manufactures have been lately estimated at the annual value of £3,600,000l., and supposed to employ 1,585,000 people: of this sum, the woollen
manufacture is stated to produce about 15,000,000l.; the leather 10,000,000l.; the iron, tin, and lead 10,000,000l.; and the cotton 9,000,000l.

REVENUES.] The king's revenues are ecclesiastical and temporal: The former consist in, 1. The custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corrodies and pensions, formerly arising from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing, due to the king from an abbey or monastery, and which he generally bestowed upon favourite servants; and his sending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the bishop, or to have a pension bestowed upon him till the bishop promoted him to a benefice. These corrodies are due of common right, but now, I believe, disused. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The first-fruits and tenths of benefices. But such has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that these four branches now afford little or no revenue. The temporal revenue consists in, 1. The demesne lands of the crown, which at present are contracted within a narrow compass. 2. The hereditary excise; being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual sum issuing from the duty on wine licenses; being the residue of the same consideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of Justice, &c. In lieu of all which 900,000l. per annum is now granted for the support of his civil list.

Extraordinary grants called aids, subsidies, or supplies, are granted, by the commons of Great Britain in parliament assembled; who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, and settled the quantum of that supply, usually resolve themselves into what is called a committee of ways and means, to consider of the ways and means of raising the supply so voted. And in this committee, every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propose such schemes of taxation as he thinks will be least detrimental to the public. The resolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the house) are in general esteemed to be (as it were) final and conclusive. For though the supply cannot be actually raised upon the subject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no moneyed man will scruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready cash, if the proposed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the house of commons, though no law be yet passed to establish it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land tax*, or the ancient subsidy raised upon a new assessment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual excise on malt, rum, cider, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The customs, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandise exported or imported. 2. The excise duty, or inland imposition, on a great variety of commodities. 3. The salt duty. 4. The post-office, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The stamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houses and windows. 7. The duty on licenses for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and pensions.

The gross receipt of the permanent revenue, after deducting the re-payment of over-entries, drawbacks, &c. amounted in the year ending the 5th of January 1804, according to a statement presented to the house of commons by Mr Pitt, to 35,440,278l.; besides the war taxes imposed in 1803 and 1804, amounting to nearly 13,000,000l. How these immense sums are appropriated is next to be considered. And this is, first and principally, to the payment of the interest of the national debt.

It is necessary to a clear and comprehensive view of the nature of this national debt, to premise, that, after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new system of foreign politics, the expences of the nation, not only in setting the new establishment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals on the continent, for the security of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, settling the Spanish succession, supporting the house of Austria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purposes, increased to an unusual degree; insomuch that it

* This has lately been sold to the proprietors of the estates on which it is assessed, or other individuals, and thus rendered perpetual.
was not thought advisable to raise all the expenses of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, lest the unaccustomed weight of them should create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the bad policy of the times to anticipate the revenues of their posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the current service of the state, and to lay no more taxes upon the subject than would suffice to pay the annual interest of the sums so borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new species of property; transferable from one person to another, at any time and in any quantity: a system which seems to have had its original in the state of Florence, A. D. 1344; which government then owed about 60,000l. sterling; and, being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate sum, called, metaphorically, a mount or bank; the shares whereof were transferable like our stocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the National Debt—for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II., will hardly deserve that name; and the example then set has been so closely followed since, that the total of all the sums borrowed, or the capital of the funded debt of Great Britain, amounted, on the 1st of February 1804, to 583,008,978l. of which 77,698,467l. had been purchased by the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, and 21,147,181l. had been transferred to them on account of land-tax redeemed, leaving a funded debt unredeemed of 484,162,621l. The unfunded debt at the same time amounted to 16,305,607l., making the whole of the National Debt 500,468,229l., exclusive of 23,952,329l. on account of Ireland, and 7,042,805l. on account of the emperor of Germany. To check, in some measure, the too rapid accumulation of a debt already so enormous, a part of the supplies for the years 1798 and 1799 were raised within the year. In 1798 a voluntary subscription was entered into for the service of government, which produced about a million and a half; and the taxes called the assessed taxes were trebled, and in some instances quadrupled, with allowance of relief in certain cases: these produced about five millions. In the year 1799 an act passed for levying a tenth of all income upwards of 200l. per annum, with a tax, according to a certain scale, on all income from 200l. to 60l. per annum. The expected produce of this tax was estimated at ten millions, but amounted only about to six. In the year 1803 a similar tax was laid on all income arising from property, at the rate of five per cent above 150l. per annum, and according to a certain scale below that sum to 60l. The produce of this tax remains to be ascertained.

The total sum to be raised for the expenditure of the year 1804, for the interest of the public debt, the civil list, the army, navy, pensions, bounties extraordinary, and secret services, &c. amounted, according to the statement of the chancellor of the exchequer (Mr Pitt) to the house of commons, to 71,498,431l.; and the total of the ordinary revenue and extraordinary resources, including a lottery and a loan of fourteen millions, to 71,507,278l.

There can be no doubt that the present amount of the national debt very far exceeds all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive of the greatest inconveniences. For, first, the enormous taxes that are raised upon the necessities of life, for the payment of the interest of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures, by raising the price as well of the artificer's subsistence, as of the raw material, and of course, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itself. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a considerable quantity of specie for the interest, or else it is made an argument to grant them unreasonable privileges, in order to induce them to reside here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to subjects only, it is then charging the active and industrious subject, who pays his share of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Lastly, and principally, it weakens the internal strength of a state, by anticipating those resources which should be reserved to defend it in case of necessity. The interest we now pay for our debts would be nearly sufficient to maintain any war that any national motives could require. And if our ancestors in king William's time had annually paid, so long as their exigencies lasted, even a less sum than we now annually raise upon their account, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to and settled upon their posterity in the time of peace, that might have been cased the instant the exigence was over.
Different schemes have been formed for paying the public debts: but no method can be so expeditious and effectual as an unalienable sinking fund, as this money is improved at compound interest, and therefore in the most perfect manner; but money procured by a loan bears only simple interest. "A nation, therefore, whenever it applies the income of such a fund to current expenses rather than the redemption of its debts, chooses to lose the benefit of compound interest in order to avoid paying simple interest, and the loss in this case is equal to the difference between the increase of money at compound and simple interest."*

No permanent provision had ever been made for the progressive and certain payment of this immense debt, until 1786; when parliament had the wisdom and the firmness to pass an act for vesting unalienably, in commissioners, the sum of one million annually: in which act every possible precaution was taken that could be devised for preventing the surplus from being diverted, at any future time, and for carrying to the account of the commissioners, for the purposes of the act, the interest of such stock as should be purchased, and such temporary annuities as should fall in under the provisions of this act. On the 5th of January, 1804, the commissioners had purchased 77,698,467l. of the capital of the debt.

In the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the excise and customs, the post-office, the duty on wine-licenses, the revenues of the remaining crown-lands, the profit arising from courts of justice (which articles include all the hereditary revenue of the crown), and also a clear annuity of 120,000l. in money, were settled on the king for life, for the support of his majesty's household, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And as the amount of these several branches was uncertain (though in the last reign they were computed to have sometimes raised almost a million), if they did not rise annually to 800,000l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his present majesty having, soon after his accession, spontaneously signified his consent, that his own hereditary revenues might be so disposed of as might best conduct to the utility and satisfaction of the public, and having accepted the limited sum of 800,000l. (now increased to 900,000l.) per annum, for the support of his civil list, the said hereditary revenues are now carried into and made part of the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the annuity to crown. The expences defrayed by the civil list are those that, in any shape, relate to civil government, as the expences of the household, all salaries to officers of state, to the judges, and every one of the king's servants; the appointments to foreign ambassadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expenses, or privy-purse; and other very numerous outgoings, as secret-service money, pensions, and other bounties. These, sometimes, have so far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpose, that application has been made to parliament to discharge the debts contracted on the civil list, which is properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own distinct capacity; the rest being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and distributed again in the name and by the officers of the crown.

Bank of England.] The Company of the Bank of England was incorporated by parliament in the 5th and 6th years of King William and Queen Mary, by the name of the Governors and Company of the Bank of England, in consideration of the loan of 1,200,000l. granted to the government, for which the subscribers received almost 8 per cent. By this charter, the Company are not to borrow under their common seal, un-

* This difference is strikingly pointed out by Dr Price: "One penny put out at our Saviour's birth, at 5 per cent. compound interest, would, in the year 1731, have increased to a greater sum than would be contained in 200,000,000 of earths, all solid gold; but if put out to simple interest it at the same time would have amounted to no more than seven shillings and sixpence. All governments that alienate funds destined for reimbursements, choose to improve money in the last rather than the first of these ways." He adds: "A million borrowed annually, for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent stock, if discharged at 60l. in money for every 100l. stock; and in 40 years more, without any further aid from loans, 388 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A surplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would discharge the same sums in the same periods."
less by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or suffer any person in trust for them to trade, in any goods or merchandise; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and foreign gold and silver coin.

By an act of parliament passed in the 5th and 9th years of William III., they were empowered to enlarge their capital stock to 2,201,171l. 10s. It was then also enacted, that Bank-stock should be a personal, and not a real estate; that no contract, either in word or writing, for buying or selling Bank-stock, should be good in law, unless registered in the books of the Bank within seven days, and the stock transferred in fourteen days; and that it should be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common seal of the Bank, or any sealed Bank-bill, or any Bank-note, or to alter or erase such bills or notes.

By another act, passed in the 7th of queen Anne, the Company were empowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343l., and they then advanced 400,000l. more to the government; and in 1714 they advanced another loan of 1,500,000l.

Other loans were afterwards made from time to time by the Company to government, till in 1746 the whole debt due to the Bank from the public was 11,686,800l.; and its divided capital had been raised by different calls and subscriptions to 10,780,000l. It had also been the constant practice of the Company to assist government with money in anticipation of the land and malt taxes, and by making temporary advances on exchequer bills and other securities. In the year 1781 the sums thus lent to government amounted to upwards of eight millions, in addition to the permanent debt of 11,686,800l. An agreement was now entered into for the renewal of their charter, the term of which was extended to August 1802, on the Company's engaging to advance 2,000,000l. on exchequer bills at 3 per cent interest, to be paid off within three years out of the sinking fund. In order to enable them to make this advance, a call of 8 per cent. on their capital was thought necessary, by which their former capital stock of 10,780,000l. was increased to 11,642,000l., the sum on which they now divide. The dividend was also increased one half per cent., so that it became 6 per cent. In consequence of this agreement, the total of their advances to government on the land and malt taxes, exchequer bills, and treasury bills, was increased, on the 25th of February 1782, to 9,991,678l. The amount of the Bank-notes in circulation must of course be augmented by the increase of advances to government.

In consequence of large advances to government, the great exportation of coin and bullion to Germany and Ireland, and several concurring circumstances, which at the commencement of the year 1797 produced an unusual demand of specie from different parts of the country on the metropolis, an order of the privy-council was issued on the 26th of February, prohibiting the directors of the Bank from issuing any cash in payment till the sense of parliament on the subject was obtained. This restriction was sanctioned by parliament, and a secret committee was appointed to examine the state of the outstanding debts on the Bank of England, and its funds for discharging the same. The statement of these demands and funds, to the 25th of February 1797, was as follows:

Outstanding demands

L. 13,770,890

Funds for discharging those demands, not including the permanent debt due from government, of 11,686,800l. *, which bears an interest of 3 per cent. †

17,597,280

Surplus of effects of the Bank, exclusive of the above-mentioned permanent debt of 11,686,800l.

L. 3,826,896

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* This debt arises and is formed by the following items:

The original sum at the time the charter was granted

L. 1,200,000

Further sum lent to government in 1732

400,000

Ditto, in 1742

1,600,000

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† It is to be observed, that the interest of Bank-notes, of which the Bank is empowered to make a legal tender for any public demand, is the same with the interest of any other Bank-notes.
Immediately after parliament had met in the following November, the committee of secrecy appointed to inquire into the expediency of continuing the restriction on the Bank, reported, that the total amount of the outstanding demands on the Bank on the 11th of November was 17,578,910l., and of the funds for discharging the same, exclusively of the permanent debt, 21,418,640l., leaving a balance in favour of the Bank at that time of 3,839,550l. The report stated, that the advances to government had been reduced to 4,258,140l., and that the cash and bullion in the Bank had increased to more than five times the value at which they stood on the 25th of February 1797, when it was about 1,272,000l.

The restriction by successive acts of parliament has been continued to the present time, without the least inconvenience to the public, for by these statements the solvency and solidity of the Bank are satisfactorily evinced; and, indeed, its stability must be coeval with that of the British government. All that it has advanced to the public must be lost, before its creditors can sustain any loss. No other banking company in England can be established by act of parliament, or can consist of more than six members. It acts not only as an ordinary Bank, but as a great engine of state. It receives and pays the greater part of the annuities that are due to the creditors of the public; it circulates exchequer bills; and it advances to government the annual amount of the land and malt taxes, which are frequently not paid up for some years. It likewise discounts the bills of merchants; and has, upon several occasions, supported the credit of the principal houses, not only of England, but of Hamburg and Holland.

This Company is under the direction of a Governor, Deputy-governor, and twenty-four Directors, who are annually elected by the General Court of Proprietors of Bank-stock. Thirteen, or more, compose a Court of Directors for managing the affairs of the Company. The qualification of a Director is 2000l.; of a Deputy-governor 3000l.; and of a Governor 4000l.—5001. Bank-stock entitles the Proprietor to vote at the general courts, provided he has been in possession of it six months.

**East-India Company.** The first idea of this Company was formed in queen Elizabeth's time; but it has since undergone great alterations. It shares, or subscriptions, were originally only 50l. sterling, and its capital only 369,891l. 5s.; but the directors having a considerable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital; by which the shares were doubled, and consequently each became of 100l. value, and the capital 739,782l. 10s.; to which capital, if 963,639l., the profits of the Company to the year 1685, be added, the whole stock will be found to be 1,703,102l. Though the establishment of this Company was vindicated in the clearest manner by Sir Josiah Child, and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II., had for his favourite African trade, the losses it sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Hindostan, damped the ardour of the people to support it; so that at the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent situation. This was in a great measure owing to its having no parliamentary sanction, in consequence of which its stock often sold for one half less than it was really worth; and it was resolved that a new Company should be erected, under the authority of parliament.

| Now called the original fund | — | — | — | — | L. 3,200,000 |
| Residue of 2,000,000l. exchequer bills cancelled in 1716 | — | — | — | — | — | 500,000 |
| South-Sea stock purchased in 1722 | — | — | — | — | — | 4,000,000 |
| Loan to government in 1728 | — | — | — | — | — | 1,750,000 |
| Ditto, in 1729 | — | — | — | — | — | 1,250,000 |
| Ditto, in 1746 | — | — | — | — | — | 950,500 |

L. 11,686,800

Of the outstanding demands, the Bank-notes in circulation amounted to 8,640,250l. and the drawing account, unpaid dividends, exchequer bills, and other debts, to 5,130,140l. The funds for discharging these consisted of advances on government security, to the amount of 12,072,190l.; and cash, bullion, bills discounted, and other credits, to the amount of 6,121,790l.
The opposition given to all the public-spirited measures of king William, by faction, rendered this proposal a matter of considerable difficulty; but at last, after many parliamentary inquiries, the new subscription prevailed, and the subscribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent., obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old Company, however, retained a great interest both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in some respects defective, so violent a struggle between the two Companies arose, that in the year 1702 they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708 the yearly fund of 8 per cent., for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent., by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without an additional interest; for which consideration the Company obtained a prolongation of its exclusive privileges, and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the East Indies." Its exclusive right of trade was prolonged from time to time, and a further sum was lent by the Company in 1730, by which, though the Company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the interest of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000l., was reduced to 3 per cent., and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Those annuities are different from the trading stock of the Company, the proprietors of which, instead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different shares, a dividend of the profits arising from the Company's trade; and that dividend rises or falls according to the circumstances of the Company, either real, or, as is too often the case, pretended. A proprietor of stock to the amount of 1000l., whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thousand pounds is the qualification for a director. The directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, six a year, for four years successively. The chairman has a salary of 200l. a year, and each of the directors 150l. The meetings or courts of directors are to be held at least once a week; but are commonly oftener, being summoned as occasion requires. Out of the body of directors are chosen several committees, who have the peculiar inspection of certain branches of the Company's business; as the committee of correspondence, a committee of treasury, a house committee, a committee of warehouse, a committee of shipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of lawsuits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private-trade; who have under them a secretary, cashier, clerks, and warehouse-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquisitions of this Company, computed to contain above 200,000 square miles, and thirty millions of people, must be necessarily attended with a proportionable increase of trade *; and this, joined to the dissensions among its managers both at home and abroad, has of late greatly engaged the attention of the legislature. A restriction has occasionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee, in 1773, appointed by parliament on Indian affairs, it appears that the India Company, from the year 1708 to the year 1756, for the space of forty-seven years and a half, divided the sum of 12,000,000l., or above 280,000l. per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000l., amounted to above eight and a half per cent.; and that at the last-mentioned period it appeared, that, besides the above dividend, the capital stock of the Company had been increased 180,000l. Considerable alterations were made in the affairs and constitution of the East-India Company, by an act passed in 1773, intituled, "An act for establishing certain rules and orders for the future management of the affairs of the East-India Company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors should, in future, be elected for four years; six members annually; but none to hold their seats longer than

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* According to lists laid before the House of Commons, the Company employed 110 ships, and 8170 men.

Between India and Europe, in carrying cargoes to and from 70 ships and 7130 men.

6 packets 330

In the country trade, and from China 84 crabs 720
four years. That no persons should vote at the election of the directors who had not possessed their stock twelve months. That the stock of qualification should, instead of 500l., as it had formerly been, be 1000l. That the mayor's court of Calcutta should, for the future, be confined to small mercantile causes, to which only its jurisdiction extended before the territorial acquisition. That, in lieu of this court, thus taken away, a new one be established, consisting of a chief justice and three puisne judges, and that these judges be appointed by the crown. That a superiority be given to the presidency of Bengal over the other presidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal should be vested in the crown. The salaries of the judges were also fixed at 8000l. to the chief justice, and 6000l. a-year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor general and council were fixed, the first at 25,000l. and the four others at 10,000l. each annually.

In the month of November 1783, Mr Fox, then secretary of state, brought forward a bill for new-regulating the Company, under the supposition of the incompetency of the directors, and the insolvent state of the Company.

The bill passed the Commons; but an opposition was made to it in the House of Lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and which would be sure to operate against the necessary power of the crown; and, after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of sixteen peers. The consequence of this was a change of the ministry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

By the new bill, which passed at the close of the sessions, six persons are nominated by the king as commissioners for the affairs of India, of whom one of the secretaries of state, and the chancellor of the exchequer for the time being, shall be two; the president to have the casting vote, if equally divided. New commissioners to be appointed at the pleasure of the crown. This board is to superintend, direct, and control all acts, operations, and concerns, which in any wise relate to the civil and military government or revenues of the British territorial possessions in the East Indies. They are sworn to execute the several powers and trusts reposed in them, without favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any person whatever. The court of directors of the Company are to deliver to this board all minutes, orders, and resolutions of themselves, and of the courts of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and instructions, proposed to be sent abroad, for their approbation or alteration; none to be sent until after such previous communication, on any pretence whatsoever. The directors are still to appoint the servants abroad; but the king has a power, by his secretary of state, to recall either of the governors or members of the councils, or any person holding any office under the Company in their settlements, and make void their appointment. By this bill there is given to the governor and council of Bengal a control over the other presidencies, in all points which relate to any transactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces or revenues; but the council of Bengal are subjected to the absolute direction of the Company at home, and, in all cases, except those of immediate danger and necessity, restrained from acting without orders received from England.

Mr Dundas, the first president of the board of control, was a statesman who had long given unwearied application to the affairs of India. He introduced the laudable practice of bringing annually before a committee of the House of Commons a statement of the financial concerns of the Company abroad, exhibiting the balance upon the comparison of the revenues and charges of the several settlements. As the Company's right to their exclusive trade was, by an act passed in 1781, to terminate in March 1794, it became necessary to make provision for that event; which was effectually done by Mr Dundas's bill, proposed the 25th of February 1793, which, meeting the approbation of parliament, had the singular good fortune of giving equal satisfaction to the public and the Company: to the public, because, instead of 400,000l., they were to receive 500,000l. per annum from the revenues of India; and to the Company, because they were still to preserve their power and privileges, as far as they contributed to promote the interests of their commerce.

This bill was ushered in by a most favourable account of the Company's matters, and of the great national benefits which had already occurred, and which might be expected in future to flow in still greater abundance, from the Indian trade and territory.
revenues of the countries ceded to the Company by Tippoo Sultan were stated at 390,000l.; and the future revenues of the British possessions in India were estimated at nearly 7,000,000l.; leaving a net surplus, after deducting the interest on the debts in India, and the civil, military, and commercial charges, of 1,059,000l. per annum. The annual sales of India goods in Europe were estimated at nearly 5,000,000l., which exceeds the prime cost and charges by 743,600l.; and the net surplus on the whole of the revenues and trade of the East-India Company, after paying 8 per cent. dividend on the capital stock of 5,000,000l., is estimated at 1,239,241l. per annum.

In July 1797, Mr Dundas stated the total amount of the foreign revenues at 8,154,872l., and the charges upon them at 6,517,057l., leaving a net surplus of 1,637,815l. He at the same time stated the amount of the receipts and sales of the Company at home, at 7,316,916l.

**South-Sea Company.** During the long war with France in the reign of Queen Anne, the payment of the sailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets instead of money, were frequently obliged by their necessities to sell these tickets to avaricious men, at a discount of 40l. and sometimes 50l. per cent. By this and other means, the debts of the nation, unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l., fell into the hands of these usurers. On which Mr Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiences 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of “The Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas, and other Parts of America, and for encouraging the Fishery,” &c.

Though this Company seemed formed for the sake of commerce, it is certain that the ministry never thought seriously, during the course of the war, about making any settlement on the coast of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people: nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this Company, except the Assiento, in pursuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furnishing the Spaniards with negroes, of which this Company was deprived, upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, soon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other sums were lent to the government in the reign of Queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent., and they advanced two millions more to the government at the same interest. By the statute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this Company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which, the Company were empowered to augment their capital according to the sums they should discharge; and for enabling them to raise such sums for purchasing annuities, exchanging for ready money new exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c., they might, by such means as they should think proper, raise such sums of money as in a general court of the Company should be judged necessary. The Company were also empowered to raise money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations, under their common seal, on the credit of their public stock. But if the sub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the Company, should purchase lands or revenues of the crown upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than such part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, such sub-governor, or other member of the Company, should forfeit triple the value so lent.

The fatal South-Sea scheme, transacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the last-mentioned statute. The Company had at first set out with good success; and the value of their stock, for the first five years, had risen faster than that of any other Company; and his Majesty, after purchasing 10,000l. stock, had condescended to be their governor. Things were in this situation, when, taking advantage of the above statute, the South-Sea bubble was projected; the pretended design of which was, to raise a fund for carrying on a trade to the South-Sea, and purchasing annuities, &c. paid to the other Companies; and proposals were printed and distributed, showing the advantages of the design, and inviting persons into it. The sum necessary for carrying
it on, together with the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into a certain number of shares, or subscriptions, to be purchased by persons disposed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends, and actually declared that every 100l. original stock would yield 50l. per annum; which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of 100l. was sold for upwards of 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150l.; by which multitudes were ruined, and such a scene of distress occasioned as is scarcely to be conceived. Most of the directors were severely fined, to the loss of nearly all their property; even those who had no share in the deception, because they ought to have opposed and prevented it.

By a statute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that, from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital stock of this Company, which amounted to 14,651,103l. 8s. 1d. and the shares of the respective proprietors, should be divided into four equal parts; three-fourths of which should be converted into a joint stock, attended with annuities after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and should be called the New South-Sea annuities, and the other fourth part should remain in the Company as a trading capital stock, attended with the residue of the annuities or funds payable at the exchequer to the Company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the same sums always allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South-Sea Company; that the accountant of the Company should, twice every year, at Christmas and Midsummer, or within one month after, state an account of the Company's affairs, which should be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend; and all dividends should be made out of the clear profits, and should not exceed what the Company might reasonably divide without incurring any further debt: provided that the Company should not at any time divide more than 4 per cent per annum until their debts were discharged; and the South-Sea Company, and their trading stock, should, exclusively from the new joint stock of annuities, be liable to all debts and incumbrances of the Company; and that the Company should cause to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities should be entered, and signed by the party making such transfer, or his attorney; and the person to whom such transfer should be made, or his attorney, should underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities should be good in law.

The annuities of this Company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3 per cent.

This Company is under the direction of a governor, sub-governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-one directors; but no person is qualified to be governor, his majesty excepted, unless such governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading stock; the sub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the same stock. In every general court, every member having, in his own name and right, 500l. in trading stock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes; and if 5000l. four votes.

The East-India Company, the Bank of England, and the South-Sea Company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the million bank, whose capital is only one million, constituted to purchase the reversion of the long Exchequer orders.

As every capital stock or fund of a company is raised for a particular purpose, and limited by government to a certain sum, it necessarily follows, that, when that fund is completed, no stock can be bought of the company; though shares, already purchased, may be transferred from one person to another. This being the case, there is frequently a great disproportion between the original value of the shares, and what is given for them when transferred; for, if there are more buyers than sellers, a person who is indifferent about selling will not part with his share without a considerable profit to himself; and, on the contrary, if many are disposed to sell, and few inclined to buy, the value of such shares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of those who want to turn their stock into specie.

These observations may serve to give our readers some idea of the nature of that unjustifiable and dishonest practice called stock-jobbing, the mystery of which consists in
nothing more than this: the persons concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or sell, at a certain distant time, a certain quantity of some particular stock; against which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raise or lower such stock, by spreading rumours and fictitious stories, in order to induce people either to sell out in a hurry, and consequently cheap, if they are to deliver stock; or to become unwilling to sell it, and consequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive stock.

The persons who make these contracts are not in general possessed of any real stock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only receive or pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price the stock was at when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and it is no uncommon thing for persons not worth 100 pounds to make contracts for the buying or selling 100,000 pounds stock. In the language of Exchange-alley, the buyer is, in this case, called the Bull, and the seller the Bear; one is for raising or tossing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon, the stock.

Besides these, there is another set of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the same denomination. These are the great monied men, who are dealers in stock; and contractors with the government whenever any money is to be borrowed. These, indeed, are not fictitious but real buyers and sellers of stock; but by raising false hopes, or creating groundless fears, by pretending to buy or sell large quantities of stock on a sudden, by using the before-mentioned set of men as their instruments, and other similar practices, they are enabled to raise or fall stocks one or two per cent at pleasure.

While the annuities, and interest for money advanced, are regularly paid, and the principal insured by both prince and people (a security not to be had in other nations), foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be interested in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandise, and Great Britain can never want cash to carry her schemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of a prince, if a monarchy, or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is established on the interest of both prince and people: which is the strongest security.

Consitution and Laws.] Tacitus, in describing such a constitution as that of England, seems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved this mistake; for, by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the English constitution has existed for above 500 years. It must at the same time be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and some interruptions; but its principles are the same with those described by the above mentioned historian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern ancestors of the English nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the first invasion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were nearly the same as those mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to serve him, were distributed among them; and the whole was considered as the common property, which they were to unite in defending against all invaders. Fresh adventurers coming over under separate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and those leaders at last assumed the titles of Kings over the several districts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more respectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not increase their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All civil matters were proposed in a general assembly of the chief officers and the people, till, by degrees, sheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Allred we owe that master-piece of judicial policy, the subdivision of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the subdivision of hundreds into tithings, names that still subsist in England; and overseers were chosen to direct them for the good of the whole. The sheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county; and to him, after the
Introduction of Christianity, was added the bishop. In process of time, as business multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but, by the earliest records, it appears that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the dispute lay; and here we have the origin of English juries. It is certain that they were in use among the earliest Saxon colonies, their institution being ascribed by bishop Nicholson to Woden himself, their great legislator and leader. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all those nations which adopted the feudal system, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had all of them a tribunal composed of twelve good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual mention made of them so early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

Before the introduction of Christianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but we are certain that there was no action so criminal as not to be compensated for by money*. A mulct was imposed, in proportion to the guilt, even if it was murder of the king, upon the malefactor; and by paying it he purchased his pardon. Those barbarous usages seem to have ceased soon after the Saxons were converted to Christianity; and cases of felony and murder were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, strictly speaking, hereditary, though, in fact, it came to be rendered so through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preserving the regularity of government. Even estates and honours were not strictly hereditary, till they were made so by William the Norman.

In many respects, the first princes of the Norman line afterwards did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon constitution; but the attempt was to no purpose. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints against the crown; and, after much war and bloodshed, the famous charter of English liberties, so well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his son Henry III. who succeeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear that, till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been spilt, the commons of England were represented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; so entirely had the barons engrossed to themselves the disposal of property.

The precise year when the house of commons was formed is not known; but we are certain there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we shall not enter into any disputes about their specific powers. We therefore now proceed to describe the constitution, as it stands at present.

In all states there is an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs; and which, by the singular constitution of these kingdoms, is here vested in the king, lords, and commons.

Of the King.] The supreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is vested by our constitution in a single person, king or queen: for it is indifferent to which sex the crown descends: the person entitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately intrusted with all the ensigns, rights and prerogatives of sovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim, upon which the right of succession to the throne of these kingdoms depends, is, "that the crown, by common law and constitutional custom is hereditary, and this in a manner peculiar to itself; but that the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed, or limited, by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown still continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal succession, by its being transferred from the house of Tudor to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him, that, on the death of queen Elizabeth without issue, it became necessary to recur to the other issue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen, whose eldest daughter Margaret having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the First, was the legal descendent from that alliance.

* Called by the Saxons Guelt; and hence the word guilty in criminal trials.
So that in his person, as clearly as in Henry VIII., centred all the claims of the different competitors from the Norman invasion downward; he being indisputably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is still more remarkable, in his person also centred the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been suspended from the Norman invasion till his accession: for Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of king Edmund Ironside, was the person in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings (supposing it not abolished by the Conquest) resid- ed. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II., by a descent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the restorer of the Saxon line. But it must be remembered that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had sons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of that royal family king James I. was the direct and lineal descendent; and therefore united in his person every possible claim, by hereditary right, to the English as well as Scottish throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of estates, or representative body of the nation, declared that the misconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant. In consequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next protestant heirs of the blood-royal of King Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of succession; with a temporary exception, or preference to the person of king William III.

On the impending failure of the protestant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the settlement of the crown to the protestant line of king James I.—viz. to the princess Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being protestants; and she is now the common stock, from whom the heirs of the crown descend.*

* A chronology of English Kings, since the time that this country became united under one monarchy, in the person of Egbert, who subdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name Angle-land to this part of the island; the Saxons and the Angles having, about four centuries before, invaded and subdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign
800 Egbert
836 Ethelwulf
857 Ethelbald
860 Ethelbert
866 Ethelred
871 Alfred the Great
891 Edward the Elder
925 Athelstan
941 Edmund
946 Edward
955 Edwy
959 Edgar
975 Edward the Martyr
978 Ethelred II.
1016 Edmund II. or Ironside
1017 Canute king of Denmark
1035 Harold
1039 Hardcanute
1041 Edward the Confessor
1066 William I. (commonly called the Conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the south of England, now annexed to the French territory.
1067 William II.
1100 Henry I.
1135 Stephen, grandson to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela.
1154 Henry II. (Plantagenet) grandson of Henry I. by his daughter the Empress Maud, and her second husband, Geoffrey Plantagenet.
The true ground and principle, upon which the Revolution proceeded, was entirely a new case in politics, which had never before happened in our history; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeasance of the right of succession, and a new limitation of the crown, by the king and both houses of parliament; it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being. For in a full assembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the supposition of this vacancy, both houses came to this resolution: “that king James II. having endeavoured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and, by the advice of Jesuits and other wicked persons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himself out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government; and that the throne is thereby vacant.” Thus ended at once, by this sudden and unexpected revolution, the old line of succession, which, from the Norman invasion, had lasted above 600 years, and, from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert, almost 900.

Though in some points the revolution was not so perfect as might have been wished, yet from thence a new era commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and understood, and the rights of the subject more explicitly guarded by legal provisions, than in any other period of the English history. In particular, it is worthy observation, that the convention avoided with great wisdom the extremes into which the visionary

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theories of some zealous republicans would have led them. They held that the misconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to subvert the constitution, and not to an actual subversion or total dissolution of the government. They therefore very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a consequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to subsist, though the executive magistrate was gone; and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king. And thus the constitution was kept entire; which, upon every sound principle of government, must otherwise have fallen to pieces, had so principal and constituent a part as the royal authority been abolished, or even suspended.

Hence it is easy to collect, that the title to the crown is at present hereditary, though not quite so absolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common stock or ancestor, from whom the descent must be derived, is also different. Formerly the common stock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time, the two common stocks united, and so continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688; now it is the princess Sophia, in whom the inheritance was vested by the new king and parliament. Formerly the descent was absolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any restriction; but now, upon the new settlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to such heirs only of the body of the princess Sophia as are protestant members of the church of England, and are married to none but protestants.

And in this due medium consists the true constitutional notion of the right of succession to the imperial crown of these kingdoms. The extremes between which it steers, have been thought each of them to be destructive of those ends for which societies were formed, and are kept on foot. Where the magistrate, upon every succession, is elected by the people, and may, by the express provision of the laws, be deposed (if not punished) by his subjects, this may sound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever found extremely difficult and dangerous. On the other hand, divine indefeasible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited passive obedience, is surely, of all constitutions, the most thoroughly slavish and dreadful. But when such an hereditary right as our laws have created and vested in the royal stock is closely interwoven with those liberties which are equally the inheritance of the subject, this union will form a constitution, in theory the most beautiful of any, in practice the most approved, and, in all probability, in duration the most permanent. This constitution it is the duty of every Briton to understand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expressed in his oath at the coronation, which is administered by one of the archbishops or bishops of the realm, in the presence of all the people, who, on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation-oath is conceived in the following terms:

"The archbishop, or bishop, shall say, Will you solemnly promise and swear to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereto belonging, according to the statutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and customs of the same?—The king or queen shall say, I solemnly promise so to do.

"Archbishop or bishop. Will you, to your power, cause law and justice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—King or queen. I will.

"Archbishop or bishop. Will you to the utmost of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the Gospel, and the protestant reformed religion established by the law? And will you preserve unto the bishops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all such rights and privileges as by the law do or shall appertain unto them, or any of them?—King or queen. All this I promise to do.

"After this, the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy Gospel, shall say, The things which I have here before promised, I will perform and keep: so help me God! and then kiss the book."
judgment in mercy; and to maintain the established religion. With respect to the latter of these three branches, we may further remark, that by the act of union, 5 Anne, c. 8., two preceding statutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England; which enact, the former, that every king at his accession shall take and subscribe an oath, to preserve the protestant religion, and presbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, that, at his coronation, he shall take and subscribe a similar oath, to preserve the settlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

The king of Great Britain, notwithstanding the limitations of the power of the crown already mentioned, is the greatest monarch reigning over a free people. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treason so much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himself, be deemed guilty of any crime; the law taking no cognisance of his actions, but only in the persons of his ministers, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the ancient limits or the boundaries prescribed by the constitution; he can make no new laws, nor raise any new taxes, nor act in opposition to any of the laws: but he can make war or peace; send and receive ambassadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the suppression of rebellions; grant commissions to his officers, both by sea and land, or revoke them at pleasure; dispose of all magazines, castles, &c.; summon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, pro- rogue, or dissolve it at pleasure; refuse his assent to any bill, though it has passed both houses; which, consequently, by such a refusal, has no more force that if it had never been moved—-but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very seldom ventured to exercise. He possesses the right of choosing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of state, of the household, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

Of the Parliament.]—Parliaments, or general councils, in some shape, are, as has been before observed, of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this island, and coeval with the kingdom itself. Blackstone, in his valuable Commentaries, says, "It is generally agreed, that in the main the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the Great Charter granted by that prince; wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, lords, and greater barons, personally; and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the sheriffs and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with forty days notice, to assess aids and scutages when necessary. And this constitution hath subsis- ed, in fact, at least from the year 1266, 49 Henry III., there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burgesses to parliament."

The parliament is assembled by the king's writs, and its sitting must not be inter- muted above three years. Its constituent parts are, the king, sitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm—the lords spiritual, the lords tem- poral, who sit together with the king in one house, and the commons, who sit by them- selves in another. The king and these three estates, together, form the great corpora- tion or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is said to be caput, principium, et finis: for, upon their coming together, the king meets them, either in person or by representation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he also has alone the power of dissolving them.

It is highly necessary, for preserving the balance of the constitution, that the executive power should be a branch, though not the whole, of the legislature. The crown cannot begin of itself any alterations in the present established law; but it may approve or disapprove of the alterations suggested and consented to by the two houses. The legislative, therefore, cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own consent; since the law must perpetually stand as it now does, unless all the powers will agree to alter it. And herein indeed consists the true excellence of the English government, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon
each other. In the legislature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people, by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has resolved; while the king is a check upon both; which preserves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords spiritual consists of two archbishops and twenty-four bishops, with four bishops from Ireland. The lords temporal consist of all the peers of the realm—the bishops not being in strictness held to be such, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers sit by descent, as do all ancient peers; some by creation, as do all the new-madem ones; others, since the unions with Scotland and Ireland, by election, which is the case of the sixteen peers who represent the body of the Scotch nobility, and the twenty-eight Irish peers who represent the Irish nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increased at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly necessary in our mixed and compounded constitution, in order to support the rights of both the crown and the people, by forming a barrier to withstand the encroachments of both. It creates and preserves that gradual scale of dignity, which proceeds from the peasant to the prince; rising like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminishing to a point as it rises. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to support the throne; and if that falls, they must also be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when the commons in the long parliament had determined to extirpate monarchy, they also voted the house of lords to be useless and dangerous.

The commons consist of all such men of any property in the kingdom as have not seats in the house of lords; every one of whom has a voice in parliament, either personally, or by his representative*. In a free state, every man who is supposed a free agent, ought to be, in some measure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at least of the legislative power should reside in the whole body of the people. In so large a state as ours, it is very wisely contrived that the people should do that by their representatives which it is impracticable to perform in person—representatives chosen by a number of minute and separate districts, wherein all the voters are, or easily may be, distinguished. The counties are therefore represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; the cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burgesses, chosen by the mercantile part, or supposed trading interest, of the nation. The number of English representatives is 513, of Scotch 45, and of Irish 100; in all 658. And every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm. For the end of his going thither is not particular, but general; not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth, and to advise his majesty, as appears from the writ of summons.

These are the constituent parts of parliament, the king, the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons; parts, of which each is so necessary, that the consent of all three is required to make any new law that shall bind the subject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no statute; and to it no regard is due, unless in matters relating to their own privileges.

The power and jurisdiction of parliament, says Sir Edward Coke, is so transcendant and absolute, that it cannot be confined, either for causes or persons, within any bounds. It hath sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal; this being the place where that absolute despotic power, which must in all governments reside somewhere, is intrusted by the constitution of these kingdoms. All mischiefs and grievances, oppressions and remedies, that transcend the ordinary course

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* This must be understood with some limitation. Those who are possessed of land estates, though to the value of only 40s. per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have most of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which send no members to parliament; and of those towns which do send members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thousand persons of great personal property have, therefore, no representatives.
of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or
new-model the succession to the crown, as was done in the reigns of Henry VIII. and
William III. It can alter and establish the religion of the land, as was done in a variety
of instances in the reigns of Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI., Mary,
and Elizabeth. It can change and create afresh even the constitution of the king-
dom, and of parliaments themselves, as was done by the act of union, and the several
statutes for triennial and septennial elections. It can, in short, do every thing that is
not naturally impossible, and therefore some have not scrupled to call its power by a
figure rather too bold, the omnipotence of parliament. But then its power, however
great, was given to it in trust, and therefore ought to be employed according to the
rules of justice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is
a matter most essential to the liberties of the kingdom, that such members be delegat-
ed to this important trust as are most eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and
their knowledge; for it was a known apothegm of the great lord-treasurer Burleigh,
"That England could never be ruined but by a parliament;" and, as Sir Matthew
Hale observes, this being the highest and greatest court, over which none other can
have jurisdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a misgovernment should any way
fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of legal remedy.
In order to prevent the mischiefs that might arise by placing this extensive authority
in hands that are either incapable or improper to manage it, it is provided, that no one
shall sit or vote in either house of parliament, unless he be twenty-one years of age.
To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member shall
vote or sit in either house, till he hath, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths
of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, and subscribed and repeated the declaration
against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. To
prevent dangers that may arise to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connections,
or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of
Great Britain, even though he be naturalised, shall be capable of being a member of
either house of parliament.

Some of the most important privileges of the members of either house are, privilege
of speech, of person, of their domestics, and their lands and goods. As to the first,
privilege of speech, it is declared by the statute of 1 W. and M. st. 2. c. 2., as one of
the liberties of the people, "That the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings
in parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of
parliament." And this freedom of speech is particularly demanded of the king in
person, by the speaker of the house of commons, at the opening of every new parlia-
ment. So are the other privileges, of person, servants, lands, and goods. This in-
cludes not only privilege from illegal violence, but also from legal arrests, and seizures
by process from the courts of law. To assault by violence a member of either house,
or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there punished with the
utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be arrested and taken into
custody, nor served with any process of the courts of law; nor can his menial servants
be arrested; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor formerly could his goods be
distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament *

The house of lords have a right to be attended, and consequently are, by the judges
of the courts of king's bench and common pleas, and such of the barons of the exche-
quer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made serjeants at law, as likewise
by the masters of the court of chancery, for their advice in points of law, and for the
greater dignity of their proceedings.
The speaker of the house of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord keeper of
the great seal, which dignities are commonly vested in the same person.

* This exemption from arrests for lawful debts was always considered by the public as a grievance.
The lords and commons therefore generously relinquished their privileges by act of parliament in 1770,
and members of both houses may now be sued like other debtors.
Each peer has a right, by leave of the house, as being his own representative, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons of such dissent, which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasions, however, these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the majority of the house, and have therefore been expunged from their journals; but this has always been thought a violent measure.

The house of commons may be properly styled the grand inquest of Great Britain, empowered to inquire into all national grievances. The peculiar laws and customs of the house of commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament. With regard to taxes—it is the ancient indisputable privilege and right of the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their house, and are first bestowed by them, although their grants are not effectual, to all intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason given for this exclusive privilege of the house of commons is, that the supplies are raised upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves; and so reasonably jealous are the commons of this privilege, that herein they will not suffer the other house to exert any power but that of rejecting; they will not permit the least alteration or amendment to be made by the lords in the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill. Under this appellation are included all bills by which money is directed to be raised upon the subject, for any purpose, or in any shape whatsoever, either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land-tax, or for private benefit, and collected in any particular district, as by turnpikes, parish-rates, or in any other manner.

The method of making laws is much the same in both houses. In each house, the act of the majority binds the whole; and this majority is declared by votes publically and openly given; not privately, or by ballot. The latter method might, perhaps, be serviceable to prevent intrigues and unconstitutional combinations; but it is impossible to be practised with us, at least in the house of commons, where every member's conduct is subject to the future censure of his constituents, and therefore should be openly submitted to their inspection.

To bring a bill into the house of commons, if the relief sought by it be of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition, which must be presented by a member, and usually sets forth the grievance desired to be remedied. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the house; and then (or, otherwise, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house without any petition. (In the house of lords, if the bill begin there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges to examine and report the state of the facts alleged, to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a first time; and, at a convenient distance, a second time; and after each reading, the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question whether it shall proceed any further. The introduction of the bill may be originally opposed, as the bill itself may, at either of the readings; and if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropped for that session; as it must also, if opposed with success in any of the subsequent stages.

After the second reading, it is committed; that is, referred to a committee, which is either selected by the house, in matters of small importance; or else, if the bill is a matter of great or national consequence, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole house. A committee of the whole house is composed of every member; and, to form it, the speaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman), and may sit and debate as a private member. In these committees the bill is debated clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill is entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made; and then the house re-consider the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put upon every
clause and amendment. When the house have agreed or disagreed to the amendments of the committee, and sometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment sewed together. When this is finished, it is read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it; and, if a new clause be added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The speaker then again opens the contents, and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question, whether the bill shall pass. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then settled. After this it is carried to the lords, for their concurrence, by one of the members, who, attended by several more, presents it at the bar of the house of peers, and there delivers it to their speaker, who comes down from his wool-sack to receive it. It there passes through the same forms as in the other house, (except engrossing, which is already done), and, if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it passes sub silentio, to prevent unbecomingaltercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords send a message by two masters in chancery (or sometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the same; and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, such amendments are sent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons disagree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house, who, for the most part, settle and adjust the difference; but if both houses remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is sent back to the lords by one of the members, with a message to acquaint them therewith. The same forms are observed, mutatis mutandis, when the bill begins in the house of lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is passed, it is first signed by his majesty, and then read once only in each of the houses, without any new engrossing or amendment. And when both houses have done with any bill, it always is deposited in the house of peers, to await the royal assent, except in the case of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is sent back to the house of commons. It may be necessary here to acquaint the reader, that, both in the houses and in their committees, the slightest expression, or most minute alteration, does not pass till the speaker or the chairman puts the question; which, in the house of commons, is answered by aye or no; and in the house of peers, by content or not content.

The giving the royal assent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to pass bills in person, he appears on his throne in the house of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of state, and heralds. A seat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England formerly sat, is reserved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood sit on the left hand of the king, and the chancellor on a close bench removed a little backwards. The viscounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches, or wool-packs, covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of bishops runs along the house, to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, sit upon wool-packs, between the barons, and the throne. The common opinion is, that the house sitting on wool is symbolical of wool being formerly the staple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on solemn occasions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the speaker, who wears a long black silk gown; and when he appears before the king, it is trimmed with gold.

The royal assent may be given two ways; 1. In person. When the king sends for the house of commons to the house of peers, the speaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addresses his majesty in a solemn speech, in which he seldom fails to extol the generosity and loyalty of the commons, and to tell his majesty how necessary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occasion that the commons of Great Britain appear in their highest lustre. The titles of all bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king’s answer is declared by the clerk of the Parliament in Norman French. If the king consents to a public bill, the clerk usually declares, le roi le veut, “the king wills it so to be;” if to a private bill, soit fait comme il est desire, “be it as it is desired.” If the king refuses his assent,
it is in the gentle language of le roy s'avisera, "The king will advise upon it." When a money-bill is passed, it is carried up and presented to the king by the speaker of the house of commons, and the royal assent is thus expressed: le roy remercic ses loyal sub-
jects, accepte leur benevolence, et aussi le veut, "The king thanks his loyal subjects, ac-
cets their benevolence, and wills it so to be." In case of an act of grace, which
originally proceeds from the crown, and has the royal assent in the first stage of it, the
clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the subject: les prelatcs, seig-
neurs, et communs, en ce present parliament assembes, au nom de tous vos autres sub-
jects, remercient tres humblement votre majestc, et prient a Dieu vous donner en sante
bonne vie et longue: " the prelates, lords, and commons, in this present parliament as-
sembled, in the name of all your other subjects, most humbly thank your majesty, and
pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the statute 33 Henry
VIII. c. 21. the king may give his assent by letters patent under his great seal, signed
with his hand, and notified, in his absence, to both houses assembled together in the
high house, by commissioners consisting of certain peers named in the letters. And,
when the bill has received the royal assent in either of these ways, it is then, and not
before, a statute or act of parliament.

The statute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no
formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was necessary by the civil law with
regard to the imperial edicts; because every man in England is, in judgement of law,
party to the making of an act of Parliament, being present thereat by his representa-
tives. However, copies thereof are usually printed at the king's press, for the informa-
tion of the whole land.

From the above general view of the English constitution, it appears that no security for
its permanency, which the wit of man can devise, is wanting. If it should be objected
that parliaments may become so corrupted, as to give up or betray the liberties of the
people, the answer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are supposed to
watch over their political existence, as a private person does over his natural life. If
a parliament were to act in that manner, it must become feto de se, an evil that no
human provisions can guard against. But there are great resources of liberty in Eng-
lnd; and though the constitution has been sometimes dangerously wounded, and even
overturned, yet its own innate powers have recovered and still preserve it.

The king of England, besides his high court of parliament, has subordinate officers
and ministers to assist him, and who are responsible for their advice and conduct. They
are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and, on taking the
requisite oaths, they become immediately privy-councillors during the life of the king
that chooses them, but subject to removal at his pleasure.

The duty of a privy-councillor appears from the oath of office, which consists of
seven articles: 1. To advise the king according to the best of his cunning and discre-
tion. 2. To advise for the king's honour, and good of the public, without partiality
through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counsel secret.
4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and strengthen the execution of what shall be
there resolved. 6. To withstand all persons who would attempt the contrary. And,
lastly, in general, 7. To observe, keep, and do all that a good and true counsellor ought
to do to his sovereign lord.

As no government can be so complete as to be provided with laws that may answer
every unforeseen emergency, the privy-council, in such cases, can supply the deficiency.
Upon great and urgent occasions, such as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they can
supersede the operation of the law, if the parliament is not sitting; but this is consid-
ered as illegal, and an act of parliament must pass for the pardon and indemnification
of those concerned.

The office of secretary of state was formerly divided into a southern and a northern
department. The southern contained France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiss cantons,
Constantinople, and, in short, all the states in the southern parts. The northern com-
prehended the different states of Germany, Prussia, Poland, Russia, Sweden, Denmark,
Holland, Flanders, and the Hanseatic towns. This distinction is now abolished; and
there is one secretary for foreign affairs, and another for the home department. Dur-
ing the American war, there was a third secretary of state, whose office was revived in 1794, by the title of secretary for the war department.

The cabinet-council is a committee of the privy-council, consisting of a select number of ministers and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court; but though its operations are powerful and extensive, a cabinet-council is not essential to the constitution of England.

This observation naturally leads us to mention the person who is so well known by the name of the first minister; a term unknown to the English constitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps necessary. The constitution points out the lord high chancellor as minister; but the affairs of his own court give him sufficient employment. When the office of the first lord of the treasury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which we shall explain hereafter) in the same person, he is considered as first minister. The truth is, his majesty may make any of his servants his first minister. But though it is no office, yet there is a responsibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a post of difficulty and danger. We shall now take a short review of the nine great officers of the crown, who by their posts, take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The first is the lord high steward of England. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at least for life: but now, and for centuries past, it is exercised only occasionally; that is, at a coronation, or to sit as a judge on a peer or peeress, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held, for that day only, by some nobleman of the first rank. In cases of trials, it is exercised generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper, whose commission as high steward ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor presides in the court of chancery, to moderate the severities of the law in all cases in which the property of the subject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reason. He is an officer of the greatest weight and power of any now subsisting in the kingdom, and is superior in precedence to every temporal lord. He is a privy-councillor by his office; and, according to some, prolocutor of the house of lords by prescription. To him belongs the appointment of all justices of the peace; he is visitor, in right of the king, of all hospitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 30l. per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and hath the superintendence of all charitable uses in the kingdom, over and above the extensive jurisdiction which he exercises in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The post of lord high treasurer has of late been vested in a commission, consisting of five persons, who are called lords of the treasury: but the first commissioner is supposed to possess the power of lord high treasurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the exchequer; as also the letting of the leases of all crown lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the customs in the several ports of the kingdom.

The lord president of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor and lord treasurer. His duty is to propose all the business transacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majesty is not present, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vast number of American and West-Indian causes, captures, and the like affairs that come before the board; all which may be abridged, to the vast convenience of the subject, by an able president.

The office of lord privy seal consists in his putting the king's seal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are signed by the king, in order to their passing the great seal; and he is responsible if he should apply the privy seal to any thing against the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary in the duke of Ancaster's family. He attends the king's person, on his coronation, to dress him: he has likewise charge of the house of lords during the sitting of parliament; and of fitting up Westminster-hall for coronations, trials of peers, or impeachments.
The office of lord high constable has been disused since the attainder and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, but is occasionally revived for a coronation.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marshal of England. Before England became so commercial a country as it has been for a hundred years past, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the English history, for its discharge. In war time he was judge of army causes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cause did not admit of such a decision, it was left to a personal combat, which was attended with a vast variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the smallest trifle, fell within the marshal's province. To this day he or his deputy regulates all points of precedence according to the archives kept in the herald's office, which is entirely within his jurisdiction. He directs all solemn processions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings, and the like.

The office of lord high admiral of England is now likewise held by commission, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, especially since the increase of the British naval power. The English admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itself. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and held under a commission immediately issuing from that board; and the members must sign even the death-warrants for execution. The board of admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named: so that its jurisdiction is very extensive. The commissioners appoint vice-admirals under them: but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admiralty, which is of a civil nature. This court is held in London; and all its processes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or those of the commissioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at sea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witnesses and a jury, ever since the reign of Henry VIII.

 Courts of Law and Laws.] The court of chancery, which is the court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is designed to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions, and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor sits as sole judge, and, in his absence, the master of the rolls. This court is always open; and if a man be sent to prison, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he sees reason for it, grant a habeas corpus.

The king's bench—so called either from the kings of England sometimes sitting there in person, or because all matters determinable by common law between the king and his subjects are here tried, except such affairs as properly belong to the court of exchequer, is, likewise, a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Here preside four judges, the first of whom is styled lord chief justice of England, to express the great extent of his jurisdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cause depending either in spiritual or temporal courts; and the house of peers does often direct the lord chief justice to issue out his warrant for apprehending persons under suspicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called justices, or judges, of the king's bench.

The court of common pleas takes cognisance of all pleas debatable, and civil actions depending, between subject and subject; and in it, besides all real actions, fines and recoveries are transacted, and prohibitions are likewise issued out of it, as well as from the king's bench. The first judge of this court is styled lord chief justice of the common pleas, or common bench: beside whom there are likewise three other judges or justices of this court. None but serjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of exchequer was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the pro-

* The last lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark, and husband to Queen Anne.
ceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the exchequer, and three other barons, preside as judges. They are styled barons, because formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. Besides these, there is a fifth, called curator baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in administering the oath to sheriffs and other officers, and also to several of the officers of the custom-house. But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treasurer and the chancellor of the exchequer preside, assisted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treasury, revenue, customs, and fines, are here tried and determined. Besides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and states all accounts of the revenue, customs, excise, parliamentary aids and subsidies, &c. except the accounts of the sheriffs and their officers; the lord treasurer's remembrancer, whose business it is to make out processes against sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-sheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Westmorland and Middlesex) by the king *; whose office is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's courts of justice; to impanel juries; to bring causes and matters of trial; to see sentence, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the assize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. He is likewise to decide the elections of knights of the shire, of coroners and verderers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return such as he shall determine to be duly elected. It is also part of his office to collect all public fines, distresses, amerciaments, into the exchequer, or where the king shall appoint, and to make such payments out of them as his majesty shall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court called the county court, which is held by the sheriff, or his under-sheriffs, to hear and determine all civil causes in the county, under forty shillings: this, however, is no court of record; but the court, formerly called the sheriff's tourn, was one, and the king's leet through all the county; for in this court inquiry was made into all criminal offences against the common law, where by the statute law there was no restraint. This court, however, has been long since abolished. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and special commission, he is the first man in the county, and superior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the pose comitatus, or power of the county.

Under the sheriff are various officers, as the under-sheriffs, clerks, stewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called serjeants), constables, jailors, beadle, &c.

The next officer to the sheriff is the justice of peace, several of whom are commissioned for each county: and to them is intrusted the power of putting great part of the statute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treasons, felonies, riots, the preservation of the game, &c. &c.; and they examine and commit to prison all who break or disturb the peace, and disquiet the king's subjects. In order to punish the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inquest of the county, is summoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to inquire into the cases of all delinquents, and to present them by bill, guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the justices commit the former to jail for their trial at the next assizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-sessions for the county. The justice of peace ought to be a person of great good sense, sagacity, and integrity, and to be not without some knowledge of the law: for otherwise he may commit mistakes, or abuse his authority; for which, however, he is amenable to the court of King's Bench.

Each county contains two coroners, who are to inquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any person came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea.

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* Sheriffs were formerly chosen by the inhabitants of the several counties. In some counties the sheriffs were formerly hereditary, and still continue in the county of Westmorland. The city of London hath also the inheritance of the shrievalty of Middlesex vested in their body by charter.
of the crown. Another branch of their office is to inquire concerning shipwreck, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods. In their ministerial office, they are the sheriff's substitutes.

The civil government of cities is a kind of small independent policy of itself; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a jurisdiction within itself, to judge in all matters civil and criminal; with this restraint only, that all civil causes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Westminster; and all offences that are capital are committed to the judge of the assize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and constitutions. They are constituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgesses, who, together, make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor presides as judge. Some cities are counties, and choose their own sheriffs; and all of them have a power of making byelaws for their own government. Some have thought the government of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common-council, is an epitome of the English government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the same manner: in some there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; all which, during their mayority or magistracy, are justices of the peace within their liberties, and consequently esquires.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly esteemed most important ones, that lie on the east part of England towards France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hastings, and Hythe, to which Winchelsea and Rye have been since added, with similar franchises in many respects. These seven ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they should provide a certain number of ships, at their own charge, to serve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the soil or manor (who were formerly called barons) have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive justice. The business of courts-leet is chiefly to prevent and punish nuisances; and at courts-baron the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their estates on descent or purchase.

A constable is a very ancient and respectable officer of the peace, under the English constitution. Every hundred has a high-constable, and every parish in that hundred a constable; and the latter are to attend the high-constable upon proper occasions. They are assisted by another ancient officer called the tithingman, who formerly superintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burgis, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, each free burgi consisting of ten families. The business of constable is to keep the peace in all cases of quarrels and riots. He can imprison offenders till they are brought before a justice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his district, every warrant that is directed to him from that magistrate, or a bench of justices. The neglect of the old Saxon courts, both for the preservation of the peace, and the more easy recovery of small debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawyers; and it has of late been found necessary to revive some of them, and to appoint others of a similar nature.

Besides these, there are courts of conscience in many parts of England, for the relief of the poor in the recovery of payment of small debts, not exceeding five pounds.

Among the peculiar usages of the country, derived to us from the venerable laws of our Saxon ancestors, the most remarkable, perhaps, are the customs of gavel-kind and borough-English, which still exist in Kent and some other counties. By the former of these all the sons inherit equally, and share the estate between them; and by the latter, the youngest son succeeds to the inheritance; it being presumed, say the old lawyers, that the elder sons have learned their father's occupation, and thus are provided for.

Of the private relations of persons, the first is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of husband and wife; or, as most of our elder law books call them, baron and feme. The holiness of the matrimonial state is left entirely to the ecclesiastical law; the punishment, therefore, or annulling of incestuous or other unscriptural marriages, is the province of spiritual courts.
There are two kinds of divorce; the one total, the other partial. The total divorce must be for some of the canonical causes of impediment, and those existing before the marriage; as consanguinity, affinity, or corporeal imbecility. The issue of such marriage, as it is thus entirely dissolved, are bastards.

The other kind of divorce is when the marriage is just and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of dissolving it; but, for some supervenient cause, it becomes improper, or impossible, for the parties to live together; as in the case of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this case the law allows alimony to the wife (except when, for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years), which is that allowance which is made to a woman for her support out of the husband's estate, being settled at the discretion of the ecclesiastical judge, on the consideration of all the circumstances of the case, and the rank and quality of the parties.

In the civil law, the husband and the wife are considered as two distinct persons; and may have separate estates, contracts, debts, and injuries; and therefore in our ecclesiastical courts a woman may sue, and be sued, without her husband.

But though our law in general considers man and wife as one person, yet there are some instances in which she is separately considered as inferior to him, and acting by his compulsion. And therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which case she must be solely and secretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will devise land to her husband, unless under special circumstances; for, at the time of making it, she is supposed to be under his coercion. And some felonies, and other inferior crimes, committed by her through constraint of her husband, the law excuses her; but this extends not to treason or murder.

The husband also (by the old, and likewise by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to answer for her misbehaviour, the law thought it reasonable to intrust him with this power of restraining her by domestic chastisement, in the same moderation that a man is allowed to correct his servants or children; for whom the master or parent is also liable in some cases to answer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have security of peace against her husband; or, in return, a husband against his wife: yet the lower ranks of people, who were always fond of the old common law, still claim and exert their ancient privilege; and the courts of law will still permit a husband to restrain a wife of her liberty, in case of any gross misbehaviour.

These are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may observe, that even the disabilities which the wife lies under are for the most part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female sex with the laws of England.

There neither is, nor ever was, any constitution provided with so many fences as that of England is, for the security of personal liberty. Every man imprisoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge at Westminster-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after considering the cause of commitment, shall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of justice.

The rights of individuals are so attentively guarded, that the subject may, without the least danger, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name, and under his authority: he may do this in an open court, where the king may be cast, and be obliged to pay damages to his subject. The king cannot take away the liberty of the meanest individual, unless he has, by some illegal act of which he is accused or suspected upon oath, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think the public safety makes it necessary that he should have power of confining persons on such a suspicion of guilt; such as the case of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legislature has sometimes thought proper to pass a temporary suspension of the Habeas-Corpus act. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he, nor the judges to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be first found guilty by twelve men, who must be his peers or his
equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king or his ministers to misrepresent the case to the jury, they have their salaries for life, and not during the pleasure of their sovereign. Neither can the king take away or endanger the life of any subject, without trial, and the persons being first chargeable with a capital crime, as treason, murder, felony, or some other act injurious to society; nor can any subject be deprived of his liberty, for the highest crime, till some proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magistrate; and he has then a right to insist upon his being brought, the first opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be restored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he must not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or country in which the fact is alleged to be committed, and not unless twelve of them agree to a bill of indictment against him. If they do this, he is to stand a second trial before twelve other men, whose opinion is definite. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted, that where either party is an alien born, the jury shall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial;—a privilege indulged to strangers in no other country in the world, but which is as ancient with us as the time of King Etheldred. In some cases, the prisoner (who is always supposed innocent till there be sufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of the indictment, in order to assist him to make his defence. He is also furnished with the pannel, or list of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and discover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced against him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number; and to as many more as he can give reason for their not being admitted as his judges; till at last twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accused, or living near the place where the supposed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they shall well and truly try, and true deliverance make between the king and the prisoner, whom they shall have in charge, according to the evidence. By challenging the jury, the prisoner prevents all possibility of bribery, or the influence of any superior power; by there living near the place where the fact was committed, they are supposed to be men who knew the prisoner’s course of life, and the credit of the evidence. These only are the judges from whose sentence the prisoner is to expect life or death; and upon their integrity and understanding the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgement there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and, after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined, without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the prisoner. Every jurymen is therefore vested with a solemn and awful trust: if he without evidence submit his opinion to that of any other of the jury, or yield in complaisance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglect to examine with the utmost care, if he question the veracity of the witnesses, who may be of an infamous character; or, after the most impartial hearing, have the least doubt upon his mind, and yet join in condemning the person accused, he will wound his own conscience, and bring upon himself the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Englishmen consists in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them, for declaring a man innocent whom he wishes to bring in guilty. Were not this the case, juries would be useless; for, far from being judges themselves, they would only be the tools of another, whose province is not to guide, but to give a sanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the subject, and the judge on the bench be the minister of the prince’s vengeance.

Trial by jury is so capital a privilege, and so great a security to the liberty of the subject, that it is much to be regretted that persons of education and property are often too ready to evade serving the office. By this means juries frequently consist of ignorant and illiterate persons, who neither have knowledge enough to understand their rights and the privileges of Englishmen, nor spirit enough to maintain them. No man should be above serving so important an office, when regularly called upon; and those who,
from indolence or pride, decline discharging this duty to their country, seem hardly to
deserve that security and liberty which the inhabitants of England derive from this
invaluable institution. Juries have, indeed, always been considered as giving the most ef-
fectual check to tyranny: for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing against
law, they are a security that he shall never make the laws, by a bad administration, the
instruments of cruelty and oppression. Were it not for juries, the advice given by fa-
ther Paul, in his maxims of the republic at Venice, might take effect in its fullest lati-
tude: "When the offence is committed by a nobleman against a subject," says he, "let
all ways be tried to justify him; and if that be not possible to be done, let him be chas-
tised with greater noise than damage. If it be a subject that has affronted a nobleman,
let him be punished with the utmost severity, that the subjects may not get too great a
custom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In short, were it not for juries, a
corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleased, act the tyrant, while the judge would
have the power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy constitution,
which breathes nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to
the meanest as well as the greatest. When a prisoner is brought to take his trial, he is
freed from all bonds; and, though the judges are supposed to be counsel for the prisoner,
yet as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cause, other counsel are allowed
him: he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may set it aside, if it
be contrary to law. Nothing is wanting to clear up the cause of innocence, and to pre-
vent the sufferer from sinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppression
of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made use of in other parts of Europe,
to make a man accuse himself, are here unknown, and none punished without convic-
tion, but he who refuses to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations,
the following account may be useful to foreigners and others, who have not seen those
proceedings.

The court being met, and the prisoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to
hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accused, and asks him
whether he is guilty or not guilty. If the prisoner answer, Guilty, his trial is at an end;
but if he answer, Not guilty, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before
have confessed the fact: for the law of England takes no notice of such confession; and
unless the witnesses, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury must
acquit him; for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence:
given in court. If the prisoner refuse to plead, that is, if he will not say in court wheth-
er he is guilty or not guilty, he might, till lately, by the law of England, be pressed
to death, with a load of iron upon his breast; but at present the same sentence is pas-
sed on him as in case of conviction.

When the witnesses have given in their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or
his counsel, cross-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the substance of the evi-
dence given against the prisoner, and bids them discharge their conscience: when, if the
matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court;
and the foreman, for himself and the rest, declares the prisoner Guilty or Not guilty, as it
may happen to be. But if any doubt arise amongst the jury, and the matter require de-
bate, they all withdraw into a room, with a copy of the indictment, where they are
locked up till they are unanimously agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury
should die during this their confinement, the prisoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court by an officer who
waits without, and the prisoner is again set to the bar to hear his verdict. This is un-
alterable, except in some doubtful cases, when the verdict is brought in special, and is
therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the prisoner be found guilty, he is then asked what reason he can give why sentence
of death should not be passed upon him? There is now properly no benefit of clergy;
it is changed to transportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction, the
sentence of death, after a summary account of the trial, is pronounced on the prisoner,
in these words: The law is, That thou shalt return to the place from whence thou camest,
and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou shalt be hanged by the
neck till thy body be dead; and the Lord have mercy on thy soul! whereupon the sheriff is charged with the execution.

All the prisoners found not guilty by the jury, are immediately acquitted and discharged, and in some cases obtain a copy of their indictment from the court, to proceed at law against their prosecutors.

Of punishments.] The law of England includes all capital crimes under high treason, petty treason, and felony. The first consists in plotting, conspiring, or rising up in arms against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for some minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burnt; the head is then cut off, and the body quartered; after which it has been usual to fix the head on some conspicuous place. All the criminal’s lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loses her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treason, the criminal is only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the sentence passed upon all traitors is the same, yet, with respect to persons of quality, the punishment is generally altered to beheading: a scaffold is erected for that purpose, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is struck off with an axe.

The punishment for misprision of high treason—that is, for neglecting or concealing it—is imprisonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits arising from his lands.

Petty treason is when a child kills his father, a wife her husband, a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress. This crime is punished by the offender’s being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty of this crime, or of high treason, were sentenced to be burnt alive; but this law has been lately repealed, and the punishment of burning abolished.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. These are all punished by hanging: only murderers † are to be executed soon after sentence is passed, and then delivered to the surgeons in order to be publicly dissected. Persons guilty of robbery, when there are some alleviating circumstances, are generally condemned to hard labour upon the river, or transported for a term of years, or for life, to Botany Bay.

Other crimes punished by the laws are,

Manslaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a person without premeditated malice, but with a present intent to kill; as when two, who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other; in this case the criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy, for the first time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent; for which the offender is also to be burnt in the hand, unless the offender was doing an unlawful act; which last circumstance makes the punishment death.

Shop-lifting, and receiving goods known to be stolen, are punished with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, or keeping disorderly houses, are punished with the pillory and imprisonment.

Petty larceny, or small theft, under the value of twelve pence, is punished by whipping.

Libelling, using false weights and measures, and forestalling the market, are commonly punished with standing on the pillory.

For striking, so as to draw blood, in the king’s court, the criminal is punished with losing his right hand.

* This is not to be considered as a different punishment, but as a remission of all the parts of the sentence mentioned above, excepting the article of beheading.

† By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after sentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, so that they obtain a reprieve till Monday.
For striking in Westminster-hall, while the courts of justice are sitting, the punishment is imprisonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's estate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and loose, idle, disorderly persons, are punished by being set in the stocks, or by paying a fine.

**Military and Marine Force of Great Britain.** The military state includes the whole of the soldiery, or such persons as are peculiarly appointed, among the rest of the people, for the safeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a distinct order of the profession of arms. In such, no man should take up arms, but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is because he is a citizen, and would wish to continue so, that he makes himself for a while a soldier. The laws and constitution of these kingdoms know no such state as that of a perpetual standing soldier, bred up to no other profession than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had so much as a guard about their persons.

It seems universally agreed by all historians, that king Alfred first settled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent discipline made all the subjects of his dominions soldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in case of domestic insurrections, or the prospect of foreign invasions. Besides those who, by their military tenures, were bound to perform forty days service in the field, the statute of Winchester obliged every man, according to his estate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of such arms as were then in use, in order to keep the peace; and constables were appointed in all hundreds, to see that such arms were provided. These weapons were changed by the statute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern service; but both this and the former provisions were repealed in the reign of James I. While these continued in force, it was usual, from time to time, for our princes to issue commissions of array, and send into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muster and array (or set in military order) the inhabitants of every district; and the form of the commission of array was settled in parliament in the 5th Henry IV. But at the same time it was provided, that no man should be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his shire, but in cases of urgent necessity; nor should provide soldiers unless by consent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as standing representatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order: for we find them mentioned as known officers in the statute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in use; for Camden speaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magistrates, constituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the restoration of king Charles II., when the military tenures were abolished, it was thought proper to ascertain the power of the militia, to recognise the sole right of the crown to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military subordination; and the order in which the militia now stands by law, is principally built upon the statutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two last of them are apparently repealed; but many of their provisions are re-enacted, with the addition of some new regulations, by the present militia laws; the general scheme of which is, to discipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, chosen by lot for five years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commission from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unless in case of an invasion, or actual rebellion, nor in any case to be sent out of the kingdom. They are to be exercised at stated times, and their discipline in general is liberal and easy: but when drawn out in actual service, they are subject to the rigours of martial law, as necessary to keep them in order. This is the constitutional security which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm against foreign or domestic violence, and which the statutes declare is essentially necessary to the safety and prosperity of the kingdom.

But as the mode of keeping standing armies has universally prevailed over all Europe of late years, it has also for many years past been annually judged necessary by our le-
Legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, the defence of the possessions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in the time of peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, ipso facto, disbanded at the expiration of every year, unless continued by parliament. The land forces of these kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garrisons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the East Indies, and America; but in time of war the number is much greater. The total number of troops on service in the year 1804, according to the statement of the secretary at war (Mr Yorke), was 252,841 men, consisting of 20,324 regular cavalry; 133,267 regular infantry, including officers and men; 87,652 militia; and 26,000 of the army of reserve: there were besides, of artillery, 14,202, making the total number of our actual force 267,243 men. To govern this body of troops, an annual act of parliament passes, "to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed among the several inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and establishes a law-martial for their government.

To this great and efficient force we are also now to add nearly 400,000 volunteers, who have bravely taken up arms to defend their country, should our inveterate foe attempt to carry into execution his haughty and insolent menace of invasion.

The maritime state is nearly related to the former, though much more agreeable to the principles of our free constitution. The royal navy of England has ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural strength; the floating bulwark of the island; an army, from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been assiduously cultivated, even from the earliest ages. To so much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the Laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and substraction of all their marine constitutions, was confessedly compiled by our king Richard I., at the isle of Oleron, on the coast of France, then part of the possessions of the crown of England. And yet, so vastly inferior were our ancestors in this point to the present age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, Sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boast that the royal navy of England then consisted of 33 ships. The present condition of our marine is in a great measure owing to the salutary provisions of the statute called the Navigation Act; whereby a constant increase of English shipping and seamen was not only encouraged, butrendered unavoidably necessary. The most beneficial statute for the trade and commerce of these kingdoms is that navigation act; the rudiments of which were first framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the sugar islands, which were disaffected to the parliament, and still held out for Charles II., by stopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the same time to clip the wings of those our opulent and aspiring neighbours. This act prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with any English plantations without licence from the council of state. In 1651 the prohibition was extended also to the mother country; and no goods were suffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms, or in the ships of that European nation of which the merchandise imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Restoration, the former provisions were continued by statute 12 Car. II. c. 18., with this very material improvement, that the masters and three-fourths of the mariners shall also be English subjects.

The complement of seamen, in time of peace, usually has amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war, they formerly amounted to about 30,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, to above 100,000, including marines. The vote of parliament for the service of the years 1798 and 1799 was for 120,000 seamen, including marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three squadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are so termed from the difference of their colours. Each squadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red squadron has the principal command of the whole, and is styled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is also a vice and
rare admiral. But the supreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commissioners of the admiralty. Notwithstanding our favourable situation for a maritime power, it was not until the vast armament sent to subdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully sensible of its true interest and natural strength, which it has since so happily cultivated.

We may safely affirm, that the British navy is able to cope with all the other fleets of Europe. The brilliant victories of lords St Vincent, Duncan, and Nelson, have established the unrivalled superiority of Britain over all the maritime powers of Europe. In the course of the late war she took from her enemies, including the Dutch ships surrendered for the Stadholder, 83 ships of the line, 111 frigates, 223 other ships of war, and 713 privateers, amounting in the whole to 1132 ships. At the beginning of the year 1800, the British naval force consisted of 144 ships of the line, in commission, 22 fifty-gun ships, 200 frigates, and 292 other ships of war: in the whole, 658 ships; and, including receiving ships, ships in ordinary and building, 902, of which 224 were of the line.

We shall close this account of the military and maritime strength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by observing, that though sea-officers and sailors are subject to a perpetual act of parliament, which answers the annual military act that is passed for the government of the army, yet neither of these bodies is exempted from legal jurisdiction in civil or criminal cases, but in a few instances of no great moment. The soldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magistrate to enable him to preserve the peace against all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the soldiers on those occasions is to take his directions from the magistrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified against all consequences, be they ever so fatal. Those civil magistrates who understand the principles of the constitution are however extremely cautious in calling for the military on these occasions, or upon any commotion whatever; and, indeed, with good reason; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded against with too much caution.

Coins.] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, shillings, and pence, twelve pence make a shilling, and twenty shillings one pound; which pound is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces consist only of guineas, half guineas, and seven shilling pieces; the silver of crowns, half-crowns, shillings, sixpences, groats, and even down to a silver penny: and the copper money, pence, halfpence, and farthings. In a country like England, where the intrinsic value of silver is nearly equal, and in some coins, crown-pieces particularly, superior to the nominal, the coinage of silver money is a matter of great consequence; and yet the present state of the national currency seems to demand a new coinage of shillings and sixpences; the intrinsic value of the latter being many of them worn down to one fourth of their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public losing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Besides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the Tower of London, but these are not generally current; nor is any silver coin that is lower than sixpence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II's reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

Royal Titles, Arms, and Orders.] The title of the king of England was formerly, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. But since the legislative union with Ireland it has been altered. What relates to France has been relinquished. It remains now George the III. by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The designation of the kings of England, was formerly his or her Grace, or Highness, till Henry VIII., to put himself on a footing with the emperor Charles V., assumed that of majesty; but the old designation was not abolished till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign.

The royal atchievement has undergone an alteration since the Union with Ireland. His majesty by royal proclamation directed that the arms of the united kingdoms should be quarterly, first and fourth England; second Scotland; third Ireland; and that there should likewise be born an escutcheon of pretence, the arms of H. M. dominions of Ger-
many, ensigned with the electoral bonnet. The standard of the united kingdom is the same quartering as the arms, together with the escutcheon of pretence. The union flag is azure, the crosses saltires of St Andrew or St Patrick, quartered per saltre counter, changed argent and gules; the latter fimbriated of the second, surmounted by the cross of St George, the third, fimbriated as the saltre.

The motto, *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who assumed it to shew his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almost every king of England had a particular badge or cognisance: sometimes a white hart, sometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is said Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his mistresses; and sometimes a portcullis, which was that of the house of Lancaster, many of the princes of which were born in the castle of Beaumont. The white rose was the bearing of the house of York; and that of Lancaster, by way of contradistinction, adopted the red. The thistle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very significant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune lacesset*, "None shall safely provoke me."

The titles of the king's eldest son, are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothesay, earl of Chester, electoral prince of Brunswick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the Isles, great steward of Scotland, and captain-general of the artillery company.

The order of the Garter, the most honourable of any in the world, was instituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It consists of the Sovereign, who is always king or queen of England, of 25 companions called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St George killing the dragon, supposed to be the tutelar saint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, suspended from a blue ribband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but since the latter end of James I. now crosses their bodies from their shoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was designed as an ensign of unity and combination; on it is embroidered the words, *Honi soit qui mal y pense*, "Evil to him who evil thinks."

Knights of the Bath, so called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are supposed to be instituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399, but the order seems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other solemn occasions, and they wear a scarlet ribband hanging from the left shoulder, with an enamelled medal, the badge of the order, a rose issuing from the dexter side of a sceptre, and a thistle from the sinister, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in uno*, "Three joined in one." This order being discontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 18th of May, 1725, and the month following, eighteen noblemen, and as many commoners of the first rank, were installed knights of the order with great ceremony, at Westminster, where the place of instalment is Henry VII's chapel. Their robes are splendid and shewy, and the number of knights is undetermined.

**History.** It is generally agreed that the first inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celts, that settled on the opposite shore; a supposition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion and complexion.

When Julius Caesar, about fifty years before the birth of Christ, meditated a conquest of Britain, the natives undoubtedly had great connexion with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and commerce, rude as the latter was. Caesar wrote the history of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vast difficulties, and attended by such advantages over the Islanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary and other authors, as well as Caesar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indecisive; nor did the Romans receive the least advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the island than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Caesar's descent, were governed in the time of war by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hertfordshire, and some of the adjacent countries, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for some time.
In this manner of life, as described by Caesar, and the best authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; but they certainly sowed corn, though perhaps, they chiefly subsisted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing was skins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were dexterous in the management of their chariots beyond credibility; and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognised as sovereigns of their particular districts. They favoured a primogeniture or seniority, in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconvenience attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have figures of animals, and heavenly bodies on their skins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themselves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original husband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Augustus Caesar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Caesar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful against Britain. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicia, though a woman, made noble stands against the Romans. The former was taken prisoner after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius, gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the histories of the times. Boadicia, being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards; as has been already seen in the history of Scotland, where his successes had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this island, they erected those walls I have so often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scois, and Picts; and we are told that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies abroad, on account of their superior strength of body, and courage of the inhabitants, when disciplined. That this was the case, appears plainly enough from the defenceless state of Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that island. I have already taken notice, that, during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under them the South Britons were reduced to a state of great vassalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave resistance against these tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unquestionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know no struggle they made in latter times, for their independency at home, notwithstanding the many favourable opportunities that presented themselves. The Roman emperors and generals while in this island, assisted by the Britons, were entirely employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the southern Britons retired northwards), and they appeared to have been in no pain about the southern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itself*, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire; and, that they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers: and having done this good office, took their last farewell of Britain.

* See the Introduction.
about the year 448, after having been masters of the most fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invasion of Julius Caesar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts, finding the whole island finally deserted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in those ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inspire. The poor Britons, like a helpless family deprived of their parent and protector, already subdued by their own fears, had again recourse to Rome, and sent over their miserable epistle for relief (still upon record), which was addressed in these words: To Aetius, thrice consul: The groans of the Britons; and after other lamentable complaints, said, That the barbarians drove them to the sea, and the sea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of perishing by the sword or by the waves. But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any succour from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief; Gildas, who was himself a Briton, describes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful strains, and gives some confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the Damnonii, by whose advice the Britons struck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English channel, and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progress of the Scots and Picts, and had the island of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time, Hengist and Horsa began to meditate a settlement for themselves; and fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent struggle of near 150 years, they subdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and descendants still remain.

Literature at this in England was so rude, that we know but little of its history. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public transactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a species of men whom they held in great veneration.

It does not fall within my design to relate the separate history of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is sufficient to say, that the pope, in Austin's time, supplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popish clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the most deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and sanctity of his holiness. Hence it was that the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were governed by priests and monks; and, as they saw convenient, persuaded their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days; no less than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings during the heptarchy, resigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina king of the West Saxons, though in other respects he was a wise and brave prince. The bounty of those Anglo-Saxon kings to the see of Rome, was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, imposed an annual tax of a penny upon every house, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, because paid on the holyday of St Peter ad vincula, August 1st.

Under all those disadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in comparison of the nations on the continent; because they were free from the Saracens, or successors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the East upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very considerable trade; and, if are to believe the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrel, Withred king of Kent, at one time paid to the king of Wessex, a

* This tax was imposed at first for the support of a college at Rome, for the education of English youth, founded by Ina a king of Wessex, under the name of Rome-Scot, but in process of time the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St Peter and his successors.
sum in silver equal to 90,000l. sterling, in the year 694. England, therefore, we may suppose to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable but superstitious Bede, about the year 740, composed his church history of Britain, from the coming in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldest and most authentic monuments of history that any nation can produce. Architecture, such as it was, with stone and glass working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was served in silver plate. It must however be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouses are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this state was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when about the year 800, most of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldest remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who first arrived in Britain. On the submission of the Northumbrians in the year 827 he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwise Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany. Egbert had been obliged, by state jealousies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the persecutions of Eadburga daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the West-Saxons. Egbert acquired, at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and therefore soon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own person, but without subduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of England; but there is reason to believe that some part of England continued still to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid perhaps a small tribute to Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Winchester, his chief residence.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. By this time England had become a scene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Danish invasions; and Ethelwolf, after some time bravely opposing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngest son, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the English constitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occasion (copies of which are still remaining) are so prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they shew his brain to have been touched by his devotion, or guided by the arts of Swithin bishop of Winchester. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his sons, (Athelstan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patronymy that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert, who was the surviving son, left his kingdom in 866 to his brother Ethelred, in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the seacoast, and the finest countries in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought seven battles with the Danes, with various success, and, when defeated, he found resources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to an uncommon state of distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cow-herd; but still he kept up a secret correspondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their assistance he gave the Danes many signal overthrows, till at last he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes who had been settled in it, to swear obedience to his government: even part of Wales courted his protection; so that he is thought to have been the most powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raising a maritime power in England, by which he secured her coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the university of Oxford about the year 895; he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived those divisions, and the use of juries, which had fallen into desuetude, by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was himself not only a scholar, but an author; and he tells us himself, that upon his accession to the throne he had scarcely a lay subject who could read English, or an ecclesiastic who
understood Latin. He introduced stone and brick buildings to general use in palaces, as well as churches, though it is certain that his subjects, for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may seem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in East India jewels; and William of Malmsbury says, that some of their gems were deposited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Oether, about the year 890, a full discovery of the coast of Norway and Lapland, as far as Russia; and he tells the king in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "That he sailed along the Norway coast, "so far north as commonly the whale hunters use to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and useful allies in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, against the Danes. He is said to have fought no less than fifty-six pitched battles with those barbarians. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil-doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly distinguished with the epithet of the Great. I have been the more diffuse on the history of Alfred's reign, as it is the most glorious of any in the English annals, though it did not extend to foreign conquests.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the Elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their barbarities and invasions. He died in the year 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince was such an encourager of commerce as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages on his account to the Mediterranean, should be put upon a footing with a thane or nobleman of the first rank. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws, that archbishops, bishops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. His dominions appear, however, to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vassals still kept a footing in those counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scotch in particular, and was generally successful, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is said to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings his vassals, he sitting at the helm; but, like his predecessors, he was the slave of priests, particularly of St Dunstan. His reign, however, was pacific and glorious, though he was obliged to cede to the Scotch all the territory to the north of the Tyne. He was succeeded in 975, by his eldest son Edward, who was barbarously murdered by his step-mother, whose son Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The English nation at this time, by the help of priests, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became possessed of the finest parts of the country, while their countrymen made sometimes dreadful descents in the western parts. To get rid of them, he agreed to pay them 30,000l., which was levied by way of tax, and called Danegeld, and was the first land-tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred was obliged to give way to a general massacre of them by the English, but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind were undoubtedly made in particular counties, but they served only to enrage the Danish king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two sons, out of England into Normandy, a province of France, at that time governed by its own princes, styled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was succeeded by his son Canute the Great, but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vast army, and obliged Edmund Ironside, (so called for his great bodily strength), Ethelred's son, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his son Harold Hareford did nothing memorable, and his successor Hardicanute was so degenerate a prince, that the Danish royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne, and Edward, who is commonly called the Confessor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling, by being descended
from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Upon the death of the Confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Goodwin earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a bastard, was then in the unrivalled possession of that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers of lands and honours in England, to induce them to assist him effectually. By these means he collected 40,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarrassed with the fresh invasions from the Danes, William landed in England without opposition. Harold returning from the North, encountered William in the place where the town of Battle now stands, which took its name from it, near Hastings in Sussex, and a most bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

We have very particular accounts of the value of provisions and manufactures in those days; a palfrey cost 1s.; an acre of land (according to bishop Fleetwood in his Chronicon Pretiosum) 1s.; a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100s.; but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which those shillings bore to the present standard of money, though many ingenious treatises have been written on that head. A sheep was estimated at 1s., an ox was computed at 6s., a cow at 4s., a man 3l. The board-wages of a child the first year was 8s. The tenants of Shireburn were obliged, at their choice, to pay either 6d., or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much used. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceased. Entails were sometimes practised in those times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can say little; but they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Even so low as the reign of Canute, they sold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct: Even the Norman historians, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, speak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invasion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conquest put the people in a situation of receiving slowly from abroad all the rudiments of science and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated state might be owing to the clergy, who always discouraged manufactures.

We are, however, to distinguish between the secular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magistrates. The latter depended upon the see of Rome, and directed the conscience of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often a bloody set. A great deal of the Saxon barbarism was likewise owing to the Danish invasions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidst all those defects, public and personal liberty were well understood, and guarded by the Saxon institutions; and we owe to them at this day the most valuable privileges of the English subjects.

The loss which both sides suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors say, that Harold was so impatient to fight, he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of numbers was on the side of the Norman; and indeed the death of Harold seems to have decided the day; and William, with very little farther difficulty, took possession of the throne, and made a considerable alteration in the constitution of England, by converting lands into knight's fees*, which are said to amount to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great persons who had assisted him in his conquest, and who were bound to

* Four hides of land made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's fee; and when Doomsday book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.
attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave, for instance, to one of his barons, the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independent of the crown; and here, according to some historians, we have the rise of the feudal law in England. William found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his sister, the next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conspiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, especially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland, who married Atheling's sister; but not without exercising horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants; in short, he attempted every thing possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution, though, at his coronation, he took the same oath that used to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He caused a general survey of all the lands in England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confessor's time), and an account to be taken of the villains, or servile tenants, slaves, and live stock upon each estate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomsday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repose of this fortunate and victorious king was disturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now assumed the government as sovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the rise of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable achievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern history. William, seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigour, and with incredible celerity, transporting a brave English army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, the sixty-first of his age, and twenty-first of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

The above are the most material transactions of William's reign; and it may be farther observed, that, by the Norman conquest, England not only lost the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but also her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they established themselves; and what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or English, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conquest, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the accession of so much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans by the conquest, gained much of the English land and riches, yet the English gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewise gained much by the increase of naval power, and multitude of ships wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourse between England and the continent, gave us an increase of trade and commerce, and of treasure to the crown and kingdom, as appeared soon afterwards. England, by the conquest, gained likewise a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before acquired only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. But the dominion of the narrow seas seems naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to those who possess the banks or coasts on both sides; and so to have strengthened the former title, by so long a coast as that of Normandy on one side, and of England on the other side of the Channel. This dominion of the Channel, though we have long ago lost all our possessions in France, we have continued to defend and maintain by the bravery of our seamen, and the superior strength of our navy to any other power.

The succession to the crown of England was disputed between the Conqueror's sons Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired), and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewise
hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and consequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellious subjects. About this time the crusades of the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter; but was accidentally killed as he was hunting in New Forest in Hampshire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

This prince built Westminster-hall as it now stands, and added several works to the tower, which he surrounded with a wall and ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the sea, which overflowed great part of Earl Goodwin’s estate in Kent, and formed those shallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

He was succeeded by his brother Henry I. surnamed Beaumlerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land: Henry may be said to have purchased the throne, first by his brother’s treasures, which he seized at Winchester; secondly, by a charter, in which he restored his subjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and, thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign in a great measure restored the clergy to their influence in the state, and they, formed, as it were, a separate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulsions in England. Henry, partly by force, and partly by stratagem, made himself master of his brother Robert’s person, and duchy of Normandy; and, with the most ungenerous meanness, detained him a prisoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of death; and in the mean while Henry quieted his conscience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but successful war with France; and before his death he settled the succession upon his daughter the empress Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithstanding the late settlement of succession, the crown of England was claimed and seized by Stephen earl of Blois, the son of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her son were then abroad; and Stephen was assisted in his usurpation by his brother the bishop of Winchester, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown, dependent, as it were, upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a worthy subject in her natural brother, Robert Earl of Gloucester, who headed her party before her son grew up. A long and bloody war ensued, the clergy having absolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of succession; but at length, the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken prisoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, she scornfully upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his accession; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Gloucester, who had been taken prisoner likewise, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from their government, by building 1100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal subjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough advised to attempt to force them into a compliance with his will, by declaring his son Eustace heir-apparent to the kingdom; and this exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was son to the empress; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.
This measure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehensive of a second conquest: and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay aristocracy, proposed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time lost his son Eustace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact invested with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his successor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the English, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars, with great joy: and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greatest prince of his time. He soon discovered amazing abilities for government, and had performed in the sixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the most experienced warriors. At his accession to the throne, he found the condition of the English boroughs greatly bettered by the privileges granted them in the struggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to such a height, that if a bondman or servant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by such residence made free. He erected Wallingford, Winchester, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the services the inhabitants had done to his mother and himself; by discharging them from every burthen, excepting the fixed fee-farm rent of such towns; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vast accession of power to the crown, because the crown alone could support the boroughs against their feudal tyrants, and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very scrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he resumed the excessive grants of crown lands made by Stephen, which were represented as illegal. He demolished many of the castles that had been built by the barons; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their usurpations not to be shaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous disorder lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and disorders occasioned by those exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not attested by the most unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry, the head of the English church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his office, and still more so by his popularity, arising from a pretended sanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal cool and politic. The king assembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is still famous for the constitutions there enacted, which, in fact, abolished the authority of the Romish see over the English clergy. Becket, finding it in vain to resist the stream, signed those constitutions till they could be ratified by the pope; who, as he foresaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the most determined spirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the see of Rome was at the same time in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king espoused his quarrel. The effect was, that all the English clergy, who were on the king's side, were excommunicated, and the subjects absolved from their allegiance. This disconcerted Henry so much, that he submitted to treat, and even to be insulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the streets of London in 1170. His return swelled his pride, and increased his insolence, till both became insupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the first subject of his own dominions, he was heard to say, in the anguish of his heart, "Is there none who would revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest?" These words reached the ears of four knights, Reginald Fitzurse, William de Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito; and, without acquainting Henry with their intentions, they went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury in the year 1171.

Henry was in no condition to second the blind obedience of his knights; and the public resentment rose so high, on the supposition that he was privy to the murder, that he submitted to be scourged by the monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr. Henry, in consequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually resumed
their most valuable possessions in the north of England. This occasioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken prisoner: and, to deliver himself from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was also agreed, that liege homage should be done, and fealty sworn to Henry, without reserve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland, from whom Henry should desire it, in the same manner as by his other vassals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewise obliged to render liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewise distinguished his reign by the conquest of Ireland; and by marrying Eleanor the divorced queen of France, but the heiress of Guienne and Poictou, he became almost as powerful in France as the French king himself, and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his old age, however, he was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleasure, and embarrased himself in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond, which were resented by his queen Eleanor, to her seducing her sons, Henry, (whom his father had unadvisedly caused to be crowned in his own lifetime), Richard and John, into repeated rebellions, which affected him so much as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon, in France, in the year 1189, and 51st of his age. The sum he left in ready money, at his death, has perhaps been exaggerated, but the most moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000l. of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation-charter.s were established all over England; by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Those corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, especially those of silk, seem still to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the silk coronation robes, made use of by young Henry and his queen, cost 87l. 10s. 4d. in the sheriff of London’s account, printed by Mr Maddox; a vast sum in those days. Henry introduced the use of glass in windows into England, and stone arches in building.

In this reign, and in those barbarous ages, it was a custom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more of the sons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themselves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houses and plunder them, to rob and murder passengers, and to commit with impunity, all sorts of disorders. Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into six parts, called circuits, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year and hold assizes, or administer justice to the people, as is practised at this day.

Henry so far abolished the barbarous and absurd practice of forfeiting ships, which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal were alive in the ship, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners. This prince was also the first who levied a tax on the moveable and personal estate of his subjects, nobles as well as people. To shew the genius of these ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbishop of York, and Richard archbishop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when ecclesiastics could proceed to such extremities. The pope’s legate having summoned an assembly of the clergy at London, and as both the archbishops pretended to sit on his right hand, this question of precedence begot a controversy between them. The monks and retainers of archbishop Richard fell upon Roger, in the presence of the cardinal and of the synod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and so bruised him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty saved from their violence.

Richard I., surnamed Coeur de Lion, from his great courage, was the third, but eldest surviving son of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they persuaded him to make a most magnificent ruinous crusade to the Holy Lands, where he took Ascalon, and performed actions of valour, that gave countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After several glorious but fruitless campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England he was treacherously surprised by the duke of Austria, who, in 1193, sent him a prisoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the sordid emperor at 150,000 merks; about 300,000l. of our present money.
Whilst the Scottish kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their interest, once generally in every king's reign, to perform the same homage; but when they were deprived of their said lands, they paid no more homage.*

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at this time. An ox sold for three shillings, which answers to nine shillings of our money, and a sheep at four pence, or one shilling. Weights and measures were now ordered to be the same all over the kingdom. Richard was slain in besieging the castle of Chalons in the year 1199, the 42d year of his age, and 10th of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who succeeded him, is infamous in the English history. He is said to have put to death Arthur the eldest son of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother Constance complained to Philip, the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vassal, deprived him of Normandy. John notwithstanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Irish, gave many proofs of personal valour; but became at last so apprehensive of a French invasion, that he rendered himself a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the feet of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons resented his meanness by taking arms; but he repeated his shameful submissions to the pope, and, after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to sign the great deed so well known by the name of Magna Charta. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of those immunities which the barons and their followers had possessed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better secured, this charter, by various subsequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgesses. John had scarcely signed it, but he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus, king of France. This gave umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehensive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refused to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and 49th of his age, just as he had a glimpse of resuming his authority.

The city of London owes some of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to choose a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their sheriffs and common-council annually, as at present.

England was in a deplorable situation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's son, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was chosen his guardian; and the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died 1219, and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The king was of a soft, pliable disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he seemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. An association of the barons was formed against him and his government, and a civil war breaking out, Henry seemed to be abandoned by all but his Gascons, and foreign mercenaries. His profusion brought him into inexpressible difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his sister, and was made earl of Leicester, being chosen general of the association, the king and his two sons were defeated, and taken prisoners at the battle of Lewes.

* It appears, however, that William I. king of Scotland, and his subjects, consented to acknowledge the king of England and his heirs, to all perpetuity, to be their sovereigns and liege lords, and they did homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly; but this advantage was given up by Richard I. Vide lord Lyttleton's History of Henry II, vol. v. p. 220, 233, 235. 8vo. edit.
A difference happening between Montfort and the earl of Gloucester, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldest son, obtained his liberty, and assembling as many as he could of his father's subjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Evesham, August 4th, 1265, and killed Montfort. The representatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgesses, formed now part of the English legislature, in a separate house, and this gave the first blow to feudal tenures in England: but historians are not agreed in what manner the commons before this time formed any part of the English parliaments, or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, the sixty-fourth year of his age, and fifty-sixth of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet, to the struggles of this reign, the people in a great measure owe the liberties of the present day. Interest had in that age mounted to an enormous height. There are instances of 50l. per cent, being paid for money, which tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithstanding the grievous oppressions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a fresh demand of 8600 merks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refused compliance. They now lost all patience, and desired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom, but the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppression you complain of? I am myself a beggar; I am despoiled; I am stripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 merks; and if I had said 300,000, I should not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my son prince Edward 15,000 merks a year; I have not a farthing, and I must have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 merks from a Jew at Bristol; and on his refusal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he should consent. The Jew lost seven teeth, and then paid the sum required of him. Trial by ordeal was now entirely disused, and that by duel discouraged. Bracton's famous law treatise was published in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown in capite, to his coronation-dinner, which consisted (that the reader may have some idea of the luxury of the times) of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 sheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and thirteen fat goats. (See Rymer's Foedera.) Alexander III. king of Scotland was at the solemnity, and on the occasion 500 horses were let loose, for all that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, interests, and constitution of his kingdom, his regulations, and reformation of his laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He passed the famous Mortmain act, whereby all persons "were restrained from giving by will or otherwise, their estates to (those so called) religious purposes, and the societies that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the Cinque Ports, which though now very inconsiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he went beyond sea, with fifty-seven ships, each having twenty armed soldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own costs for the space of fifteen days. He reduced the Welsh to pay him tribute, and annexed its principality to his crown, and was the first who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldest son.

His vast connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his subjects, particularly by the introduction of reading-glasses and spectacles; though they are said to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the same time, and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an essay, and mark of the goldsmiths' company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himself and the English, by draining them of their wealth; and it is thought that he too much neglected the wooden manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in in 1307, in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign, while he was upon a fresh expedition to exterminate that people. He ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, with 32,000l. for the maintenance of what is called the Holy Sepulchre.
His son and successor Edward II. shewed early dispositions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveston, his chief minion, a Gascon, being banished by his father Edward, he mounted the throne with vast advantages, both political and personal, all which he soon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveston, and loaded him with honours, and married Isabella, daughter of the French king, who restored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had lost in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to banish his favourite, and to confirm the Great Charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the castle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in person received the greatest defeat England ever suffered, in 1314. Gaveston being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a spy upon the king, but he soon became his favourite. He, through his pride, avarice, and ambition, was banished, together with his father, whom he had procured to be made earl of Winchester. The queen, a furious ambitious woman, persuaded her husband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's standard, and, after defeating them, restored him to the exercise of all prerogatives. A cruel use was made of those successes, and many noble patriots, with their estates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at last she became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her prisoner, and had been one of the most active of the antiroyalist lords. A breach between her and the Spencers soon followed, and going over to France with her lover, she found means to form such a party in England, that, returning with some French troops, she put the eldest Spencer to an ignominious death, made her husband prisoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his son Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt: and he was most barbarously murdered in Berkeley-castle, by ruffians, supposed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

Upon an average, the difference of living then and now, seems to be nearly as 5 or 6 is to 1, always remembering that the money contained thrice as much silver as our money or coin of the same denomination does. Thus, for example, if a goose then cost 2½d., that is 7½d. of our money, or according to the proportion of 6 to 1, it would now cost us 3s. 9d. The knights Templars were suppressed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer, and they endeavoured to keep possession of their power by executing many popular measures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland, for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, was soon sensible of their designs. He surprised them in person at the head of a few chosen friends in the castle of Nottingham. Mortimer was put to a public death, hanged as a traitor at the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herself was shut up in confinement twenty-eight years, to her death. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David king of Scotland, though he had married his sister, and he was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary, king of Scotland, and general, and did the same homage to Edward for Scotland, as his father had done to Edward I. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France, (without issue), who had succeeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended cut off all female succession to that crown. Philip of Valois claimed it as being the next heir male by succession; but he was opposed by Edward, as being the son of Isabella, who was sister to the three last-mentioned kings of France, and first in the female succession. The former was preferred, but the case being doubtful, Edward pursued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occasion the vast difference between the feudal constitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no subordination. They and their men were equally undisciplined and disobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The English freemeth, on the other, having now vast property to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a feudal law, knew its value, and
had learnt to defend it, by providing themselves with proper armour, and submitting to military exercises, and proper subordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued scene of success and victory. In 1340 he took the title of king of France, using it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of king of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon Droit*, “God and my right” At Cressy, August 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but sixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four) though the English did not exceed 30,000. The loss of the French far exceeded the number of the English army, whose loss consisted of three knights and one esquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with greatly superior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite son Philip taken prisoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle, was double that of all the English army; but the modesty and politeness with which the prince treated his royal prisoners, formed the brightest wreath in his garland.

Edward’s glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, she had the good fortune to take prisoner David king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England, about six weeks after the battle of Cressy was fought, and remained a prisoner eleven years. Thus Edward had the glory to see two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ransomed, David for 100,000 marks, and John for three millions of gold crowns; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III, is said to have been frightened by a dreadful storm, his fortunes declined. He had resigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he sunk in the esteem of his subjects at home, on account of his attachment to his mistress, one Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince *, from his wearing that armour, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinstated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was seized with a consumptive disorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long survive him; for he died, dispirited and obscure, at Shene in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age, and 51st of his reign.

No prince ever understood the balance and interests of Europe better than Edward did, and he was one of the best and most illustrious kings that sat on the English throne. Having set his heart on the conquest of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands, for protection and security to their liberties and properties, but he thereby exhausted his regal dominions; neither was his successor, when he mounted the throne, so powerful a prince as he was in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artisans from Flanders, and of establishing the woollen manufacture among the English, who, till his time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign seems to have been much the same as in the preceding reign; and few of the English ships even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithstanding the vast increase of property in England, villlage still continued in the royal, episcopal, and baronial manors. Historians are not agreed whether Edward made use of artillery in his first invasion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent castle of Windsor was built by Edward III, and his method of conducting that work may serve as a specimen of the condition of the people of that age. Instead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he assessed every county in England to send him so many masons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enlisted only for a short time; they lived idle all the rest of the year, and commonly all the rest of their lives; one successful campaign, by pay and plunder, and the ransom of prisoners,

* He was also the first in England that had the title of Duke, being created by his father Duke of Cornwall; and ever since, the eldest son of the king of England is by birth Duke of Cornwall.
was supposed to be a small fortune to a man; which was a great allurement to enter into the service. The wages of a master carpenter was limited through the whole year to three pence a day, a common carpenter to two pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe, a secular priest, educated at Oxford, began in the latter end of this reign to spread the doctrines of Reformation by his discourses, sermons, and writings; and he made many disciples of all ranks and stations. He was a man of parts, learning, and piety; and has the honour of being the first person in Europe who publicly called in question these doctrines, which had generally passed for certain and undisputed during so many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe being derived from his search into the scriptures, and into ecclesiastical antiquity, were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the sixteenth century. But though the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reserved for a more free and enquiring period, that gave the finishing blow to Romish superstition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. He had many friends in the university of Oxford and at court, and was powerfully protected against the evil designs of the pope and bishops, by John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster one of the king’s sons, and other great men. His disciples were distinguished by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. son of the Black Prince, was no more than eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The English arms were then unsuccessful both in France and in Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaster, the king’s uncle and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and lowest ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in so flourishing a state, that corn and other victuals were suffered to be transported, and the English had fallen upon a way of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactories, they seem from records, to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Gaunt’s foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England; and so many men were employed in unsuccessful wars, that the commons of England, like powder, receiving a spark of fire, all at once flamed out into a rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a priest, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, the lowest of the people. The conduct of these insurgents was very violent, and in many respects extremely unjustifiable; but it cannot justly be denied, that the common people of England then laboured under many oppressions, particularly a poll-tax, and had abundant reason to be discontented with the government.

Richard was not then above sixteen, but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the storm of the insurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malcontents, to death, in the midst of his adherents. Richard then associated to himself a new set of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms, and being headed by the duke of Gloucester, the king’s uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being insincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more despotic than any king in England ever had been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel happened between the Duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster, by his father’s death; and Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party formed in England, the natural result of Richard’s tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaster the crown. He landed from France at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them English. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects, whom he had affected to despise, generally deserting him, he was made prisoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was deposed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and misconduct; and soon after he is supposed to have been starved to death in prison, in the year 1399, the 34th year of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He had no issue by either of his two marriages.
Though the nobility of England, were possessed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonstrate boldly in parliament against the usury, which was but too much practised in England, and other abuses of both clergy and laity: and the destruction of the feudal powers soon followed.

Henry the Fourth *, son of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III, being settled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependent upon them. At first some conspiracies were formed against him among his great men, as the dukes of Suffry and Exeter, the earls of Gloucester and Salisbury, and the archbishop of York; but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was understood by the Percy, family the greatest in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of some Scottish prisoners, whom they had taken in battle; and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his son the famous Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry suppressed the insurrection of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent concessions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at last conquered all opposition, while, to save the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heir-male of his body lawfully begotten, thereby shutting out all female succession. The young duke of Rothesay, heir to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), falling a prisoner into Henry's hands about the time, was of infinite service to his government; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 40th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the satisfaction to see his son and successor, the prince of Wales, disengage himself from many youthful follies, which till then had disgraced his conduct.

The English marine was now so greatly increased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burden, carrying on an immense trade all over Europe, but with the Hanse towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV., as I have already hinted, was the first prince who gave the different orders in Parliament, especially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little surprising, that learning was at this time in a much lower state in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Bishops, when testifying synodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myself, N. N. hath subscribed for me; or, As my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request I have subscribed." By the influence of the court and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the sessions of parliament 1401 for the burning of heretics, occasioned by the great increase of the Wicklifists or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtre, parish priest of St. Otho in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and the sheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was against England at the accession of Henry V. in 1413, so greatly had luxury increased. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were excessively numerous, and Sir John Oldcastle and Lord Cobham having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himself at their head, with a design to overturn the government; but this appears to have been a groundless accusa-

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaster stepped forth, and having crossed himself on his forehead and on his breast, and called upon the name of Christ, he pronounced these words, which I shall give in the original language, because of their singularity.

In the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, I Henry of Lancaster, challenge this remise of £5,000, and the crown, with all the emoluments, and the appurtenances; all that am descending by right line of the blade (meaning a claim in right of his mother) coming from the guide king Henry therede, and throse that right that God of his grace hath sent me, with help of kym, and of my friends, to recover it; the which remise was in poynt to be undone by defeat of governance, and enduring of the guide kym.
sation, from a bloody zeal of the clergy, though he was put to death in consequence of it. His only real crime seems to have been the spirit with which he opposed the superstition of the age, and he was the first of the nobility who suffered on account of religion. Henry was about this time engaged in a contest with France, which he had had many incitements for invading. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been ravished from England in the preceding reigns; also the payment of certain arrears due for King John’s ransom since the reign of Edward the III. and availing himself of the distracted state of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, where he first took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled those of Cressy and Poictiers in glory to the English, but exceeded them in its consequences, on account of the vast number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made such alliances, and divided the French among themselves so effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whose husband, Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princess Catharine, to disinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her husband’s life, and him and his issue successors to the French monarchy, which must at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king still continued Henry’s captive) furnished the dauphin with vast supplies, and preserved the French crown for his head. Henry however made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proscribed; and, after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might crush the dauphin and his Scottish auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuritic disorder, 1442, the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

Henry V’s vast successes in France revived the trade of England, and at the same time increased and established the privileges and liberties of the English commonalty. As he died when he was only thirty four years of age, it is hard to say, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then greatly distracted by the divisions among its princes; but whether this would have been of service or prejudice to the growing liberties of the English subjects, we cannot determine.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714l. a year, which is nearly the same with the revenues in Henry III’s time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the course of 200 years. The ordinary expenses of the government amounted to 52,507l. so that the king had of surplus only 3,207l. for the support of his household, for his wardrobe, for the expenses of embassies, and other articles. This sum was not nearly sufficient even in time of peace: and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miserable shifts; he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels, and sometimes the crown itself; he ran in arrears to his army: and he was often obliged to stop in the midst of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I mention these particulars, that the reader may judge of the simplicity and temperance of our predecessors three centuries ago, when the expenses of the greatest king in Europe were scarcely equal to the pension of a supernannted courtier of the present age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaster house to the throne of England. Henry VI. surnamed of Windsor, was no more than nine months old, when, in consequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, both of them princes of great accomplishments, virtue, and courage, but unable to preserve their brother’s conquests. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the person of his son and successor Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conquest of France. The siege was raised by the valour and good conduct of the maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history, she being of the lowest extraction, and
bred a cow-keeper, and sometimes a helper in stables in public inns. She must notwithstanding have possessed an amazing fund of sagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her sovereign's head, she was taken prisoner by the English in making a sally during the siege of Compiègne, who burnt her alive for a witch at Rouen, May 30, 1451.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the English, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the English interest in France, and the loss of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithstanding the amazing courage of Talbot the first earl of Shrewsbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its disunion at home. The Duke of Gloucester lost his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high spirit, but an implacable disposition; while the cardinal of Winchester, who was the richest subject in England, if not in Europe, presided at the head of the treasury, and by his avarice ruined the interest of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the most powerful subject in England. He was descended by the mother's side from Lionel, an elder son of Edward III., and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was descended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngest son; and he affected to keep up the distinction of a white rose, that of the house of Lancaster being red. It is certain that he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he lost no opportunity of forming a party to assert his right, but acted at first with a most profound dissimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a professed enemy to the duke of York; but being impeached in Parliament, he was banished for five years, and had his head struck off on board a ship, by a common sailor. This was followed by an insurrection of 20,000 Kentish men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who sent to the court a list of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen seemed to be perfectly secure against the duke of York. The inglorious management of the English affairs in France befriended him, and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a strong party of the nobility his friends; but being considered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he professed the most profound reverence to Henry.

The persons in high power and reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Salisbury, and his son the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greatest land estate of any subject in England, and his vast abilities, joined to some virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and son were secretly on the side of York; and, during a fit of illness of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both sides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen with wonderful activity assembled an army; but the royalists were defeated in the first battle of St Albans', and the king himself was taken prisoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector of the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen resumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakness became every day more and more visible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the mask, and, in 1450, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the king-maker. A parliament upon this being assembled, it was enacted, that Henry should possess the throne for life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromise. She retreated northwards, and the king being still a prisoner, she pleaded his cause so well, that, assembling a fresh army, she fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and slain in 1460.

It is pretty extraordinary; that though the duke of York and his party openly asserted his claim to the crown, they still professed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's son, afterwards Edward IV., prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick in the second battle of St Albans', she delivered her husband; but the disorders committed by her northern troops disgusted the
Londoners so much, that she durst not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February 1461, while the queen and her husband were obliged to retreat northwards. She soon raised another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the most bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both sides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and nearly 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her husband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with generous protection.

It may be proper to observe, that this civil war was carried on with greater animosity than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood-thirsty as her opponents, and when prisoners on either side were made, their deaths, especially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the concessions she made to the Scots, soon raised a fresh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at last her husband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried prisoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV., being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, though he had some time before sent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's sister in marriage, in which embassy he was successful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princess into England. When the secret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl deeming himself affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation; and, from being Edward's best friend, became his most formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made prisoner; but escaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI., declared for the restoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly escaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London, under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he resumed the exercise of royal authority, made king Henry once more his prisoner, and defeated and killed Warwick in the battle of Barnet. A few days after, he defeated a fresh army of Lancastrians, and made queen Margaret prisoner, together with her son prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Gloucester, murdered in cold blood, as he is said (but with no great shew of probability) to have done his father Henry VI., then a prisoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471.

Edward, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expences of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel, and sometimes to treat with France, but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-second of his age.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increased during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation-act was thought of by the English, as the only means to preserve to themselves the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandise; but foreign influence prevented Henry's passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of Printing, which is generally supposed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor state in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and seems to have been the first English nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are mostly re-translations, or compilations from the French or Monkish Latin; but it must be acknowledged, at the same time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progress among the English, than it did in any other European nation. The famous Littleton, judge of the common pleas, and Fortescue, chancellor of England, flourished at this period.

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had exercised her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obscure relations. Her eldest son, Edward V., was about thirteen; and his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to bastardize her issue by act of parliament, under the scandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their
father and another lady. The duke, at the same time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at last accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners, having first put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the king's family. Whether the young king and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The most probable opinion is, that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the English were prepossessed so strongly against Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, who still remained in France, carried on a secret correspondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends, and, by offering to marry his eldest daughter, he was encouraged to invade England, at the head of about 2000 foreign troops; but they were soon joined by 7000 English and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, ensued at Bosworth-field, in which Richard, after displaying most astonishing acts of personal valour, was killed, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under lord Stanclcy and his brother, in the year 1485.

Though the same act of bastardy affected the daughters, as well as the sons of the late king, yet no disputes were raised upon the legitimacy of tho princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter to Edward IV., and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaster, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houses, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houses of York and Lancastcr. Henry, however, rested his right upon conquest, and seemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the first who instituted that guard called Yeomen, which still subsists; and, in imitation of his predecessor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges assumed by the barons, in abolishing liverys and retainers, by which every malefactor could shelter himself from the law, on assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. The despotic court of star-chamber owed its original to Henry; but at the same time it must be acknowledged, that he passed many acts, especially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his subjects; and, as a finishing stroke to the feudal tenures, an act passed, by which the barons and gentlemen of landed interest were at liberty to sell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licences for the alienation.

This, if we regard its consequences, is perhaps the most important act that ever passed in an English parliament, though its tendency seems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increase of trade, and the discovery of America, had broken with irresistible force into England, and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the estates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were soon extinguished in England.

Henry, after encountering and surmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the possession of his throne by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, second son to Edward IV., and was acknowledged as such by the duchess of Burgundy, Edward's sister. We shall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon; but it is certain that many of the English, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public satisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland dismissed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldest daughter, yet by the kind manner in which he entertained and dissmissed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, especially as he refused to deliver up his person, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impostor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape, along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. In 1489 Henry's eldest son, Arthur Prince of Wales, was married to the princess Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain; and he dying soon after, such was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000
crowns of gold, that he consented to her being married again to his second son, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the first match had not been consummated. Soon after Henry’s eldest daughter, the princess Margaret, was sent with a most magnificent train to Scotland, where she was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was possessed of 1,800,000l sterling, which is equivalent to five millions at present; so that he may be supposed to have been master of more ready money than all the kings in Europe besides possessed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of replenishing his coffers, and often tricked his parliament to grant him subsidies for foreign alliances, which he intended not to pursue.

I have already mentioned the vast alteration which happened in the constitution of England during Henry VII.’s reign. His excessive love of money, and his avarice, was the probable reason why he did not become master of the West Indies, he having the first offer of the discovery from Columbus, whose proposals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he set out upon the discovery of a new world in the year 1492, which he effected after a passage of thirty-three days, and took possession of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry, however, made some amends by encouraging Cabot, a Venetian, who discovered the main land of North America in 1498; and we may observe, to the praise of this king, that sometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants sums of money without interest, when he knew that their stock was not sufficient for those enterprises which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Madox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle must have been prodigiously advanced before Henry’s death: an instance of this is given in the case of lady Anne, sister to Henry’s queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week for her exhibition, sustentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; also for two gentlewomen, one woman-child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms, (in all eight persons), 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and clothing; and for the maintenance of seven horses, 10l. 9s. 4d. i.e. for each horse, 2l. 7s. 0/4d. yearly, money being still 1/2 times as weighty as our modern silver coin. Wheat was that year no more than 3s. 4d. a quarter, which answers to 5s. of our money, consequently it was about seven times as cheap as at present; so that, had all other necessaries been equally cheap, she could have lived as well as on 1200l. 10s. 6d. of our modern money, or ten times as cheap as at present.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the accession of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy; and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exercise of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe, but it is certain that he neglected those advantages in commerce, with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining that he could not stand in need of a supply, he did not improve Cabot’s discoveries, and he suffered the East and West Indies to be engrossed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conquest of all France. These projects, and his establishing what is properly called a navy royal, for the permanent defence of the nation (a most excellent measure), led him into incredible expences. He became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy; but soon resigned his pretensions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry’s conduct, in the long and bloody wars between those princes, was directed by Wolsey’s views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the interest of Charles; but finding himself twice deceived, he persuaded his master to declare himself for Francis, who had been taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expences, till at last he was forced to lay vast burdens upon his subjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the Reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Romish church. He wrote a book against Luther, “of the Seven Sacraments,” about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of Defender
of the Faith, which his successors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have some scruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I shall not say, how far on this occasion he might be influenced by scruples of conscience, or aversion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this process, ruined Wolsey, who died heart-broken, after being stript of his immense possessions.

A perplexing, though nice conjecture of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at last to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation; in which, however, many of the Romish errors and superstitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty measure, had it not been for his despotric disposition, which broke out on every occasion. Upon a slight suspicion of his queen's inconstancy, and after a sham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death some of her nearest relations; and in many respects he acted in the most arbitrary manner, his wishes, however unreasonable, being too readily complied with, in consequence of the shameful servility of his parliament. The dissolution of the religious houses, and the immense wealth that came to Henry, by seizing all the ecclesiastical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full scope to his sanguinary disposition; so that the best and most innocent blood of England was shed on scaffolds, and seldom any long time passed without being marked with some illustrious victim of his tyranny. Among others, was the aged countess of Salisbury, descended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to Cardinal Pole; the marquis of Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correspondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but she died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, sister to the duke of Cleves. He disliked her so much that he scarcely bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he suffered her to reside in England on a pension of 30,000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whose head he cut off for antemuptual incontinency. His last wife was queen Catharine Par, in whose possession he died, after she had narrowly escaped being brought to the stake, for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on Protestants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surrey to death without a crime being proved against him; and his father the duke of Norfolk must have suffered the next day, had he not been saved by Henry's own death, 1547, in the 50th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

The state of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the help of printing, too well known to be enlarged upon here. His attention to the naval security of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjust and arbitrary power he frequently assumed, in many respects for the glory and interests of his subjects. Without enquiring into his religious motives, it must be candidly confessed, that had the reformation gone through all the forms prescribed by the laws, and the courts of justice, it probably never could have taken place, or at least not for many years; and whatever Henry's personal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby rescuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the present greatness of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a pension to Erasmus, which is another name for learning itself. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected, Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign, noblemen's houses began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a constant and generous friend to Cranmer; and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimsical than settled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the instruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in English. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king instead of lord of Ireland.
Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after some disputes were over, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector, and duke of Somerset, a declared friend and patron of the Reformation, and a bitter enemy to the see of Rome.

The reader is to observe in general, that the Reformation was not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the vast relief they had from abbeys and religious houses, and being ejected from their small corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often suppressed by the government; and several of these insurrections were crushed in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, some of them foreign divines. In some cases, particularly with regard to the princess Mary, they lost sight of that moderation which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some cruel sanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame, and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, and St Thomas's hospitals, and also several schools which still exist and flourish, shew the goodness of his heart. He died of a deep consumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstititutional will, for he set aside his sister Mary from the succession, which was claimed by lady Jane Gray, daughter to the duchess of Suffolk, younger sister to Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognised the claim of the princess Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head, and that of her husband Lord Guilford Dudley, son to the duke of Northumberland, who also suffered in the same manner.

Mary being thus settled on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyat, and proceeded like a female fury to re-establish popery, which she did all over England. She recalled Cardinal Pole from banishment, made him instrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Hooper and Latimer, and many other illustrious confessors of the English reformed church, were consumed; not to mention a vast number of other sacrifices of both sexes and all ranks that suffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner bishop of London, and Gardiner bishop of Winchester, were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had she lived, she would have endeavoured to exterminate all her protestant subjects.

Mary now married Philip II. of Spain, who, like herself, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praise of her reign is, that, by the marriage-articles, provision was made for the independency of the English crown. By the assistance of troops which she furnished to her husband, he gained the important battle of St Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the English in France, and which had been held ever since the reign of Edward III. This loss, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's secret connections with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her persecuting flames (says a contemporary writer of credit), were burnt to ashes, one archbishop, 4 bishops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 94 artificers, 100 husbands, servants and labourers, 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other springing out of the mother's womb from the stake as she burned, thrown again into the fire." Several also died in prison, and many were otherwise cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the most discouraging circumstances both at home and abroad. Popery was the established religion of England; but her title to the crown, on account of the circumstances attending her mother's marriage and death, was disputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII's eldest daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally she had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and soul of the papish cause, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than
25 years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her sufferings under her bigotted sister, joined to the superiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy, and she soon conquered all difficulties.

In matters of religion she succeeded with surprising facility; for in her first parliament, in 1550, the laws establishing popery were repealed, her supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity passed soon after. And it is observed, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refused to comply with the reformation. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend, her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, sent troops and money, which supported the Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the supposed murderer of the former, and her other misconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where she had often been promised a safe and honourable asylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profession of friendship, and that she detained the unhappy prisoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a sham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without sufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head; an action which greatly tarnished the glories of her reign.

The same Philip, who had been the husband of her sister, upon Elizabeth's accession to the throne, offered to marry her, but she dexterously avoided his addresses; and, by a train of skilful negociations between her court and that of France, she kept the balance of Europe so undetermined, that she had leisure to unite her people at home, and to establish an excellent internal policy to her dominions. She supported the protestants of France against their persecuting princes and the papists; and gave the Dukes of Anjou and Alenc'on, brothers of the French king, the strongest assurances that one or other of them should be her husband; by which she kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the same time in so good humour with her government, that it shewed no resentment when she cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be imposed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amused and baffled him in every quarter, it is well known that he made use of the immense sums he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the most formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parmis, the best captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. The largeness of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they engaged; the lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chased the Spanish fleet for several days; and the seas and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, and few of the Spanish ships recovered their ports. Next to the admiral, lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion, in which the Spainards are said to have lost 81 ships of war, large and small, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for some time supported the revolt of the Hollander from Philip, and had sent them her favourite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leicester behaved ill, yet her measures were so wise, that the Dutch established their independency upon Spain; and then she sent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers, into the East and West Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treasures taken from the Spaniards, into England.

Elizabeth in her old age grew distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, she tenses him by her capriciousness into the madness of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that she had been betrayed into this sanguinary measure, and this occasioned a sinking of her spirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, in the seventieth year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previously named her kinsman James VI. king of Scotland, and son to Mary, for her successor.
The above form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign; and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She supported the Protestants in Germany against the house of Austria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She crushed the papists in her own dominions for the same reason, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which state it has remained ever since. In 1600 the English East India Company received its first formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portuguese (in consequence of their having first discovered the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Vasco de Gama, in the reign of Henry VII.), who at that time were subjects to Spain; and factories were established in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the successes of her reign have disguised it; for she was far from being a friend to personal liberty, that she was guilty of many stretches of power against the most sacred rights of Englishmen. The severe statutes against the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conscience, and by which many suffer ed death, must be condemned.

We can scarcely require a stronger proof that the English began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy testified by all ranks at the accession of her successor, notwithstanding the long inveterate animosities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being desitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received wrong impressions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the English throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconstitutional powers that had been occasionally exercised by Elizabeth and the house of Tudor; and which various causes had prevented the people from opposing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhausted by the long and destructive wars between the houses of Lancaster and York, in the course of which, the ancient nobility were in a great part cut off; and the people were inclined to endure much, rather than again involve themselves in the miseries of civil war. Neither did James make any allowance for the glories of Elizabeth; which, as I have observed, disguised her most arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal sentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffused through England. It is needless, perhaps, to point out the vast increase of property through trade and navigation which enabled the English at the same time to defend their liberties. James's first attempt of great consequence was to effect a union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the aversion of the English to that measure, on account of his loading his Scotch courtiers with wealth and honours, he shewed no violent resentment at the disappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increased by the discovery and defeat of the gunpowder treason.

This was a scheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king, lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament; when it was also expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be present. The manner of enlisting any new conspirator was by oath, and administering the sacrament; and this dreadful secret, after being religiously kept near eighteen months, was happily discovered in the following manner: About ten days before the long wished-for meeting of parliament, a Roman Catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his servant by an unknown hand, earnestly advising him to shift off his attendance on parliament at that time; but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he considered the letter as a foolish attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who, studying the contents with more attention, began to suspect some dangerous contrivance by gunpowder; and it was judged advisable to inspect the vaults below the houses of parliament; but the search was purposely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a justice of peace was sent with proper attendants, and before the door of the vault, under the upper house, finding one Fawkes, who had just finished all his preparations, he immediately seized him, and at the same time discovered in the vault 56 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for setting fire to the train, were found in
Fawkes’s pocket, whose countenance bespoke his savage disposition, and who, after regretting that he had lost the opportunity of destroying so many heretics, made a full discovery; and the conspirators, who never exceeded eighty in number, being seized by the country people, confessed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithstanding this horrid crime, the bigoted catholics were so devoted to Garnet, a Jesuit, one of the conspirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was considered as a martyr. The above letter to lord Mounteagle had long been supposed to be an artifice of Cecil’s first minister, and that the king and himself received full intimation of the plot from Henry IV. of France, by the marquis de Sully. So they let the conspirators work on, till all was prepared for the stroke, and they might know all their strength.

James and his ministers were continually inventing new ways to raise money, as by monopolies, benevolence, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he sold the titles of baron, viscount, and earl, at a certain price, made a number of knights baronets which was to be hereditary, for which each person paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a series of theological contests with ecclesiastical caisists, in which he proved himself more a theologian than a prince, and in 1617 he attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffed his design.

James gave his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, in marriage to the Elector Palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and he soon after assumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abused for his tame behaviour, after that prince had lost his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be observed, that he always opposed his son-in-law’s assuming the crown of Bohemia; that had he kindled a war to reinstate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have stood single in the same, excepting the feeble and uncertain assistance he might have received from the elector’s dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that James furnished the elector with large sums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raised a regiment of 2200 men under Sir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anspach, refused to second them against Spinola the Spanish general, and that the elector hurt his own cause by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops instead of Anspach.

James has been greatly and justly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His first was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raised to be first minister and earl of Somerset. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private English gentleman, who, upon Somerset’s disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of favour and familiarity with his sovereign. James had at that time formed a system of policy for attaching himself intimately to the court of Spain, that it might assist him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this system he had sacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hostilities against the Spanish settlements in the West Indies. James having lost his eldest son, Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popish match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper match for his son Charles, who had succeeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the son as with the father, fell in with the prince’s romantic humour, and against the king’s will, they travelled in disguise to Spain, where a most solemn farce of courtship was played; but the prince returned without his bride, and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Bristol, who was then ambassador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not persuade to furnish money equal to his demands: and at last he agreed to his son’s marrying the princess Henrietta Maria, sister to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of the match; and it is thought that, had he lived, he would have discarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 50th year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. As to the progress of the arts and learning under his reign, it has been already described. James encouraged and employed the excellent painter Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who restored the pure taste of architecture in England; and in his reign, poetical
genius, though not much encouraged, at court, arrived at its vertical point. Mr Middle-
ton also at this time projected the conveying of water into the city from Hertfordshire
by means of pipes, which is now called the New River.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, the king’s favourite, who was assassinated by
one Felton, a subaltern officer, in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary pro-
ceedings, which the English patriots in that enlightened age justly considered as so
many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impositions
upon trade, which were refused to be paid by many of the merchants and members of
the house of commons. Some of them were imprisoned, and the judges were checked
for admitting them to bail. The house of commons resented those proceedings by draw-
ing up a protest, and denying admittance to the gentleman-usher of the black rod, who
came to adjourn them, till it was finished. This served only to widen the breach, and
the king dissolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations against nine
of the most eminent members, among whom was the great Mr Selden, who was as much
distinguished by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to
the jurisdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were sent to prison
during the king’s pleasure.

Every thing now operated towards the destruction of Charles. The commons would
vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances; upon which Charles,
presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were im-
perfectly or not at all understood, levied money upon monopolies of salt, soap, and such
necessaries, and other obsolete claims, particularly for knighthood, and raised various
taxes without the authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more
and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Bastwick, a physician,
men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and resolute, published several pieces
which gave offence to the court, and which contained some severe strictures against the
ruling clergy. They were prosecuted for these pieces in the star-chamber in a very
arbitrary and cruel manner; and punished with so much rigour, as excited an almost
universal indignation against the authors of their sufferings. Thus was the government
rendered still more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conscience into the
hands of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himself, both in
church and state. Laud advised him to persecute the puritans, and in the year 1637 to
introduce episcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed secret connections with
the discontented English, and invaded England, in August, 1640, where Charles was so
ill served by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace
with the Scots, who made themselves masters of Newcastle and Durham; and being
now openly befriended by the house of commons, they obliged the king to comply with
their demands.

Charles had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, president of
the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland; and he was generally believed
to be the first minister of state. Strafford had been a leading member of the opposition
to the court, but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himself so vigorously
in carrying the king’s despotic schemes into execution, that he became an object of
public detestation. As lord president of the North, as lord lieutenant of Ireland, and as
a minister and privy counsellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and
was guilty of many actions of great injustice and oppression. He was, in consequence,
at length on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much against the in-
clineations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to sign
the warrant for his execution. Archbishop Laud was also beheaded; but his execution
did not take place till a considerable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January
1645.

In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had passed the petition of right into a law,
which was intended by the parliament as the future security of the liberty of the subject,
which established particularly “That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield
any gift, loan, benevolence, tax or such like charge, without common consent by act of
parliament,” but he afterwards violated it in numerous instances, so that an universal
discontent at his administration prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion also
broke out in Ireland, on October 23d 1641; where the Protestants, without distinction of age, sex, or condition, to the amount of many thousands, were massacred by the Papists; and great pains were taken to persuade the public that Charles secretly favoured them out of hatred to the English subjects. The bishops were expelled the house of peers, on account of their constantly opposing the designs and bills of the other house; and the leaders of the English house of commons still kept up a correspondence with the discontented Scots. Charles was ill enough advised to go in person to the house of commons, January 4th, 1641, and there demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr Pym, Mr Hampden, Mr Hollis, Sir Arthur Haslerig, and Mr Stroud, should be apprehended; but they had previously made their escape. This act of Charles was resented as high treason against his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them.

Notwithstanding the many acts of tyranny and oppression of which the king and his ministers had been guilty, yet when the civil war broke out, there were great numbers who repaired to the regal standard. Many of the nobility and gentry were much attached to the crown, and considered their own honours as connected with it; and a great part of the landed interest was joined to the royal party. The parliament, however, took upon themselves the executive power, and were favoured by most of the trading towns and corporations; but its great resource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindsay, a brave, but not an enterprising commander; but he had great dependence on his nephews, the princes Rupert and Maurice, sons to the elector Palatine by his sister the princess Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the ascendency, but in progress of it, affairs took a very different turn. The earl of Essex was made general under the parliament, and the first battle was fought at Edgehill in Warwickshire, the 13th of October 1642; but both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles, for the parliament was so much distressed, that they invited the Scots to come to their assistance, and they accordingly entered England anew, with about 20,000 horse and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houses met; but his enemies were still sitting at Westminster, and continued to carry on the war against him with great animosity. The independent party, which had scarcely before been thought of, began now to increase and to figure at Westminster. They were averse to the Presbyterians, who till then had conducted the war against the king, nearly as much as to the royalists; and such was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed for dismissing the earls of Essex and Manchester, and the heads of the Presbyterians, from the parliament's service, supposing that they were not for bringing the war to a speedy end, or not for reducing the king too low, and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a Presbyterian, and some independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with resentment and loss on both sides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, one on September 20th 1643, and the other, October 27th 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewise many other successes: and having defeated Sir William Waller, he pursued the earl of Essex, who remained still in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to escape by sea; but his infantry surrendered themselves prisoners to the royalists, though his cavalry delivered themselves by their valour.

The first fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marston-moor, July 2d 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken prisoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been retrieved by the successes of Charles in the West, yet his whole conduct was a string of mistakes, till at last his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were set on foot during the war, and the heads of the presbyterian party would have agreed to terms that very little bounded the king's prerogative. They were outwitted and over-ruled by the independents, who were assisted by the stiffness, insincerity, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himself. In short, the independents at last succeeded, in persuading the members at Westminster that Charles was not to be trusted, whatever his concessions might be. From that moment the affairs
of the royalists rushed into ruin; Charles by piece-meal lost all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell at the decisive battle of Naseby, June 14. 1645, owing partly as usual to the misconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed with fresh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be safe.

The Scots were then besieging Newark; and no good understanding subsisted between them and the English parliamentarians, but the best and most loyal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy situation of his affairs, he escaped in disguise from Oxford and came to the Scottish army before Newark, on May 6th 1646, upon promise of protection. The Scots, however, were so intimidated, by the resolutions of the parliament at Westminster, that, in consideration of 400,000l. of their arrears being paid, they put the person of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, probably not suspecting the consequences.

The presbyterians were now more inclined than ever to make peace with the king, but they were no longer masters, being forced to receive laws from the army and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They first by force took Charles out of the hands of the commissioners, June 4th 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned 41 of the presbyterian members, voted the house of peers to be useless, and that of the commons was reduced to 150, most of them officers of the army. In the mean while, Charles, who unhappily promised himself relief from those dissensions, was carried from prison to prison, and sometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were set on foot, but all miscarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an escape, to put himself into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the isle of Wight. A fresh negociation was begun, and almost finished, when the independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, and strongly persuaded of the insincerity of the king, once more seized upon his person, brought him prisoner to London, carried him before a court of justice of their own erecting, and, after an extraordinary trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January 1648-9, being the 49th year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and some have supposed that affliction had taught him so much wisdom and moderation, that he had been restored to his throne he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reason to conclude from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the last, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been reinstated in power. It is however certain, that notwithstanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many in the course of the civil war, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cause, in which they lost their lives and fortunes. The surviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were successively kings of England, Henry duke of Gloucester, who died soon after his brother's restoration, the princess Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William prince of Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princess Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whose daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, were men of different persuasions and principles, but many of them possessed most amazing abilities for government. They omitted no measure that could give a perpetual exclusion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that after they erected themselves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things for retrieving the glory of England by sea. They were joined by many of the presbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards against the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet superior to any that had ever been seen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worcester. The same commonwealth passed an act of na-
avigation; and declaring war against the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible by sea, they effectually humbled those republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time Cromwell, who hated subordination to a republic, had the address to get himself declared commander in chief of the English army. Admiral Blake, and the other English admirals, carried the terror of the English name by sea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten, for which reason he went, April 20th 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 musqueteers, and dissolved the parliament, opprobriously driving all the members, about a hundred, out of their house. He next annihilated the counsel of state, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration of government to about 140 persons, whom he summoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the English were again victorious, still continued. Seven bloody engagements by sea were fought in little more than the compass of one year; and in the last, which was decisive in favour of England, the Dutch lost their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he must encounter unsurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood and his friends, if he should persist in his resolution. He was, however declared lord protector of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exercised all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more despotically in some respects than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even those few threatened to oppose him, if he should take upon him the title of king. Historians, in drawing a character of Cromwell, have been imposed upon by his amazing success, and dazzled by the lustre of his fortune; but when we consult his secretary Thurloe's, and other state papers, the imposture in a great measure vanishes. After a most uncomfortable usurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more respect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than she had been treated with since the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell abolished, and who, as it were, instantaneously called forth the naval strength of the kingdom. In the year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to one million three hundred thousand pounds; of which a million went to the support of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the same year, Cromwell abolished all tenures in capite, by knight's service, and the socage in chief, and likewise the courts of wards and liverties. Several other grievances that had been complained of, during the late reigns, were likewise removed. Next year the total charge, or public expence of England, amounted to two millions three hundred and twenty-six thousand nine hundred and eighty-nine pounds. The collections by assessments, excise, and customs, paid into the Exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundred and sixty-two thousand pounds, four shillings.

Upon the whole it appears, that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches and in power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent, a sure symptom of increasing commerce. The famous and beneficial navigation act, that palladium of the English trade, was now planned and established, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were abolished, and liberty of conscience to all sects was granted, to the vast advantage of population and manufactories, which had suffered greatly by Land's intolerant schemes, having driven numbers of handicrafts to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations we may add the modesty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increase their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly settled in the government, would have broken through the sober maxims of the republicans; for some time before his death he affected great magnificence in his person, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many instances interposed effectually in favour of the protestants abroad. Arts and sciences were not much patronized, and yet he had the good fortune to meet in the person of Cooper,
excellent miniature painter, and his coins done by Simon exceed in beauty and work-
manship any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praise, and as his
genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit persons for the several parts of admin-
istration, so he paid some regard to men of learning, and particularly to those entrusted
with the care of youth at the universities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who succeeded his father Oliver as protector, suffi-
ciently proves the great difference there was betwixt them, as to spirit and parts in
the affairs of government. Richard was placed in his dignity by those who wanted to
make him the tool of their own government: and he was soon after driven, without the
least struggle or opposition, into obscurity. It is in vain for historians of any party to
asccribe the restoration of Charles II. (who with his mother and brothers, during the
usurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious subsistence) to the merits of any par-
ticular persons. The presbyterians were very zealous in promoting it, but it was ef-
fected by the general concurrence of the people, who seemed to have thought that nei-
ther peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by restoring the ancient constitution
of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles, except-
ing such as served his ambition or interest, had the sagacity to observe this; and after
temporizing in various shapes, being at the head of the army, he made the principal
figure in restoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed
in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being restored in 1660, in the first year of his reign seemed to have a
real desire to promote his people's happiness. Upon his confirming the abolition of all
the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the excise for life; and in
this act, coffee and tea are first mentioned. By his long residence and that of his friends
abroad, he imported into England the culture of many elegant vegetables; such as that
of asparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and several kinds of beans, peas, and sallads.
Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the English under the auspices of
Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a sugar colony. The Royal Society was
instituted, and many popular acts respecting trade and colonization were passed. In
short, Charles knew and cultivated the true interest of his kingdom, till he was warped
by pleasure, and sunk in indolence; failings that had the same consequences as despo-
tism itself. He appeared to interest himself in the sufferings of his citizens, when Lon-
don was burnt down in 1666; and it being rebuilt with greater lustre and conveniences,
is a proof of the increase of her trade; but there were no bounds to Charles's love of
pleasure, which led him into the most extravagant expenses. He has been severely
censured for selling Dunkirk to the French king to supply his necessities, after he had
squadroned the immense sums granted him by parliament. The price was about
250,000l. sterling. But even in this, his conduct was more defensible than in his se-
cret connections with France, which were of the most scandalous nature, utterly repug-
nant to the welfare of the kingdom, and such as must ever reflect infamy on his me-
mony.

Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king, may be mentioned his giving way
to the popular clamour against the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviser of the sale of
Dunkirk; a man of extensive knowledge, and great abilities, and more honest in his in-
tentions than most of his other ministers, but whom he sacrificed to the sycophants of
his pleasurable hours. The first Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with
great resolution and spirit under the duke of York; but through Charles's misapplica-
tion of the public money which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty
of peace was depending at Breda, found means to insult the royal navy of England, by
sailing up the Medway as far as Chatham, and destroyed several capital ships of war.
Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda, between Great Britain and the States-
general, for the preservation of the Spanish Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded
to the treaty, 1668, it was called the triple alliance.

In 1671, Charles was so ill advised as to seize upon the money of the bankers, which
had been lent him at 8l. per cent. and to shut up the Exchequer. This was an inde-
fensible step; and Charles pretended to justify it by the necessity of his affairs, being
then on the eve of a fresh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almost proved fatal to that republic, for in this war the English fleet and army acted in conjunction with those of France. The duke of York commanded the English fleet, and displayed great gallantry in that station. The duke of Monmouth, the eldest and favourite natural son of Charles, commanded 6000 English forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries; and all Holland must have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch Lewis XIV, who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and some very unforeseen circumstances. All confidence was now lost between Charles and his parliament, notwithstanding the glory which the English fleet obtained by sea against the Dutch. The popular clamour at last obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in consideration of 200,000l. which was paid him.

In some things Charles acted very despotsically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houses, and ordered them to be shut up, but in a few days afterwards they were opened again. Great rigour and severity were exercised against the Presbyterians, and all other nonconformists to episcopacy, which was again established with a high hand in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addressed him, but in vain, to make war with France in the year 1677, for he was entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a pensioner, and hoped through its influence and power to be absolute. It is not however to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increased, and Charles entered into many vigorous measures for its protection and support.

Charles's connections in France gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exasperated against the French and the Papists; at the head of whom was the King's eldest brother, and presumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles dreaded the prospect of a civil war, and offered many concessions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were bent upon such a revolution as afterwards took place, and were secretly determined that the duke of York never should reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and some others, opened a plot, charging the Papists with a design to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jesuits in England, and from St Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more self-contradictory, than some parts of their narrative, yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, with many Jesuits, and other papists, were publicly executed on evidences supposed now to have been perjured, by those who will have the whole plot to have been a fiction. The queen herself escaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts, and Charles, though convinced, as it is said, that the whole was an imposture, yielded to the torrent. At last it spent its force. The earl of Shaftesbury, who was at the head of the opposition, pushed on the total exclusion of the duke of York from the throne. He was seconded by the ill-advised duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after passing the commons, miscarried in the house of peers. All England was again in a flame; but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, seemed to recover the affections of his people to a very great degree.

The duke of York and his party made a scandalous use of their victory. They trumped up on their side a plot of the protestants for seizing and killing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as false as that which had been laid against the papists. The excellent lord Russell, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sidney, and several other distinguished protestants, were tried, condemned, and suffered death, and the king set his foot on the neck of opposition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the measures of the court, as were almost all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shaftesbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of some of his arbitrary steps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and have executed some measures for the future quiet of his reign; when he died February 6th 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infant of
Portugal, by whom he received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters are now amongst the most distinguished of the British nobility.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarse and indecent. The court was the nursery of vice, and the stage exhibited scenes of impurity. Some readers were found, who could admire Milton as well as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpets of England so well supplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural, witness the style of their sermons; and the days of Charles may be called the Augustan age of mathematics, and natural philosophy. Charles loved and understood the arts more than he encouraged, or rewarded them, especially those of English growth; but this neglect proceeded not from narrow-mindedness, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the first English prince who formed a body of standing force, as guards to his person; it ought to be remembered, at the same time, that he carried the art of ship-building to the highest perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its finest improvements to his and his brother’s knowledge of naval affairs and architecture. As to his religion, James, soon after his death, published to the world, that his brother, notwithstanding his repeated professions of regard to the protestant faith, was a papist and died such, of which there are now incontestable proofs.

All the oppositions which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne, seems to have vanished at the accession of James II. The popular affection towards him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almost ruined protestantism. The army and people supported him in crushing an ill concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful son of Charles II. and as such had assumed the title of king. That duke’s head being cut off, July 15, 1685, and some hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn and quartered, in the West of England, exhibiting a scene of barbarity scarcely ever known in this country; by the instrumentality of Jeffreys and colonel Kirke, James desperately resolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-resistance. The experiment failed him. He made the most provoking steps to render popery the established religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws; he instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court, he openly received and admitted into his privy council the pope’s emissaries, and gave them more respect than was due to the ministers of a sovereign prince. He sent an embassy to Rome, and received at his court the pope’s nuncio. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almost beyond description, and were disapproved of by the pope himself, and all sober Roman catholics. His sending to prison, and prosecuting for a libel, seven bishops, for presenting a petition against reading his declaration for liberty of conscience, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his best protestant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wished well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Lewis XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married the princess Mary, that king’s eldest daughter; and he at last embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore the church and state to their true rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter the princess Anne, and her husband, George prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange, who soon discovered that he expected the crown. James might still have reigned; but he was surrounded with French emissaries, and ignorant Jesuits, who wished him not to reign rather than not restore popery. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen, and son, real or pretended, then but six months old, to France, and to follow them in person, which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in English history is termed the Revolution.
It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was spent in an almost uninterrupted course of hostilities with that power, which were supported by England at an expense she had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two last reigns, and he gave his consent to the bill of rights, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and secured; though the friends of liberty in general complained that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been insisted on, in a period so favourable to the enlargement and security of liberty, as a crown bestowed by the free voice of the people. The two last kings had made a very bad use of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be sufficient to raise and maintain a standing army. The revenue was therefore now divided, part was allotted for the current national service of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is still called the civil list money, was given to the king, for the support of his house and dignity.

It was the just sense the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke them to agree to the late revolution; for they never in other respects had been at so high a pitch of wealth and prosperity as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ships, as appears from Dr Davenant, was that year near double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was in 1688 increased to 101,032 tons. The increase of the customs, and the annual rent of England, was in the same proportion. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was far from being successful, required an enormous expence, and the Irish continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many English, who wished well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being restored by conquest; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne against James, who there lost all the military honours he had acquired before. The marine of France proved superior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat of La Hogue.

Invasions were threatened, and conspiracies discovered every day against the government, and the supply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, and every subject's land was taxed, according to their valuations given in by the several counties. Those who were the most loyal gave the highest valuations, and were the heaviest taxed, and this preposterous burthen still continues; but the greatest and boldest operation in finances that ever took place, was established in that reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon the parliamentary securities, and which form what are now called the public funds. The chief projector of this scheme is said to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for such a project was, that it would oblige the monied part of the nation to befriend the Revolution interest, because, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by supporting that interest, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious. How well those views have been answered is needless here to observe, being already mentioned in the account of the public funds.

William, notwithstanding the vast service he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auspices, particularly in the establishment of the bank of England, and the recoining the silver money, met with so many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually resolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a speech for that purpose, which he was prevailed upon to suppress. He long bore the affronts he met with in hopes of being supported in his war with France, but at last, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryswick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had lost his queen*, but the government was continued in his person. After peace was restored, the commons obliged him to disband his army, all but an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of seeing

* She died of the small pox, Dec. 29, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age.
the whole Spanish monarchy in possession of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II., which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic measure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houses of Bourbon and Austria. This treaty was highly resented by the parliament, and some of his ministry were impeached for advising it. It is thought that William saw his error when it was too late. His ministers were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of King James discovered the insincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his son king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houses passed the bill of abjuration, and an address for a war with France. The last and most glorious act of William's reign was his passing the bill for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover, on the 12th of June 1701. His death was hastened by a fall he had from his horse, soon after he had renewed the grand alliance against France, on the 8th of March 1702, the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding, he seemed also sometimes almost to lose sight of those principles of liberty, for the support of which he had been raised to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the Whigs, yet he often favoured the Tories. The former had the mortification of seeing those who had acted the most inimical to their party, and the free principles of the constitution, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour, and resume their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government extended, to silence all enquiries into the guilt of those who had been the chief instruments in the cruel persecutions of the past reign, and to the obtaining such an act of indemnity as effectually screened every delinquent from the just retaliation of injured patriotism. The rescue and preservation of religion and public liberty were the chief glory of William's reign; for England under him suffered severely both by sea and land, and the public debt at the time of his death amounted to the unheard-of sum of 14,000,000.

Anne, princess of Denmark, by virtue of the act of settlement, and being the next Protestant heir to her father James II., succeeded king William in the throne. As she had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought she would have deviated from his measures; but the behaviour of the French, in acknowledging the title of her brother, who was afterwards well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice, and she resolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been imprisoned in the late reign on a suspicion of Jacobitism, and whose wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a statesman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. No sooner was he placed at the head of the English army abroad, than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in consequence of the intrigues of France, at the same time resenting the partition-treaty, to which his consent had not been asked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip duke of Anjou, grandson of Lewis XIV.; and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance between France and that nation. Philip's succession was disputed by the second son of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himself the title of Charles-III., and his cause was favoured by the empire, England, and Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy against the house of Bourbon, now become more dangerous than ever, by the acquisition of the whole Spanish dominions.

The capital measure of continuing the war against France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her ministry, who were for the most part Tories; and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading Whig) was thought all his life to have a predilection for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treasury. His son had married the earl of Marlborough's eldest daughter, and the earl could trust no other with that important department.

In the course of the war, several glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was soon made duke of Marlborough. Those of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the first
effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim in 1704, the emperor of Germany was saved from immediate destruction. Though Prince Eugene was at that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confessedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken prisoner, and sent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, besides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the same time the English admiral, Sir George Rooke, reduced Gibraltar, which still remains in our possession. The battle of Ramilies in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loss of the enemy there has been variously reported; it is generally supposed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken prisoners; but the consequences shewed its importance.

After the battle of Ramilies, the states of Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognised Charles for their sovereign, while the confederates took possession of Louvain, Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and several other considerable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was at Oudenarde, 1708, where they lost 5000 on the field, and about 7000 taken prisoners; and the year after, September 11th 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet near Mons, after a bloody action, in which the French lost 15,000 men. Thus far I have recounted the flattering successes of the English, but they were attended with many potions of bitter alloy.

The queen had sent a very fine army to assist Charles III. in Spain, under the command of Lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though some advantages were obtained at sea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the disgrace, of England. Prince George of Denmark, husband to the queen, was then lord high admiral. At the same time England felt severely the scarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

As Lewis XIV. professed a readiness for peace, and sued earnestly for it, the Whigs at last gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburgh, 1710. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townshend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. All his offers were rejected by the duke and his associates, as only designed to amuse and divide the allies, and the war was continued.

The unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburgh (as some term it) and the then expected change of the ministry in England, saved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, must prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that “the church was in danger,” which, though groundless, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant worthless preacher, had espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the ridiculous impracticable doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their strength in this man’s case. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to pass upon him only a very small censure. After this trial, the queen’s affections were entirely alienated from the duchess of Marlborough, and the Whig administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by Tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a cessation of arms; but they were disregarded by the queen’s allies in the British pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greatest imprudence, and excited the astonishment of all Europe. So numerous had been his successes, and so great his reputation, that his very name was almost equivalent to an army. But the honour and interest of the nation were sacri-
faced to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs Masham, a relation of the duchess of Marlborough, who had supplanted her benefitress, and by Mr Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries, and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew sensible they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the English. In short, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not be informed of the particular cessions made by the French, especially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been still more indefensible and shameful than it was, had it not been for the death of the emperor Joseph, by which his brother Charles III., for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the dilatoriness, if not bad faith of the English allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the British parliament almost the whole weight of the war, not to mention the exhausted state of the kingdom. Such was the state of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think, from their complexion, that the queen had, by some secret influence, which never has yet been discovered, and was even concealed from some of her ministers, inclined to call her brother to the succession. The rest of the queen's life was rendered uneasy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her ministers. The Whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and she was obliged hastily to dismiss her lord-treasurer, when she fell into a lethargic disorder, which carried her off the first of August 1714, in the 50th year of her age, and the 13th of her reign. Notwithstanding the exhausted state of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death; though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions; so firm was the dependence of the people upon the security of parliament. With Anne ended the line of the Stuarts, which, from the accession of James I. anno 1603, had swayed the sceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the accession of Robert II. anno 1371. James, the late pretend, son of James II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's decease, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St Germain's, and for some time treated as such by the courts of Rome, France, Spain, and Turin. He resided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romish faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two sons, the elder lately dead; viz. Charles Edward, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death repaired to Rome, where he continued for some time, and afterwards resided at Florence, under the title of count Albany; and Henry, who enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York.

Anne had no strength of mind, by herself, to carry any important resolve into execution, and she left public measures in so indecisive a state, that, upon her death, the succession took place in terms of the act of settlement, and George I., elector of Hanover, son of the princess Sophia, grand-daughter of James I., was proclaimed king of Great Britain; his mother, who would have been next in succession, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with strong prepossessions against the Tory ministry, most of whom he displaced. This did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; but many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily suppressed the beginning of the next year.

After all, the nation was in such a disposition that the ministry durst not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was sitting voted a continuance of their duration from three to seven years, which is thought to have been the greatest stretch of parliamentary power ever known, and a very indefensible step. Several other extraordinary measures took place about the same time. Mr Shippen, an excellent speaker, and member of parliament, was sent to the Tower for saying that the king's speech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than that of London. The truth is, the Whig ministry were excessively jealous of every thing that seemed to affect their master's title; and George I., though a sagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too subservient to his continental connections, which were
very various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muscovy about their German concerns, and had not Charles XII. of Sweden been killed so critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded by that northern conqueror, great preparations being made for that purpose.

In 1718 he quarrelled with Spain, on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed between Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States General; and his admiral, Sir George Byng, by his orders, destroyed the Spanish fleet at Syracuse. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was soon ended, by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national punishment, different from plague, pestilence, and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the sudden rise of the South Sea stock, one of the trading companies; but of this we have already given an account, under the article South Sea Company.

The Jacobites thought to avail themselves of the national discontent at the South Sea scheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day increased. One Layer, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treason. Several persons of great quality and distinction were apprehended on suspicion; but the storm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord bishop of Rochester, who was deprived of his see and seat in parliament, and banished for life. There was some irregularity in the proceedings against him, and therefore the justice of the bishop's sentence has been questioned, though there is little or no reason to doubt there was sufficient proof of his guilt.

So fluctuating was the state of Europe at this time, that in September 1725, a fresh treaty was concluded at Hanover, between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Prussia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A squadron was sent to the Baltic, to hinder the Russians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hosier, to the West Indies, to watch the Spanish plate fleets. This last was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and most of his men perished by epidemic diseases, and the hulks of the ships rotted so as to render them unfit for service. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They lost near 10,000 men in the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise.

A quarrel with the emperor was the most dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an opposition in the house of commons was formed by Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more lavish in granting money, and subsidies for the protection of Hanover to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Hesse Cassel. Such was the state of affairs in Europe when George II. suddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Osnaburgh, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. The reign of George II. is remarkable for the incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects to which it gave rise, by which it was reckoned that almost a million and a half was won and lost; and for the great alteration of the system of Europe, by the concern which the English took in the affairs of the continent. The institution of the sinking fund for diminishing the national debt, is likewise owing to this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better understood than formerly, and the state affairs began to shift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal distribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to subsist in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their estates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was considered as first minister of England when George I. died, and some differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the accession of the latter to the crown, that Sir Robert would be displaced. That might have been the case, could another person have been found equally capable as he was to manage the house of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No minister ever understood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, trust, and profit, and almost the house of commons itself, with his own creatures; but peace was his darling object, because he
thought that war must be fatal to his power. During his long administration he never lost a question that he was in earnest to carry. The excise scheme was the first measure that gave a shock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the spirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an insurrection, or endangered his interest in the next general election.

His pacific system brought him, however, into inconveniences both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the British shipping in the American seas, and the French to treat the English court with insolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themselves slighted, and they interested themselves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the disgust of the people at the proposed excise scheme, and passing the Gin Act, in the year 1730, increased the minority in the house of commons to 150, some of whom were as able men and as good speakers as ever had sat in a parliament, and, taking advantage of the increasing complaints against the Spaniards, they attacked the minister with great strength of argument and with great eloquence. In justice to Walpole, it should be observed, that he filled the courts of justice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perversion of the law of the known kingdom. He was so far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the most scurrilous abuse that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two prosecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themselves affected by them; but it is certain, that the press of England never was more open or free than during his administration. And as to his pacific system, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation what was required to support it, by the increase of her trade and the improvements of her manufactures.

Queen Caroline, consort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the minister; but she died in November 20th 1737, when a variance subsisted between the king and his son the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence, he was deprived not only of the power but the provision to which his birth entitled him; and he put himself at the head of the opposition with so much firmness, that it was generally foreseen Walpole's power was drawing to a crisis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the minister, was sent, in 1739, with a squadron of six ships to the West Indies, where he took and demolished Porto Bello; but being a hot impracticable man, he miscarried in his other attempts, especially that upon Carthagena, in which some thousands of British lives were wantonly thrown away. The opposition exulted in Vernon's success, and afterwards imputed his miscarriages to the minister's starving the war, by withholding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, so prevalent was the interest of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyll in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the minister, and after a few trying divisions, he retired from the house, on the 9th of February 1742, was created earl of Orford, and on the 11th resigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loss of his minister with the greatest equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and posts of distinction, upon the heads of the opposition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic sanction (which meant the succession of his daughter to all the Austrian dominions), through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent causes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able but headstrong minister, whom George had made his secretary of state, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himself at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16th 1743, and his not suffering his general the earl of Stair to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderness for his electoral dominions.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expensive war both against the French and Spaniards, and her enemies thought to avail themselves of the general discontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, were thought by some to exceed the bounds of decency. This naturally
The war in 1741 proved unfortunate in the West Indies, through the fatal divisions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops: and it was thought that above 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perished in the impracticable attempt on Carthagena, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been spent in negotiations with the courts of Petersburg and Berlin, which, though expensive, proved of little or no service to Great Britain; so that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the same situation as before. A difference between the admirals Mathews and Lestock had suffered the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with but little loss; and soon after, the French, who had before only acted as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war against the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war carried on a most lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act against the French till the people entered into associations and insurrections against the government. Their marine was in a miserable condition, and when they at last sent a body of troops to join the British and Austrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with so bad a grace, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earnest. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himself the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almost masters of the barrier of the Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raise the siege, but by the coldness of the Austrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whose government all along held a secret correspondence with France, and misconduct somewhere else, he lost the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his best men; though it is generally allowed that his dispositions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, admiral Anson returned this year to England, with an immense treasure (about a million sterling), which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperell, took from the French the important town and fortress of Louisburgh, in the island of Cape Breton.

Such was the state of affairs abroad in August 1743, when the Pretender's eldest son, at the head of some Highland followers, surprised and disarmed a party of the king's troops in the western Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. The government never so thoroughly experienced, as it did at that time, the benefit of the public debt for the support of the Revolution. The French and the Jacobite party (for such there was at that time in England), had laid a deep scheme of distressing the Bank; but common danger abolished all distinctions, and united them in defence of one interest, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their address to the king, to support it by receiving bank-notes in payment. Thisasonable measure saved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not restore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, son-in-law to his majesty George II., was, by the credit of his Majesty, and the spirit of the people of the United Provinces, raised to be their stadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maestricht, and the duke Cumberland was in danger of being made prisoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been accounted for. The allies suffered other disgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was necessary to save the duke and his army from total destruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the English at sea, under the command of the Admirals Anson, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the English arms were not so successful as could have been wished, under rear admiral Boscawen in the East Indies. In this state of affairs,
the successes of the French and English, during the war, may be said to have been balanced, and both ministries turned their thoughts to peace.

However this might be, preliminaries for peace were signed in 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October; the basis of which, was the restitution on both sides of all places taken during the war. The next year, the interest of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent for seven years, after which the whole was to stand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldest stroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, consistently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a small ineffectual opposition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who sold out, even made interest to have it replaced on the same security, or were paid off their principal sums out of the sinking fund.

A new treaty of commerce was signed at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in consideration of 100,000l. the South Sea Company gave up all their future claims to the Assiento contract, by virtue of which that Company had supplied the Spanish West Indies with negroes. In March 1750, died, universally lamented, his royal highness Frederic, prince of Wales. In May 1751, an act passed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old style was abolished, and the new style established, to the vast convenience of the subjects. This was done by sinking eleven days in September 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the first of January. In 1753, the famous act passed for preventing clandestine marriages; but whether it is for the benefit of the subject, is a point that is still very questionable.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back settlements in America, and the dispositions they made for sending over vast bodies of veteran troops, to support those encroachments, produced a wonderful spirit in England, especially after admiral Boscawen was ordered, with eleven ships of the line, besides a frigate and two regiments, to sail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with, and took two French men of war, the rest of their fleet escaping up the river St Lawrence, by the straits of Belleisle. No sooner was it known that hostilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were issued for making general reprisals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ships, whether outward or homeward bound, should be stopped and brought into British ports. These orders were so effectual, that before the end of the year 1755, above 500 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8,000 of their best sailors were brought into the kingdom. This well-timed measure had such an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchantmen, nor to man their ships of war; for about two years after, near 30,000 French seamen were found to be prisoners in England.

In July 1755, General Braddock, who had been injudiciously sent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuscade of the French and Indians near Forte de Quesne; but major-general Johnson defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by the formidable armaments, which were prepared for carrying on the war, they were sunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St Philip there: that admiral Byng, who had been sent out with a squadron, at least equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Gallissionere, and that at last Minorca was surrendered by General Blakeney. The English were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at those events. The loss of Minorca was more shameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the public outcry was such, that the king gave up Byng to public justice, and he was shot at Portsmouth for not doing all that was in his power against the enemy.

It was about this time, that Mr Pitt was placed, as secretary of state, at the head of administration. He had long ago been known to be a bold, eloquent, and energetic speaker, and he soon proved himself to be as spirited a minister. The miscarriages in the Mediterranean had no consequence but the loss of Fort St Philip, which was more than repaired by the vast success of the English privateers, both in Europe and Ameri-
ca. The successes of the English in the East Indies, under Colonel Clive, are almost incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, Nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orriza, and place* Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient seat of the nabobs of those provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French interest, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn’s son, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the amazing extent of riches and territory which the English now possess in the East Indies.

Mr Pitt introduced into the cabinet a new system of operations against France, than which nothing could be better calculated to restore the spirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invasion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itself; and the descent was to be made at Rochefort, under general Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promising than the dispositions for this expedition. It sailed on the 8th of September 1757; but admiral Hawke brought both the sea and land forces back on the 6th of October, to St Helen’s, without the general making any attempt to land on the coast of France. He was tried and acquitted, without the public murmuring, so great an opinion had the people of the minister; who, to do him justice, did not suffer a man or a ship belonging to the English army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a most powerful army, merely because his Britannic majesty refused to wink at their encroachments in America, the English parliament, in gratitude, voted large supplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been sent thither to command an army of observation, but was so powerfully pressed by a superior army, that he found himself obliged to lay down his arms; and the French under the duke of Richelieu took possession of that electorate and its capital. At this time, a scarcity next to a famine, raged in England; and the Hessian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been sent to defend the kingdom from an invasion intended from the French, remained still in England. So many difficulties concurring in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majesty and the king of Prussia: in consequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000l. to his Prussian majesty; and also voted large sums, amounting in the whole to two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse Cassel, Saxe Gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckberg. This treaty, which proved afterwards so burdensome to England, was intended to unite the protestant interest in Germany.

George II. with the consent of his Prussian majesty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Clossterseven, ordered his Hanoverian subjects to resume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, a Prussian general, who instantly drove the French out of Hanover, and the duke of Marlborough, after the English had repeatedly insulted the French coasts by destroying their stores and shipping at St Maloës and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. A war ensued, in the course of which the English every where performed wonders, and were every where victorious, but nothing decisive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the most glorious, perhaps, in the English annals, in which 7000 English defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops in fair battle, contributed nothing to the conclusion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The English bore the expences of the war with cheerfulness, and applauded Mr Pitt’s administration, because their glorious successes in every other part of the globe demonstrated that he was in earnest. Admiral Boscawen and general Amherst, in August 1758, reduced and demolished Louisburgh in North America, which had been restored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the scourge of the British trade, and took five or six French ships of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Quesne, in the same quarter, fell also into the hands of the English; acquisitions that far overbalanced a check which the English received at Ticonderago, and the loss of above 300 of the English guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coast of France.
The English affairs in the East Indies this year proved equally fortunate; and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pococke had engaged the French fleet near Fort St David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the Bien Aimé, of 74 guns, was so much damaged that they ran her on shore. That on the 3d of August following, he engaged the French fleet a second time, near Pondicherry; when, after a brisk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the sail they could make, and got safe into the road of Pondicherry. And that, on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in those parts, marched to besiege Madras, which was defended by the English colonels Lawrence and Draper; and, after a brisk cannonade, which lasted till the 16th of February following, the English having received a reinforcement of 600 men, generally Lally thought proper to raise the siege, and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the island of Goree, on the coast of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved successful. One of them was against the French islands in the West Indies where Guadaloupe was reduced. The second expedition was against Quebec, the capital of Canada. The command was given, by the minister's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was opposed, with far superior force, by Montcalm, the best and most successful general the French had. Though the situation of the country which Wolfe was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a descent of the English, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounted incredible difficulties; he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himself killed, as was Montcalm; general Monkton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reserved for brigadier-general (afterwards lord viscount) Townshend.

General Amherst, who was the first English general in command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St Lawrence. It is to the honour of the minister, that the general in this expedition was so well provided with every thing that could make it successful, that there scarcely appeared any chance for its miscarriage; and thus the French empire in North America became subject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now desperate, and their credit ruined, they resolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invasion of Great Britain: but on the 8th of August, 1759, admiral Boscawen attacked the Toulon squadron, commanded by M. de la Cleue, near the straits of Gibraltar, took Le Centaure of 74, Le Temeraire of 74, and Le Modeste of 74 guns; and burnt L'Ocean of 80, and Le Redoutable of 74 guns. The rest of the fleet, consisting of seven ships of the line, and three frigates, made their escape in the night; and on November 20, Sir Edward Hawke defeated the Brest fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the island of Dumet, in the Bay of Biscay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns, was taken; the These of 74, and the Superbe of 70 guns, were sunk; and the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Heros of 74 guns, were burnt, and afterwards the Juste of 74 perished in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns over-board; and the rest of the fleet, consisting of five ships of the line, and three frigates, escaped in the night. The English lost on this occasion, the Essex of 64, and the Resolution of 74 guns, which ran ashore in the chace. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their invasion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, Captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had, with three sloops of war, alarmed the coasts of Scotland, and actually made a descent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by Captain Elliot, the commander of three ships, inferior in force to the Frenchman's squadron. In short, Great Britain now reigned as sole mistress of the main, and succeeded in every measure that had been projected for her own safety and advantage.
The war in Germany, however, continued still as undecisive as it was expensive, and many in England began to consider it now as foreign to the internal interests of Great Britain. The French again and again shewed dispositions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little less than eighteen millions sterling yearly, inclined the British ministry to listen to their proposals. A negotiation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died suddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart), full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was succeeded by his grandson, now George III. eldest son to Frederick prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehensible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could separate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was sometimes ill enough advised to declare so much in his speeches to parliament. We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was not very accessible to conversation, and therefore it was no wonder that, having left Germany after he had attained to man's estate, he still retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with Sir Robert Walpole's administration with great indifference, and shewed very little concern at the subsequent revolutions among his servants. In his personal disposition he was passionate, but placable, fearless of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he served when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary course of justice; and though his reign was distracted by party, the courts of justice were never better filled than under him: this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

King George III. ascended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour; he was in the bloom of youth, in his person tall and comely, and at the time of his accession Great Britain was in the highest degree of reputation and prosperity, and the most salutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The first acts of his reign seemed also calculated to convince the public that the death of his predecessor should not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the island of Belleisle on the coast of France, surrendered to his majesty's ships and forces under commodore Keppel and General Hodson; as did the important fortress of Pondicherry, in the East Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations against the French West Indies still continued under general Monkton, lord Hollo, and sir James Douglas; and in 1762 the island of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the islands of Grenada, St Lucia, Grenadillas, St Vincent, and others of less note, were subdued by the British arms with inconceivable rapidity.

In the mean time, Mr Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such eminent ability, and who had received the best information of the hostile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed in council an immediate declaration of war against that kingdom. But he was over-rulled in the council, all the members of which declared themselves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in-law, earl Temple. Mr Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was supposed that the earl of Bute, who had a considerable share in directing the education of the king, had acquired an ascendancy in the royal favour. Mr Pitt, however, said, that "as he was called to the ministry by the voice of the people, to whom he considered himself as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a situation which made him responsible for measures that he was no longer allowed to guide." He, therefore, resigned the seals, and lord Temple also gave up the post which he held, in the administration. But the next day, the king settled a pension of three thousand pounds a-year.

* It was on the 25th of March 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal secretaries of state: and on the 5th of October following, Mr Pitt resigned the seals.
upon Mr Pitt, and at the same time a title was conferred upon his lady and her issue; and the pension was to be continued for three lives.

The war still continued to be carried on with vigour after the resignation of Mr Pitt, and the plans were pursued that he had previously concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to succeed him, as secretary for the southern department. It was at length also found indispensably necessary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family-compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being generally known; and accordingly war was declared against that kingdom, on the 4th of January 1762.

A respectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spanish monarchy were struck at, by the reduction of the Havana, the strongest and most important fort which his catholic majesty held in the West Indies, after a siege of two months and eight days. The capture of the Hermione, a large Spanish register ship, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million sterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treasure passed in triumph through Westminster to the Bank, the very hour he was born. The loss of the Havana, with the ships and treasures taken from the Spaniards, was succeeded by the reduction of Manila and the Philippine islands in the East Indies, under general Draper and admiral Cornish, with the capture of Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract those dreadful blows given to the family-compact, the French and Spaniards, opened their last resource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the British arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, it certainly embarrassed his Britannic Majesty, who was obliged to send thither armaments both by sea and land.

The negotiations for peace were now resumed; and the enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate to the occasion. The defection of the Russians from the confederacy against the king of Prussia, and his consequent successes, produced a cessation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majesty, the king of France and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was solemnly proclaimed at Westminster and London; and the treaty having on the 16th been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houses.

By this treaty the extensive province of Canada, with the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St John, were confirmed to Great Britain; also the two Floridas, containing the whole of the continent of North America, on this side the Mississippi, (except the town of New Orleans, with a small district round it,) was surrendered to us by France and Spain, in consideration of restoring to Spain the island of Cuba; and to France the islands of Martinico, Gaudaloupe, Mariagalante, and Defensa; and in consideration of our granting to the French the two small islands of St Pierre and Miquelon, on the coast of Newfoundland, and quitting our pretensions to the neutral island of St Lucia, they yielded to us the islands of Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitied their pretensions to the neutral islands of St Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the settlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engrossed the whole gum trade of that country, but we returned Goree, a small island of little value. The article that relates to the East Indies, was dictated by the directors of the English company; which restores to the French the several places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they shall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal; and the city of Manilla was restored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewise, the French restored to us the island of Minorca, and we restored to them the island of Belleisle. In Germany, after six years spent in marches and counter-matches, numerous skirmishes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but at the expense of thirty millions sterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual restitution and oblivion should take place, and each party sit down at the end of the war in the same situation in which they began it. And peace was
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restored between Portugal and Spain, both sides to be upon the same footing as before the war.

The war, to which a period was now put, was the most brilliant, and distinguished with the most glorious events in the British annals. No national prejudices, nor party disputes then existed. The same truly British spirit by which the minister was animated, fired the breast of the soldier and seaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages; and the monied man, pleased with the aspect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the minister, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purse. The incredible sums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raised by a few citizens of London, upon a short notice, for the service of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, was no less astonishing to Europe than the success which attended the British fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe.

But the peace, though it received the sanction of a majority of both houses of parliament, was far from giving universal satisfaction to the people. And from this period various causes contributed to occasion a great discontent to prevail throughout the nation.

On the 30th of April 1763, three of the king's messengers entered the house of John Wilkes, esq. member of parliament for Aylesbury, and seized his person, by virtue of a warrant from the secretary of state, which directed them to seize 'the authors, printers, and publishers, of a seditious and treasonable paper, intituled the North Briton, No. 45.' The papers published under this title severely arraigned the conduct of the administration, and represented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the person from whom measures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The 45th number contained strictures on the king's speech. Mr Wilkes was suspected to be the author, but his name was not mentioned in the warrant by which he was apprehended. He objected to be taken into custody by such a warrant, alleging that it was illegal. However he was forcibly carried before the secretaries of state for examination, and they committed him close prisoner to the Tower, his papers being also seized. He was likewise deprived of his commission as colonel of the Buckinghamshire militia. A writ of habeas corpus being procured by his friends, he was brought to the court of Common Pleas, and the matter being there argued, he was ordered to be discharged. This affair made a great noise; people of all ranks interested themselves in it, and Westminster hall resounded with acclamations when he was set at liberty. An information, however, was filed against him in the court of King's Bench, at his majesty's suit, as author of the North Briton, No. 45. On the first day of the meeting of parliament, after these transactions, Mr Wilkes stood up in his place, and made a speech, in which he complained to the house, that in his person the rights of all the commons of England, and the privileges of parliament, had been violated by his imprisonment, the plundering of his house, and the seizure of his papers. The same day a message was sent to acquaint the house of commons, with the information his majesty had received, that John Wilkes esq. a member of that house, was the author of a most seditious and dangerous libel, and the measures that had been taken thereupon. The next day a duel was fought in Hyde Park between Mr Wilkes and Mr Martin, another member of parliament, and secretary of the treasury, in which Mr Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly with a pistol bullet. Both houses of parliament soon concurred in voting the North Briton, No. 45, to be a false, scandalous, and seditious libel, and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This order was accordingly executed, though not without great opposition from the populace: and Mr Harley, one of the sheriffs who attended, was wounded and obliged to take shelter in the Mansion-house. Another prosecution was commenced against Mr Wilkes, for having caused an obscene and profane poem to be printed, intituled, "An Essay on Woman." Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed: and it did not appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, however, that he should continue to be prosecuted with the utmost rigour, when his wound was in some degree healed, he thought proper to quit the kingdom. He was soon after expelled the house of commons; verdicts were also given against him, both on account of the North Briton and the Essay on Woman, and
towards the end of the year 1764 he was outlawed. Sunday other persons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publishing the north Briton; but some of them obtained verdicts against the king's messengers for false imprisonment.

In the mean while, the earl of Bute, who had been made first lord of the treasury, resigned that office, and was succeeded by Mr George Grenville. And under this gentleman's administration, an act was passed, said to have been framed by him, which was productive of the most pernicious consequences to Great Britain; "An act for laying a stamp-duty on the British colonies in North America," which received the royal assent on the 22d of March 1765. Some other injudicious previous regulations had also been made under pretence of preventing smuggling in America; but which in effect so cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudicial both to them and the mother country. As soon as it was known in North America that the stamp act was passed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame. As the Americans had hitherto been taxed by their own representatives in their provincial assemblies, they loudly asserted, that the British parliament, in which they were not represented, had no right to tax them. Indeed, the same doctrine had been maintained in the British parliament, when the stamp-act was under consideration: on which occasion it was said, that it was the birth-right of the inhabitants of the colonies, even as the descendants of Englishmen, not to be taxed by any but their own representatives; that, so far from being actually represented, they were not even virtually represented there, as the meanest inhabitants of Great Britain are, in consequence of their intimate connection with those who are actually represented; and that therefore the attempt to tax the colonies in the British parliament was oppressive and unconstitutional. On the other hand, it was contended, that the colonies, who had been protected by Great Britain, ought, in reason and justice, to contribute towards the expence of the mother country. "Those children, of our own planting," said Mr George Grenville, speaking of the Americans, "nourished by our indulgence, until they are grown to a good degree of strength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expence which we lie under?"

When the stamp-act, printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Several acts of violence were likewise committed, with a view of preventing the operations of the stamp-act; and associations were also formed in the different colonies, whereby the people bound themselves not to import or purchase any British manufactures, till that act should be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies also established committees from every colony to correspond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and even appointed deputies from these committees to meet in Congress at New York. They assembled together in that city, in October 1765, and this was the first congress held on the American continent.

These commotions in America occasioned so great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to dismiss his ministers. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury; and some of his lordship's friends succeeded to the vacant places. In March 1766, an act was passed for repealing the American stamp-act. This was countenanced and supported by the new ministry; and Mr Pitt, though not connected with them, yet spoke with great force in favour of the repeal. He also asserted, that the profits to Great Britain from the trade in the colonies, through all its branches, was two millions a-year.

At the time that the stamp-act was repealed, an act was also passed for securing the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain.

The marquis of Rockingham and his friends continued in administration but a short time; though during their continuance in power several public measures were adopted, tending to relieve the burdens of the people, and to the security of their liberties. But on the 30th of July, 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed first lord of the treasury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne, secretary of state, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer, and Mr Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord privy-seal; but that eminent statesman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the house of commons,
greatly lessened his weight and influence. Indeed this political arrangement was not of any long continuance, and sundry changes followed. Mr Charles Townshend, a man of great abilities and eloquence, made for some time a considerable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but, on his death, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was supplied by lord North, who afterwards became first lord of the treasury, and obtained a great ascendancy in the administration.

In the year 1768, Mr Wilkes, who had for a considerable time resided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. The limits of our work will not permit us to enter into all the particulars respecting the prosecution of this gentleman, and the subsequent transactions concerning him. It is well known, that verdicts were found against him on account of the North Briton, and for the indecent poem, "Essay on Women." That he suffered a long imprisonment of two years, and paid two fines of 500l each. That he displayed great abilities during his contests with the ministry, and was chosen member for the county of Middlesex on the 28th of March, 1768. He was also again expelled for being the author of some prefatory remarks on a letter which he published, written by one of the secretaries of state, to the chairman of the quarter-sessions at Lambeth, in which the secretary had recommended to the magistrates, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George’s Fields, their calling in the assistance of the military, and employing them effectually, if there should be occasion. In the vote for his expulsion, his former offences, for which he was now suffering imprisonment, were complicated with this charge; and a new writ was ordered to be issued for the election of a member for the county of Middlesex.

The rigour with which Mr Wilkes was prosecuted, only increased his popularity, which was also much augmented by the spirit and firmness which on every occasion he displayed. Before his expulsion he had been chosen an alderman of London: and on the 16th of February, 1769, he was re-elected at Brentford member for the county of Middlesex without opposition. The return having been made to the house, it was resolved, that Mr Wilkes having been expelled that session, was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore, was again declared void, and a new writ issued for another. He was once more unanimously re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the house of commons. After this, a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrel, in order to recommend himself to the court, vacated the seat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and declared himself a candidate for the county of Middlesex. Though the whole weight of court interest was thrown into the scale in this gentleman’s favour, yet a majority of four to one appeared against him on the day of election: the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for Luttrel only 236. Notwithstanding this, two days after the election it was resolved in the house of commons, that Mr Luttrel ought to have been returned a knight of the shire for the county of Middlesex; and the deputy-clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by erasing the name of Mr Wilkes, and inserting that of colonel Luttrel in its place. The latter accordingly took his seat in parliament; but this was thought so gross a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited a very general discontent, and loud complaints were made against it in every part of the kingdom.

After the term of Mr Wilkes’s imprisonment was expired in the year 1771, he was chosen one of the sheriffs for London and Middlesex; and was afterwards again chosen member for the county of Middlesex in the subsequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his seat there; in the year 1775, he executed the office of lord mayor of the city of London; and was afterwards elected to the lucrative office of chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord North’s administration, at Mr Wilkes’s motion, all the declarations, orders, and resolutions of the house of commons respecting his election for the county of Middlesex, were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that house, “as being subversive of the rights of the whole body of this kingdom.” And it should be remembered, that in consequence of his manly and spirited contests with the government, general warrants are declared to be illegal, and an end was put to such warrants, and to the unlawful seizure of an Englishman’s papers by state messengers.
After the repeal of the stamp-act, which was received with great joy in America, all things became quiet there; but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the British parliament, though, besides the experience of the ill success of the stamp-act, governor Pownall, a gentleman well acquainted with the disposition of the colonists, said in the house of commons, in 1767, "It is a fact which this house ought to be apprized of in all its extent, that the people of America, universally, unitely, and unalterably, are resolved not to submit to any internal tax imposed upon them by any legislature, in which they have not a share by representatives of their own election." He added, "this claim must not be understood as though it were only the pretences of party leaders and demagogues; as though it were only the visions of speculative enthusiasts; as though it were the mere ebullition of a faction which must subside; as though it were only temporary or partial—it is the cool deliberate, principled maxim of every man of business in the country." The event verified the justice of these observations; yet the same year, an act was passed laying certain duties on paper, glass, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies, for the purpose of raising a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal these duties, excepting that on tea; but it was not the amount of the duties, but the right of the parliament of Great Britain to impose taxes in America, which was the subject of dispute, the repealing the other duties answered no purpose, while that on tea remained; which accordingly became a fresh subject of contest between the mother-country and the colonies.

In order to induce the East India Company to become instrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was passed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty free, to all places whatsoever. Several ships were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who also appointed agents there for the disposal of that commodity. This was considered by the Americans as a scheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was easily comprehended, that if the tea was once landed, and in the custody of the consignees, no associations, nor other measures, would be sufficient to prevent its sale and consumption; and it was not to be supposed, that when taxation was established in one instance, it would restrain itself in others. These ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was resolved by the colonists to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes amongst them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly, three ships laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boston in December 1773, a number of armed men, under the disguise of Mohawk Indians, boarded these ships, and in a few hours discharged their whole cargoes of tea into the sea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some smaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a similar fate at Boston, and a few other places; but in general, the commissioners for the sale of that commodity were obliged to relinquish their employments, and the masters of the tea vessels, from an apprehension of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war. But the persons in the service of government there were obliged to consent to its being locked up from use. And in South Carolina some was thrown into the river, as at Boston, and the rest put into damp warehouses, where it perished.

These proceedings in America excited so much indignation in the government of England, that on the 31st of March 1774, an act was passed for removing the custom-house officers from the town of Boston, and shutting up the port. Another act was soon after passed for better regulating the government of the province of Massachusetts’s Bay. The design of this act was to alter the constitution of that province as it stood upon the charter of king William: to take the whole executive power out of the hands of the people, and to vest the nomination of the councillors, judges and magistrates of all kinds, including sheriffs, in the crown, and in some cases in the king’s governor, and all to be removable at the pleasure of the crown. Another act was also passed, which was considered as highly injurious, cruel and unconstitutional, empowering the governor of Massachusetts’s Bay to send persons accused of crimes there, to be tried in England for such offences. Some time after, an act was likewise passed, "for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec," which excited a great alarm both in England and America. By this act, a legislative council was to be established for all
the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation, which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleasure, and his majesty’s Canadian Roman Catholic subjects were entitled to a place in it. The French laws, and a trial without a jury, were also established in civil cases, and the English laws, with a trial by a jury, in criminal; and the popish clergy were invested with a regal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No assembly of the people, as in other British colonies, was appointed, it being said in the act, that it was then inexpedient; but the king was to erect such courts of criminal, civil, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction, as he would think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewise extended, by the act, thousands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was said, a government little better than despotic was established throughout an extensive country.

The measures of government respecting America had so universally exasperated the colonists, that provincial or town meetings were held in every part of the continent, wherein they avowed their intentions of opposing, in the most vigorous manner, the measures of administration. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the subscribers bound themselves in the most solemn manner, and in the presence of God, to suspend all commercial intercourse with Great Britain, from the last day of the month of August 1774, until the Boston port-bill, and the other late obnoxious laws were repealed, and the colony of Massachusetts’s Bay fully restored to its chartered rights. Other transactions succeeded; and the flame continued to increase and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including that whole extent of country which stretches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a General Congress, which was to be held at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September 1774. They met accordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fifty-one; who represented the several English colonies of New Hampshire (2 delegates), Massachusetts’s Bay (4), Rhode Island and Providence plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jersey (4), Pennsylvania (7), the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5 delegates); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy, and sent deputies to the Congress.

They drew up a petition to the king, in which they enumerated their several grievances, and solicited his majesty to grant them peace, liberty, and safety. They likewise published an address to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congress broke up on the 26th of October, having resolved that another congress should be held in the same place on the 10th of May following, unless the grievances of which they complained should be redressed before that time; and they recommended to all the colonies to choose deputies, as soon as possible, for that purpose.

Shortly after these events, some measures were proposed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a stop to the commotions which unhappily subsisted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm state of health, appeared in the house of lords, and expressed in the strongest terms his disapprobation of the whole system of the American measures. He also made a motion, for immediately recalling the troops from Boston, as a measure which should be instantly adopted; urging, that an hour then lost, in allaying the ferment in America, might produce years of calamity. He alleged that this conciliatory measure would be well-timed; and, as a mark of affection and good will on our side, would remove all jealousy and apprehension on the other, and instantaneously produce the happiest effects to both. His lordship’s motion was rejected by a large majority, 68 against 18; as was also a bill which he brought in soon after for settling the American troubles, by 61 to 32. The methods proposed in the house of commons for promoting an accommodation, met also with a similar fate. The number of his majesty’s troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was passed for restraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit their fishery on the Banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the house of commons, by lord North, first lord of the treasury, for suspending the exercise of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the British parliament, in such of the colonies as should, in their general assemblies, raise such contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to
some provincial assemblies; but it was rejected by them as delusive and unsatisfactory, and only calculated to dissuade them. The petition from the congress to the king was ordered by his majesty to be laid before the parliament; whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, solicited to be heard at the bar of the house of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in support of that petition; but their application was rejected; it being said that the American congress was no legal assembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it by the parliament with propriety.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war, at Lexington and Concord in New England. This was occasioned by general Gage sending a body of troops to destroy some military stores that were at Concord. They succeeded in their design, but were extremely harassed and forced to a quick retreat; 65 of them were killed, 170 wounded, and about 20 made prisoners. The Americans were computed not to have lost more than 60, including killed and wounded. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia invested the town of Boston, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmost dispatch; and a stop was almost everywhere put to the exportation of provisions. The continental congress met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May 1775, as proposed, and soon adopted such measures as confirmed the people in their resolutions to oppose the British government to the utmost. Among their first acts, were resolutions for the raising of an army, and the establishment of a large paper currency for its payment. They assumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America," who were securities for realizing the nominal value of this currency. They also strictly prohibited the supplying of the British fisheries with any kind of provisions; and to render this order the more effectual, stopped all exportation to those colonies, islands, and places, which still retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, surprised the garrisons of Ticonderago and Crown Point. These fortresses were taken without the loss of a man on either side; and the provincials found in the forts a considerable number of pieces of cannon, besides mortars, and sundry kinds of military stores. However, the force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boston from England of the generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with considerable reinforcements. But the continental congress were so little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Massachusetts's Bay was dissolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the establishment of a new government, by electing a governor, assistants, and house of assembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

Our limits will not permit us here to relate all the particulars of this fatal war. We can only mention some of the most important transactions. On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunkers Hill, near Boston, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loss of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. But after this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charlestown neck; so that the troops were as closely invested in that peninsula as they had been in Boston. About this time, the congress appointed George Washington, Esq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired considerable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the last war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They also published a declaration, in which they styled themselves "The representatives of the United Colonies of North America," and assigned their reasons for taking up arms. It was written in a very animated strain, and contained the following passage: "In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birth-right, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it; for the protection of our property, acquired solely by the honest industry of our forefathers and ourselves; against violence actually offered, we have taken up arms. We shall lay them down when hostilities shall cease on the part of the aggressors, and all danger of their being renewed shall be removed, and not before." A second petition to the king was voted by the congress, in which they earnestly solicited his majesty to adopt some.
method of putting a stop to the unhappy contest between Great Britain and the colonies. This petition was presented by Mr Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennsylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, secretary of state for the American department; but Mr Penn was soon after informed that no answer would be given to it. The refusal of the king to give an answer to this petition, from near three millions of people, by their representatives, contributed exceedingly towards farther exasperating the minds of the Americans. It was a rash and unhappy determination of the cabinet-council, and their advice to the king on this point was fatal, if not highly criminal. An address now also was published by the congress to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory measures were adopted, hostilities still continued; and an expedition was set on foot by the Americans against Canada, to which they were induced by an extraordinary commission given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada: by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the subjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital punishments against all those whom he should deem rebels and opposers of the laws. The American expedition against Canada was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, a gentleman of an amiable character, and of considerable military skill, on whom the congress conferred the rank of brigadier general. On the 31st of December, Montgomery attempted to gain possession of Quebec by storm, but was killed in the first fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was also dangerously wounded, about 60 of their men were killed and wounded, and 300 taken prisoners. The besiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the siege was for some months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving considerable reinforcements and supplies of provisions from England, May 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat: Montreal, Chamblee, and St John's, were retaken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

During these transactions, the royal army at Boston was reduced to great distress for want of provisions; the town was bombarded by the Americans, and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of seven thousand men, was obliged to quit Boston and embark for Halifax, leaving a considerable quantity of artillery and same stores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March 1775, and general Washington immediately took possession of it. On the 4th of July following, the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, “Free and Independent States;” that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally dissolved; and also that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. They likewise published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of “The United States of America.”

In July 1776, an attempt was made by commodore Sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charlestown in South Carolina. But this place was so ably defended by the Americans under general Lee, that the British commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ships having sustained considerable loss, and a twenty-eight gun ship, which run a ground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and seamen. However, a much more important and successful attack against the Americans was soon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined with a large body of Hessians, and a considerable number of Highlanders, so that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother vice-admiral lord Howe, and both the general and the admiral were invested with a power under the title of “Commissioners for granting peace to the colonies,” of granting pardon to those who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the town of New York seems to have been ex-
pected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the best manner they were able. On Long Island, near New York, the Americans had also a large body of troops encamped, and several works thrown up. General Howe first landed on Staten Island, where he met with no opposition; but early in the morning of the 22d of August, a descent was made by the British troops upon Long Island, and towards noon about fifteen thousand were landed. They had greatly the advantage of the Americans, by their superior skill and discipline, and being better provided with artillery, and every kind of military accommodation; and the American passes were far from being properly secured. Some actions and skirmishes happened between them during several successive days; in which the British troops engaged their enemies with great ardour, and the Americans suffered exceedingly. Finding themselves so much overpowered, they at length resolved to quit the island, and general Washington came over from New York to conduct their retreat, in which he displayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the American troops were withdrawn from the camp, and their different works, and with their baggage, stores, and part of their artillery, were conveyed to the water-side, embarked, and passed over a long ferry to New York, with such extraordinary silence and order, that the British army did not perceive the least motion, and were surprised in the morning at finding the American lines abandoned, and seeing the last of their rear-guard in their boats, and out of danger. The provincials had been so surrounded by the British troops, and the latter had displayed such superior military skill, it was a subject of wonder that the greatest part of the American army should be able to effectuate their retreat. In the different actions previous to this, the loss of the Americans had been very considerable. Upwards of a thousand of them were taken prisoners, including three generals, three colonels, and many inferior officers; their number killed and wounded was computed to be still greater; they lost also five field pieces, and a quantity of ordnance was found in their different redoubts and forts on the island; whilst the whole loss of the British troops, if faithfully published, did not amount to more than three hundred killed and wounded.

New York was now soon abandoned, and the royal army obtained some other considerable advantages over the Americans: at the White Plains, taking fort Washington, with a garrison of 2500 men, and fort Lee with a great quantity of stores, which losses obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerseys to the river Delaware, a distance of ninety miles. Also on the 8th of December, general Clinton and Sir Peter Parker obtained possession of Rhode-island; and the British troops covered the Jerseys: This was the crisis of American danger. All their forts taken, and the time of the greatest part of their army to serve was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were in a destitute state, with a well clothed and disciplined army pursuing. Had general Howe pushed on at that time to Philadelphia, after Washington, it hath been maintained there would have been an end of the contest: but Providence directed otherwise; and the general's orders from home are said to have prevented him. This delay gave way for volunteer reinforcements of gentleman, merchant, farmer, tradesman, and labourer, to join general Washington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidst snow, storms, and ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of the Hessian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them prisoners, with whom he repassed the river; having also taken three standards, six pieces of brass cannon, and near one thousand stand of arms. Immediately after this surprise of the Hessians, and depositing them in safety, Washington recrossed the river to resume his former post at Trenton. The British troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning to execute it; but the Americans, by a happy stroke of generalship, defeated the plan. Washington, to disguise his retreat in the night, ordered a line of fire in front of his camp, as an indication of their going to rest, and to conceal what was acting behind them. Then he moved completely from the ground with his baggage and artillery, and by a circuitous march of eighteen miles reached Princetown early in the morning, carried the British post at that place, and set off with near 300 prisoners on his return to the Delaware, just as the British troops at Trenton were under arms and proceeding to attack him, supposing him in his former position.
In the month of September 1777, two actions of some importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and soon after, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of the Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderoga; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorously opposed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two severe actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne and his army of 5,600 men were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.

About the same time, Sir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a successful expedition against the Americans up the North River; they made themselves masters of several forts; but the Americans complained, that in this expedition, and some others, the British troops had wantonly set fire to houses and towns, particularly Esopus, and carried on the war in a manner not usual among civilized nations. These devastations greatly increased the aversion of the Americans to the British government, which had already taken a deep root. General Howe soon after returned to England, and the command of the British army in America devolved upon general Clinton: but it was now found necessary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated with the army to New York, in June 1778. The British troops were attacked on their march by the Americans, but the retreat was safely conducted, or the American general Lee behaved so ill, that their loss did not amount to 300 killed and wounded.

During part of this unhappy war between Great Britain and the colonies, the latter received considerable supplies of arms and ammunition from France; and the French court seems to have thought this a favourable opportunity for lessening the power of Great Britain. Some French officers also entered into the American service; and on the 6th of February 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and in this treaty it was declared, that the essential and direct end of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and independence, absolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be in general alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American war: and in June 1778, the earl of Carlisle, William Eden, and George Johnstone, esqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commissioners from his majesty, to settle the disputes between the mother country and the colonies. But it was now too late: the terms which, at an earlier period of the contest, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with disdain. The congress refused to enter into any treaty with the British commissioners, if the independency of the United States of America was not previously acknowledged, or the British fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of these requisitions being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animosity.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted colonies, occasioned hostilities to be commenced between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either side. On the 27th of June 1778, the Licorne and la Belle Poule, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately issued by the French court for making reprisals on the ships of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July a battle was fought off Brest between the English fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of the count d'Orvilliers. The English fleet consisted of 30 ships of the line, and the French 32, besides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not decisive, no ship being taken on either side, and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Brest. Of the English 123 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loss of the French is supposed to have been very great.
In the East Indies also an engagement happened between some English ships of war under the command of Sir Edward Vernon, and some French ships under the command of Mons. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of August, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following Pondicherry surrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the course of the same year the island of St Lucia, in the West Indies, was taken from the French; but the latter made themselves masters of Dominica; and the following year they obtained possession of the islands of St Vincent's and Grenada. In September 1779 the count D'Estaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and a considerable body of French troops, to the assistance of the Americans. After dallying a month, the French and Americans made an united attack upon the British troops at Savannah, under the command of general Prevost. But the latter defended themselves so well, that the French and Americans were driven off with great loss, and D'Estaing soon after totally abandoned the coast of America; and, at the close of the year 1779, several French ships of war, and merchant-men, were taken in the West Indies, by a fleet under the command of Sir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage with France in the war against England: one of the first enterprises in which the Spaniards engaged was the siege of Gibraltar, which was defended by the garrison with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was also added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets seemed for a time to ride almost triumphant in the British channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconsiderable apprehensions of an invasion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind; and, after parading for some time in the channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports, without effecting any thing. On the 8th of January 1780, Sir George Bridges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured seven Spanish ships and vessels of war belonging to the royal company of Carraccas, with a number of trading vessels under their convoy; and, in a few days after, the same admiral engaged near Cape St Vincent a Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven ships of the line, and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largest Spanish ships were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on shore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the English. A Spanish 70 gun-ship, with 600 men, was likewise blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewise happened in the West Indies, between the English fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world, (having previously thrown supplies into Gibraltar), and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but none of these actions were decisive, nor was any ship taken on either side. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ships from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of August the combined fleets of France and Spain took five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships, bound for the West Indies, which was one of the most complete naval captures ever made, and a very severe stroke to the commerce of Great Britain. Such a prize never before entered the harbour of Cadiz.

On the 4th of May 1780, Sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Charlestown, South Carolina; and on the 16th of August earl Cornwallis obtained a very signal victory over General Gates in that province, in which about a thousand American prisoners were taken.

Soon after major-general Arnold deserted the service of the congress, and made his escape to New York, and was made a brigadier-general in the royal service. Major André, who negociated this desertion, and was concerting measures with him for betraying the important post of West Point into the hands of the English, was taken in the American lines, in his return to New York, and being considered as a spy, suffered death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

The great expences of the American war, and the burdens which were thereby laid upon the people, naturally occasioned much discontent in the nation, and seemed to convince persons of all ranks of the necessity of public economy. Meetings were therefore held in various counties in the kingdom at the close of the year 1779, and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were present, who
agreed to present petitions to the house of commons, stating the evils which the profuse expenditure of the public money occasioned, &c.

Some trivial attempts were made in parliament to remedy the grievances stated in the petitions, but nothing important was effected; the ministry soon found means to maintain their influence in parliament; a diversity of sentiment occasioned some disunion among the popular leaders; the spirit which had appeared among the people by degrees subsided; and various causes at length conspired to bring the greatest part of the nation to a patient acquiescence in the measures of administration.

The middle of the year 1780 was distinguished by one of the most disgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that ever had appeared in this country; especially if it be considered as happening in an age in which the principles of toleration were well understood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately passed, "for relieving his majesty's subjects, professing the Romish religion, from certain penalties and disabilities imposed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the reign of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of sense, and of liberal sentiments, by whom the laws against Papists were justly deemed too severe. The act at first seemed to give little offence to persons of any class in England, but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Resolutions were formed to oppose any law for granting indulgences to Papists in Scotland; and a Roman chapel was burned, and the houses of several Papists demolished, in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England: a number of persons assembled themselves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament, for a repeal of the late act in favour of the Papists, and they assumed the title of the Protestant Association. It was then resolved, in order to give more weight to their petition, that it should be attended by great numbers of petitioners in person; and a public advertisement was issued for that purpose, signed by Lord George Gordon.

Fifty thousand persons are supposed to have assembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St George's Fields, from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the house of commons, where their petition was presented by their president. In the course of the day, several members of both houses of parliament were grossly insulted and ill treated by the populace, and a mob assembled the same evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's Inn Fields, and another Roman chapel in Warwick-street, Golden-square, were entirely demolished. A party of the guards were then sent for, to put a stop to the farther progress of these violences, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed to Newgate, escorted by the military. On the Sunday following another mob assembled, and destroyed a Popish chapel in Ropemakers' alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demolished a school-house and three dwelling-houses in the same place, belonging to the Roman priests, with a valuable library of books, and a mass-house in Virginia street, Ratcliff-highway. They also destroyed all the household furniture of Sir George Saville, one of the most respectable men in the kingdom, because he had brought in the bill in favour of the Papists. On Tuesday great numbers again assembled about the parliament house, and behaved so tumultuously that both houses thought proper to adjourn. In the evening a most daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to release the rioters who were confined there; and the keeper having refused to deliver them, his house was set on fire, the prison was soon in flames, and great part of it consumed, though a new stone edifice of uncommon strength, and more than three hundred prisoners made their escape, many of whom joined the mob. Now a committee of the Protestant Association circulated hand-bills, requesting all true protestants to shew their attachment to their best interest, by a legal and peaceable deportment; but none of them stepped forth, notwithstanding their boasted numbers, to extinguish the flames they had occasioned: violence, tumult, and devastation, still continued. The Protestant Association, as they thought proper to style themselves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry, and their new confederates were animated by the love of mischief, and the hope of plunder. Two other prisons, the houses of Lord Mansfield and Sir John Fielding, and several other private houses, were destroyed the same evening. The following day the King's Bench prison, the New
Bridewell, in St George's Fields, some Popish chapels, several private houses of the Papists, and other buildings, were destroyed by the rioters; some were pulled down, and others set on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and disorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During these extraordinary scenes there was a shameful inactivity in the lord mayor of London, and in most of the other magistrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the ministry appeared to be panic-struck, and to be only attentive to the preservation of their own houses, and of the royal palace. The magistrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving any orders to the military to fire upon the insurgents; but at length, as all property began to be insecure, men of all classes began to see the necessity of vigorous opposition to the rioters; large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was issued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions " from the civil magistrates, and to use force for dispersing the illegal and tumultuous " assemblies of the people." The troops exerted themselves with diligence in the suppression of these alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony *, and the metropolis was at length restored to order and tranquillity.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was disturbed by these commotions, there appeared reason to apprehend an increase of its foreign enemies, by a rupture with Holland: loud remonstrances were made by the British minister to the States General, complaining that a clandestine commerce was carried on between their subjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the case at St Eustatia, and that the enemies of Great Britain were supplied with naval and military stores by the Dutch.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour, and that republic soon suffered a very severe stroke in the loss of the island of St Eustatia, which was taken by the English on the 2d of February 1781.

On the 5th of August the same year, an engagement was fought between an English squadron of ships of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch squadron, under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. On both sides they fought with great gallantry, and by both of the contending squadrons the victory was claimed.

The war continued to be prosecuted with various success; the French made themselves masters of the island of Tobago, and the Spaniards of Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, with little effectual resistance. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans under general Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15. 1781, but it was a hard fought battle, and the loss on both sides considerable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the consequences of a defeat; for three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his sick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington, before they could find shelter, and so left South Carolina entirely exposed to the American general. The generals Philips and Arnold committed some ravages in Virginia, destroyed much shipping, and about 8000 hogheads of tobacco; but none of these events at that time promised any speedy termination of the war; they rather contributed to draw the attention of the Americans and the French at Rhode island to that quarter, where the next year the decisive blow was struck, which firmly established American independence. Lord Cornwallis's situation at Wilmington was very disagreeable, and his force reduced so low that he could not think of marching to Charleston by land; he turned his thoughts then to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march April 25. 1781. In this central province all the scattered operations of active hostility began at length to converge into a point, and the grand catastrophe of the American war opened to the world. By different reinforcements lord Cornwallis's force amounted to above 7000 excellent troops, but such

* Lord George Gordon was himself committed to the Tower, and tried for high treason, but acquitted.
was their plundering and devastations on their route, and the order of the Americans, that his situation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, was prevented from sending those succours to him which he otherwise would have done, by his fears for New York, against which he apprehended Washington meditated a formidable attack. This American general played a game of great address; as many of their posts and dispatches had been intercepted, and the letters published with great parade and triumph in the New York papers, to expose the poverty, weakness, and disunion of the Americans; Washington soon turned the tables on the British commanders, and derived public advantage from this source of vexation and prejudice. He wrote letters to the southern officers and others, informing them of his total inability to relieve Virginia, unless by a direct attack with the French troops on New York. He asserted it was absolutely determined on, and would soon be executed. These letters were intercepted (as was intended they should) with others of the like kind from the French officers, and the project was successful: Sir Henry Clinton was thus amused and deceived, and kept from forming any suspicion of the real designs of the enemy.

By a variety of judicious military manœuvres Washington kept New York and its dependencies in a continual state of alarm for about six weeks, and then suddenly marched across the Jerseys, and through Pennsylvania, to the head of the Elk, at the bottom of the Chesapeake, from which the light troops were conveyed by shipping down the bay, and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, were also there embarked, and soon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton, receiving information that the count de Grasse was expected every moment in the Chesapeake with a large fleet, to co-operate with Washington, now seriously attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without success; for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the British fleet under admiral Greaves, and that of the French under de Grasse, Greaves returned to New York to refit, and left the French masters of the navigation of the Chesapeake. Presently the most effectual measures were adopted by general Washington for surrounding lord Cornwallis's army, and on the last of September it was closely invested in York Town, and at Gloucester, on the opposite side of the river, with a considerable body of troops on one side, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 5th and 7th of October, with a large train of artillery. The works which had been raised by the British sunk under the weight of the enemy's batteries, the troops were much diminished by the sword and sickness, and worn down by constant watching and fatigue, and all hope of relief failing, the 19th of October lord Cornwallis surrendered himself and his whole army by a capitulation to general Washington, as prisoners of war.*. Fifteen hundred seamen underwent the fate of the garrison, but these, with the Guadalupe frigate of 24 guns, and a number of transports, were assigned to M. de Grasse, as a return for the French naval power and assistance.

Such was the issue of the Virginian war. The capture of this army, under lord Cornwallis, was too heavy a blow to be soon or easily recovered; it threw a gloom over the whole court and cabinet at home, and put a total period to the hopes of those who had flattered themselves with the subjugation of the colonies by arms. The surrender of this second British army may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in America; for the immense expense of carrying it out, so distant from the seat of preparations and power, the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effusion of human blood it had occasioned; the diminution of trade, and the vast increase of taxes—these were evils of such a magnitude, arising from this ever to be lamented contest, as could scarcely be overlooked even by the most insensible and stupid. Accordingly, on the 1st of March 1782, after repeated struggles in the house of commons, the house addressed the king, requesting him to put a stop to any farther prosecution of so offensive a war against the American colo-

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* The American return made the number of prisoners 7247, land and marine.
nies. This was a most important event; it rendered a change of measures, and of coun-
cils, absolutely necessary, and diffused universal joy throughout the kingdom. Those
country gentlemen who had generally voted with the ministry saw the dangers to which
the nation was exposed in an expensive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without
a single ally, and feeling the pressure of the public burdens, they at length deserted the
standard of administration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March
1782, under the auspices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed first lord
of the treasury.

The first business of the new ministry was the taking measures for effectuating a ge-
neral peace. Mr Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris with all the
parties at war, and was also directed to propose the independence of the Thirteen Unit-
ed Provinces of America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a ge-
neral treaty. The commanders in chief in America were also directed to acquaint the
congress with the pacific views of the British court, and with the offer to acknowledge
the independency of the United States.

Peace every day became more desirable to the nation. A series of losses agitated
the minds of the people. January 14. 1782 the French took Nevis. On the 5th of
February the island of Minorca surrendered to the Spaniards, and on the 13th of the
same month the island of St Christopher's was given up to the French. The valuable
island of Jamaica would soon probably have shared the same fate, had not the British
fleet, under admiral Rodney, fallen in with that of the French, under the count de
Grasse, in their way to join the Spanish fleet at St Domingo. The van of the French
was too far advanced to support the centre, and a signal victory was obtained over
them. The French admiral in the Ville de Paris of 110 guns (a present from the city
of Paris to the French king) was taken, with two seventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a
74 gun ship blew up by accident soon after she was in our possession, and another 74
sunk during the engagement. A few days after two more of the same fleet, of 64 guns
each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April the design against Jamaica
was frustrated. The new ministry had superseded admiral Rodney, and intended to
have prosecuted an inquiry into his transactions at St Eustatius, but this victory si-
lenced all complaints, and procured him the dignity of an English peer.

May 8th the Bahama islands surrendered to the Spaniards; but the credit of the Bri-
tish arms was well sustained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot, the governor, and their
formidable attack on the 13th of September, with floating batteries of 212 brass can-
non, &c. in ships from 1400 to 1600 tons burden, ended in disappointment, and the
destruction of all the ships, and most of the assailants in them. The garrison was
relieved by lord Howe, in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined
force of France and Spain, though twelve sail of the line inferior. The military op-
erations after this were few, and of little consequence. Negapatnam, a settlement in
the East Indies, and Trincomale on the island of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch
by the British forces; but the French soon receiving considerable succours from Eu-
ropc, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, forced the British fleet into several actions,
but none decisive, and enabled Hyder Ally to withstand, with various success, all the
efforts of sir Eyre Coote and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham, on the 1st of July, occasioned a violent
commotion in the cabinet, and lessened the hopes which had been formed of important
national benefits from the new administration. Lord Shelburne succeeded the marquis
as first lord of the treasury, and it is said, without the knowledge of his colleagues.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France, the preliminaries of which
were settled January 20. 1783, Great Britain ceded to France, of her possessions before
the war, the island of Tobago, in the West Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa,
with its dependencies, and the forts on the river, and gave up a few districts in the
East Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry and Karical; it also agreed to restore the
islands of St Lucia, St Pierre, and Miquelon, and the island of Goree, with Pondicher-
ry, Karical: Mahe, Chandernagore, and the comptoir of Surat, in the East Indies,
which had been conquered from the French during the war. To prevent disputes about
boundaries in the Newfoundland fishery, it was agreed that the French line for fishing
should begin from Cape St John on the eastern side, and going round by the North, should have for its boundary Cape Ray on the western side; and Great Britain renounced every claim by former treaties with respect to the demolition of Dunkirk. France, on the other hand, was to restore to Great Britain the islands of Granada, and the Grenadines, St Christopher's, St Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montserrat.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power East Florida, and also ceded West Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. Spain agreed to restore the islands of Providence and the Bahamas, to Great Britain, but they had been retaken before the peace was signed.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledges New Hampshire, Massachusetts's Bay, Rhode Island, and Providence plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be free, sovereign, and independent states, and for himself, his heirs, and successors, relinquished all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the same, and every part thereof.

Thus a period was put to a most calamitous war, in which Great Britain lost the best part of her American colonies, and many thousand valuable lives, and expended or squandered nearly 150 millions of money. The terms of peace were strongly objected to by many; and the address in approbation of the treaty, though carried in the house of lords by a majority of 72 to 59, was lost in the commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons, thus enlisting under the banners of the famous coalition leaders, Mr Fox and Lord North, plainly indicated a ministerial revolution to be near at hand, unless the cabinet would call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen just mentioned were made secretaries of state, and the duke of Portland first lord of the treasury, on April 2d 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preserving the nation, which lord Shelburne proposed, seemed now to be dropt. Every thing went on just as the coalition administration pleased, till Mr Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the East India company, and their commercial affairs and territories; a plan of which bill, its progress and fate, we have already given in our account of that trading company. This bill being rejected in the house of lords, on December 17th, by a majority of 19, occasioned a great ferment in the cabinet, and in both houses of parliament.

A royal message was sent between 12 and 1 of the morning of the 19th of December, to desire the two secretaries to send the seals of their offices immediately; and Mr Pitt, second son of the great earl of Chatham, succeeded the duke of Portland as first lord of the treasury, bringing in his friends into the respective departments.

Persons of the most distinguished and independent character in the house of commons, and in the kingdom, now wished that a dissolution had taken place weeks before, even at the first forming of the coalition.

At last, after strong and repeated contests between the two parties, on the 25th of March 1784, a proclamation was issued for dissolving the present parliament, and calling a new one, agreeable to the desires and addresses of a great part of the kingdom. It soon appeared that the appeal to the people had turned out greatly in Mr Pitt's favour; for, on May 24th, on a division of the house for an address to the king's speech, the numbers for it, without any alteration or amendment, were 282 against 114.

Encouraged by this majority, Mr Pitt brought in his famous East India bill the 5th of July, the leading particulars of which we have given in our account of that company, with a few observations upon it. A plan for establishing a sinking fund, and for employing a million annually for the reduction of the national debt, was also proposed and carried into effect.

In the house of commons, Mr Sheridan brought forward an important charge against Warren Hastings, Esq, late governor-general of Bengal, for high crimes and misdemeanors in the East Indies.

He was accused of various acts of tyranny, extortion, and cruelty, during his government of India. The house of commons resolved to impeach him, and prosecute his trial
before the house of peers. The impeachment was conducted by a number of its most distinguished members, and enforced with all their eloquence. But he was believed to have performed those acts, for which he was impeached, upon the most urgent necessity, and for the salvation of the British empire in India. All the influence of the East India Company, and its most distinguished servants, were employed to save him; ministry wavered between his friends and his enemies, till the energy of the latter languished by the lengthening out of his trial. He was acquitted, and the East India Company repaid to him the expenses of his trial, and settled upon him an annuity of 5000 a-year.

The consolidation of the customs and excise was the most important circumstance deserving of attention in the year 1787. This was a measure of incredible labour and detail, as well as of infinite advantage to commerce, by facilitating and simplifying the intricacies attendant on mercantile transactions, and the payment of duties, a regulation which was duly and permanently effected.

The ministry, soon after the recess of parliament, were engaged in attending to disputes which subsisted in the republic of the United Provinces of Holland. The malcontents there were become highly refractory and turbulent, and had treated the royal consort of his serene highness the Stadtholder, sister to the king of Prussia, with the greatest indignity. Every method was taken on the part of his Britannic majesty, to effect the restoration of tranquillity, and the maintenance of lawful government among them. His Majesty also thought it necessary to explain his intention of counteracting all forcible interference on the part of France in the internal affairs of the Republic.

As the king of Prussia had taken measures to enforce his demand of satisfaction for the insult offered to the Princess of Orange, and the party which then usurped the government of Holland had applied to the French king, and received assurance of assistance, which was notified to his Britannic majesty, orders were given for augmenting the British forces both by sea and land, to co-operate with the king of Prussia, which orders were executed with the greatest alacrity.

In the mean time, the rapid success of the Prussian troops under the conduct of the duke of Brunswick at once obtained the reparation demanded by their sovereign, and enabled the provinces to deliver themselves from the oppression under which they laboured; as well as to re-establish their lawful government; insomuch that all subjects of contest being thus removed, an explanation took place between the courts of London and Versailles, and declarations were exchanged by their respective ministers, by which it was mutually agreed to disarm, and to place their naval establishment on the same footing as in the beginning of this year. Thus, by the united efforts of the kings of England and Prussia, the king of France was prevented from openly assisting the malcontents in Holland, and the Stadtholder established in the government of the United Provinces, and a provisional treaty of defensive alliance was signed on the 18th of June between the ministers plenipotentiary of their majesties the kings of Great Britain and Prussia; and afterwards with the States General of Holland.

His majesty was in the month of November afflicted by a severe indisposition which prevented him from meeting his parliament. Several physicians were examined as to the state of his majesty's health. In consequence of this, a grand question was started in the house of commons, concerning the right of supplying the deficiency of the royal authority during the incapacity of his majesty. After very considerable debates, the Prince of Wales was appointed regent with full power to exercise and administer the royal authority. He was however prevented from conferring peerages but on persons of the royal issue, and those of full age; he could not grant offices or pensions, or salaries for life, or in reversion. The real and personal property of his majesty was secured, and was not to be considered as appertaining to, or under the control of the prince regent. The care and custody of the king's person was committed to the queen, who had power to remove and appoint, from time to time, all persons belonging to the different departments of his majesty's household during the continuance of his illness, and no longer; and for the better enabling her to perform this duty, a council was appointed to advise with her majesty on all matters relative to this trust, who were also empowered to examine upon oath, at such times as they should think fit, the physicians who had attended, touching the state of his majesty's health.
All these resolutions were agreed to after much altercation; and before the lords could communicate their concurrence to the commons, a protest by upwards of fifty peers was entered on their journals. The resolutions were afterwards agreed to, and a committee appointed to communicate them to her majesty, and his royal highness the prince of Wales. The prince replied to the committee in terms that did honour to his humanity, liberality, and patriotism; and her majesty expressed her satisfaction and pleasure at the measures they had adopted in the present situation of affairs.

The consideration of the regency bill was resumed from time to time in both houses of parliament, till the 10th of March, when the lords commissioners sent a message to the commons, desiring their attendance in the house of peers; and announced to them, by his majesty's command, his happy recovery from his late indisposition, and consequent capacity of now attending to the public affairs of his kingdom, together with his warmest acknowledgments for their late proofs of their attachment to his person and government. On this occasion a general joy was manifested by all ranks of people, and illuminations and other marks of public rejoicings were made over all the kingdom. By his majesty's proclamation, the 23d of April was observed as a day of public thanksgiving to Almighty God for the removal of his late illness. The king, attended by the whole royal family, went to St Paul's church in state, amidst the joyful acclamations of the populace, who demonstrated their loyalty and affection by every possible token of respect and applause; and particularly on the following evening, by the most universal and splendid illumination ever known.

In the month of May 1790, a rupture had nearly taken place with Spain, occasioned by the capture of two vessels by the Spaniards in Nootka Sound. The most vigorous preparations were making on both sides, when all differences were at length finally settled, and peace was happily re-established.

But though Great Britain was thus happily rescued from the horrors of war in this quarter of the globe, accident or ambition involved our Indian possessions in blood.

Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the most formidable to the British government, and the most hostile to its authority. The dispute which finally involved the English arose betwixt the Dutch and Tippoo. The Dutch were possessed of two forts situated between Mysore and Cochin, to these forts Tippoo laid claim, in right of his father who had conquered them. The Dutch, unable to defend themselves entered into a negotiation with the Rajah of Travancore for the purchase of them. That politic people easily saw that by placing them in the hands of the Rajah of Travancore, who was the ally of Great Britain, they erected a powerful barrier against the ambitious encroachments of their neighbour, no less than the whole power of Britain. The bargain was concluded with the Rajah in July 1789, though it was not till the 4th of August that the Rajah informed the Madras government that he was on the point of making the purchase.

On the first of March 1790, the Rajah's troops made an attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th of December. An engagement took place, and war being thus commenced, the British government conceived themselves bound to take an active part. Such was the state of affairs previous to the meeting of parliament, and such were the facts which induced the ministry to take part in an Indian war.

In pursuance of his majesty's intimation of the close of the session, the parliament was dissolved on the 11th of June. On the 25th of November 1790 the new parliament was assembled, and on the following day his majesty opened the session by a speech from the throne. The transactions of this session were not of great importance. Several motions were made respecting the Indian war, all tending to censure its commencement as both unjust and impolitic. A question of considerable constitutional importance was likewise determined in the case of Mr Hastings. The question was whether impeachments by the commons abate by a dissolution of parliament, which was determined in the negative. It was recommended in his majesty's speech to provide such regulations for the government of Quebec as the present circumstances of the province should require. A debate followed on that subject not so remarkable for its importance as for the difference it caused betwixt two of the most distinguished members of opposition.
which afterwards ended in a total disunion. The question concerning the slave trade was likewise agitated during this session. On the 18th April Mr Wilberforce opened the leading arguments for that measure, and pressed for its abolition. He was strongly supported by Mr Fox and several eminent speakers, but was negatived by a great majority.

Soon after the rising of parliament, a series of shameful outrages and violations took place in the town of Birmingham, and for the space of four days spread terror and alarm through the town and adjacent country. A festive meeting, previously announced to the public, in commemoration of the French revolution, seems to have provoked these tumults. Without attempting to palliate much less excuse the excesses of a frantic mob, it may be observed, that the purpose of the meeting was at least very idle, and when we consider the scenes of wickedness that had taken place in France, and the detestable principles propagated by the leaders of the French Revolution, it may seem to deserve a harsher appellation.

The transactions of the parliament of 1792 were even less important than those of the sessions immediately preceding. The session was opened on the 31st of January by a speech from the throne, in which his Majesty expressed his satisfaction in announcing to parliament the marriage which had been celebrated between his son, the duke of York, with the daughter of his good brother and ally the king of Prussia. He acquainted them that a definitive treaty had been concluded between the emperor and the Ottoman Porte; and also that preliminaries had been agreed upon by the latter of these powers and the Empress of Russia. He regretted that he was not able to acquaint them with the issue of the Indian war, but expressed his hopes that it would soon be brought to an honourable conclusion. The friendly assurances he had received from foreign powers, and the general state of affairs in Europe, appeared to promise to his subjects the continuance of tranquillity; in consequence of this he was induced to hope that some reduction might be made in the naval and military establishments. These were the principal subjects of the speech delivered from the throne.

The subject which appears to have first engaged attention was the Indian war, concerning which very different opinions were formed. But in this affair and in the armament against Russia, the ministry were supported by a great majority. On the 17th Mr Pitt presented a copy of the treaty between his majesty and the king of Prussia on the marriage of the duke of York with the princess Frederica of Prussia. By this treaty the king of Prussia agreed to give his daughter 100,000 crowns, and their royal highnesses and the king of Great Britain agreed to renounce for ever all right to the crown of Prussia. The duke of York was to make a present to her royal highness of 4000l. per annum for pin-money; and the king of Great Britain engaged to pay a counterportion of 100,000 crowns, and in case of the death of his royal highness to provide for the princess the annual sum of 8000l. per annum with a suitable residence. The house now took into consideration an establishment for the duke and duchess of York, and the resolutions passed by which these kingdoms were pledged to an allowance of 37,000l. per annum to their royal highnesses. The question of the slave trade was again brought before the house, when it was moved by Mr Dundas that the importation of negroes should cease 1st January 1800. It was moved that 1800 should be altered for 1793, which was negatived.

We now come to treat of a most eventful period in the British history; a period in which our invaluable constitution was threatened with dangers the most alarming and unprecedented. It was not difficult to foresee that the French revolution must produce consequences of the utmost importance to Europe in general; particularly to England, both on account of its vicinity and the connection which subsisted betwixt the two countries.

We have already taken notice of a difference betwixt two of the most distinguished members of opposition concerning the French revolution. This difference, as it was fundamental, produced afterwards a final separation in policies between these two eminent personages. In 1790, the celebrated Reflections on the French Revolution were published: in this work with equal truth and eloquence the illustrious author showed its true spirit, and the direct tendency of these principles which were professed by its authors.
It would be difficult to give any idea of the ferment and commotion that was occasioned by the French revolution at that time in Great Britain. The proselytes to French principles spoke and acted as if a sudden blaze of light had illuminated the darkened world; as if mankind had awakened from a dream, and just opened their eyes, hitherto obscured by prejudice and superstition. Congratulatory addresses were sent from different societies to the national convention, extolling their new constitution with the highest praises; the press teemed with publications of the most seditious tendency; the whole-some principles of our ancestors were derided as the prejudices of narrow minds; and nothing was heard but the vain sounds of liberty, equality, and the rights of man. A book was at this time published by Mr Paine, which contributed very much to poison the minds of the ignorant and profligate, and to spread the infection of French principles among the lower classes of the people. The astonishing rapidity however with which the book circulated, together with the successes of the French in the Netherlands, inspired the favourers of French anarchy with unusual boldness, and, under the specious pretext of reform, they entered into designs for the subversion of the British government.

The first measure that was adopted in this difficult crisis, was the Alien-bill. In consequence of the disorders which at that time prevailed in France, and the tyrannical government which was established in that country, great numbers of the French nobility and clergy had been obliged to emigrate, and to seek for safety in poverty and in exile. Together with them, another description of men had emigrated from France, some for the worst of purposes. It was to thwart the designs of these men, that a bill, establishing regulations respecting aliens arriving in Great Britain, was presented to parliament.

It was followed by another bill brought in by the Attorney-general, to prevent the circulation of assignats, bonds, promissory notes, &c. issued under the authority of France; another bill was passed about the same period, for restraining the exportation of naval stores, ammunition, &c. and an order of council was issued, for preventing the exportation of corn to France.

The French, having now filled up the measure of their crimes, by imbruing their hands in the blood of their sovereign; having by repeated decrees held out encouragement and protection to traitors in every country, and endeavoured to kindle the flames of rebellion in the world, the situation of Great Britain was rendered to the last degree critical and alarming.

Having by their last outrage, the opening of the Scheldt, manifested their contempt of all the existing treaties of Europe, Great Britain determined to remain no longer an unconcerned spectator of what was transacting on the continent. On the 28th of January 1793, a message was delivered to the house of commons, informing them that his majesty thinks it indispensibly necessary to make a further augmentation of his forces by sea, for opposing views of aggrandisement and ambition on the part of France, which would be at all times dangerous to the general interests of Europe, but were peculiarly so, when connected with the propagation of principles which lead to the violation of the most sacred duties, and are utterly subversive of the peace and order of all civil society.

The question in favour of the address was carried both in the house of lords and commons without a division. The French, however, anticipated our intentions, whatever they might have been, by a decree of the convention, formally declaring war against his Britannic majesty, and the Stadtholder.

About this period from different causes a general paralysis appeared to seize the country, and the number of bankruptcies exceeded all that had ever happened in the most calamitous times; such was the general distress, that each man looked upon his neighbour with suspicion. Those who were possessed of property, appeared at a loss where to deposit it, and those who experienced pecuniary distress, appeared at a loss where to look for relief. To apply a remedy to this alarming evil, Mr Pitt moved that 5,000,000l. should be issued by exchequer bills, under certain restrictions, for the assistance of such persons, who can give proper security to the commissioners, for the sums that may be advanced. The bill passed the house of lords and commons without a division.
On the 21st of January 1794, his majesty opened the session with the usual formalities. The address was voted by a majority of 118. Our narrow limits render it impossible for us to take notice of the important questions that were agitated in parliament this session. No less than three motions were made by the different members of opposition for altering the criminal law of Scotland; the landing of the Hessian troops, the conduct of the war, were all reprobated by opposition. The treaty concluded by the king of Sardinia likewise underwent a severe investigation. The resolution, however, allowing his majesty to make good the treaty passed without a division. The chancellor of the exchequer then moved two resolutions to allow his majesty 4,500,000l. for the present year by a loan on exchequer bills, which were put and carried.

On the 1st of February, the chancellor of the exchequer read to the house the decree of an extraordinary commission instituted in France, in consequence of a resolution of the joint committees of finances, of public and general safety, and subsistence, directing the use of every possible expedient to ascertain the property of French subjects in foreign funds; in order that it might be delivered up to the state, and become public property; and that when the transfer was made, it should be paid for in assignats estimated at par. The motion on this occasion was brought forward by the solicitor-general, and was in substance for leave to bring in a bill, "to prevent the application of debts in the hands of any of the subjects of his majesty, to or for the disposal of persons resident in France, under the power of persons who exercise the present government of France." The bill passed without any opposition.

On the 12th of May, the ministry issued warrants for apprehending Mr Horne Tooke, Mr Hardy, and Mr Thelwall, and several other persons on a charge of high treason. On the same day Mr Dundas brought down a message from the king, recommending to the house to consider the books and papers of the London Corresponding Society which his majesty had given orders to seize, and to pursue such measures as were necessary to prevent their pernicious tendency.

The papers were referred to a committee of secrecy, who brought up their report on the 16th of May, when Mr Pitt, after an eloquent speech, moved for a bill empowering his majesty to secure and detain all persons suspected of designs against his crown and government. The bill met with a strong opposition; it passed however by a great majority. Soon after the trials for high treason commenced, and that of Thomas Hardy, which continued eight days, terminated in his acquittal. Mr Horne Tooke obtained also a verdict of Not Guilty, after six days investigation; the issue of the five days trial of Mr Thelwall was alike favourable to him, and the others were discharged. Little else of very great importance occurred, during the present session. There happened some differences with America, concerning which several motions were made. They were afterwards, however, happily adjusted. On the 11th of July his majesty terminated the session by a speech to both houses of parliament. Immediately on the rising of parliament several changes took place in administration. The duke of Portland was made one of his majesty's principal secretaries of state, and Mr Windham secretary at war. Shortly after earl Fitzwilliam was appointed viceroy of Ireland.

For the operations of this war on the continent, which commenced with success on our part, but terminated most unfavourably, we refer our readers to France. But amidst all our misfortunes on the continent, we had still the consoling reflection of triumphing completely over the enemy at sea. In the month of May, the French were induced to depart from the system of naval hostilities which they had hitherto pursued, and, anxious for the fate of a large convoy expected from America, the Brest fleet to the amount of 26 sail ventured out to sea. On the 1st of June, the British commander, having obtained the weather-gage of the enemy, determined to improve the opportunity for bringing them to a close action. A desperate engagement accordingly commenced, which the enemy's fleet supported with amazing obstinacy and courage. But nothing could withstand the skill, discipline, and valour, of the British fleet. In less than an hour after close action commenced, the French admiral, who had been engaged by the Queen Charlotte, crowded off and was followed by most of the ships in his van in condition to carry sail, leaving ten or twelve of his crippled or dismayed ships
behind. Such, however, was the disabled state of the British fleet, that several of these escaped. Six ships of the line remained in possession of the British admiral, and were brought safe into Plymouth, and one was sunk.

In the course of the preceding year, a treaty of marriage had been negotiated between his royal highness the prince of Wales, and the princess Caroline of Brunswick, daughter of the duke of Brunswick. On the 27th of April, a message from his majesty was delivered to both houses of parliament, relative to the debts of the prince of Wales: It stated the reliance of his majesty on their generosity for enabling him to settle an establishment upon the prince, and his august bride, suited to their rank and dignity; that the benefit of any settlement now to be made, could not be effectually secured to the prince till he was relieved from his present incumbrances to a large amount; but that his majesty did not propose to his parliament any other means of providing for this object, than the application of a part of the income which may be settled on the prince, and the appropriation for a certain time of the revenue of the duchy of Cornwall, &c.

After a considerable difference of opinion upon this subject, the annual sum of 125,000L was finally voted by the commons as a suitable establishment for the heir-apparent to the throne. Of this 65,000L with the income of the duchy of Cornwall was set apart for the liquidation of his debts.

As his majesty was proceeding this session at the usual hour to open the parliament, the most daring insults were offered him as he passed along, by the crowd in St James's park, which was much greater than usual; in the streets adjoining Westminster hall, stones and other things were thrown, several of which struck the state-coach. As his majesty returned from the house, the outrages were renewed, and after he alighted, the state coach was attacked and almost totally destroyed.

Immediately after the speech from the throne, an address to his majesty relative to the outrages committed against his person was proposed and agreed to. On the 4th of November copies of his majesty's proclamations relative to the outrages committed against his person were submitted to the house and ordered to lie upon the table. Lord Grenville on the 6th, in pursuance of the notice he had given on a former day, presented a bill, "for the safety and preservation of his majesty's government against treasonable and seditious practices and attempts." On the same day, the chancellor of the exchequer after an eloquent speech moved, that "Leave be given to bring in a bill for the more effectually preventing seditious meetings and assemblies." These bills, after a violent opposition, passed both houses of parliament.

Dismayed by the successes of the French, several states had sent ambassadors to Paris to open a negotiation for peace. A treaty was concluded with Spain and several of the German princes. But of all these, the negotiation opened by the English government engaged most deeply the attention of Europe. The commencement of this negotiation clearly forebode what would be the event. The grossest calumnies, concerning the insincerity and even perfidy of the English court, were circulated under the apparent sanction of the Directory. After a good deal of discussion concerning the principle of restitution, the two governments at last agreed on that point, and Lord Malmsbury delivered two memorials on the principal objects of restitution, compensation, and reciprocal arrangements. The directory having read the memorials sent an extract from the registers of their deliberations, requiring his signature to the memorials, and also the ultimatum of his demands in 24 hours. Lord Malmsbury complied with the forms required by the directory, but observed that the peremptory demand which they made of an ultimatum, shut the door at once to all negotiation; and represented, that if the conditions submitted to their consideration were not approved, or were not to be the subject of discussion, if they would propose their own conditions, he would submit them to the consideration of his court.

At this point the negotiation ended, for on reading the memorials received on the 10th of December, the directory ordered the ministry to write to lord Malmsbury on the 18th, that they could hear of no propositions contrary to the constitution, and the laws and treaties by which the republic was engaged, and likewise enjoining him to leave Paris in 24 hours. Such was the event of this negotiation: on the part of the
French, commenced with reluctance, conducted with insincerity, and concluded with insult.

Among other projects of hostility which the French government had meditated against Britain, the invasion of Ireland at this period engaged their attention; and though it proved abortive, yet it excited a considerable degree of alarm. The squadron under vice admiral Bouret sailed from Brest, the 10th of December, and anchored at Bantry-Bay on the coast of Ireland; here they remained for some days, waiting the arrival of the frigate which conveyed the commander in chief, who had been separated from the fleet in a strong gale of wind, the day after its departure from Brest; but finding it impossible to remain any longer in that situation, on account of the tempestuous weather, they set sail for Brest, and were followed at different periods by the rest of the fleet, except two ships of the line and three frigates, which were either taken or sunk.

In one part of his speech, his majesty had taken notice of the invasion which the enemy had projected against England, which although it excited no serious apprehensions, was not to be completely despised. Mr Pitt brought forward the business in the house of commons and pointed out the means by which he proposed to raise 15,000 men, to be divided between the land and sea service, to raise a supplemental levy of 60,000 for the militia, and 200,000 cavalry, which with a few alterations and amendments were agreed to.

The total of the supplies for the year amounted to 27,647,000. In explaining the different articles of expenditure, Mr Pitt alluded to an expense of a particular nature which had been incurred during the interval of parliament. As it would have been a matter of extreme delicacy to have brought forward a public discussion on the propriety of advancing a sum to a foreign court in the critical situation of the country, the ministers had granted to the emperor without a public discussion the sum of 1,200,000l. This measure came shortly after to be discussed, and the opposition took this opportunity of reprobing it with the utmost acrimony; the ministry were loaded with every expression of abuse and obloquy which the English language could produce; a vote of censure on their conduct was moved and supported by the most violent declamations on the part of the opposition, but was negatived by a great majority.

Meanwhile, amidst this scene of faction, of mutual asperity and reproach, a most alarming mutiny broke out in the navy, formerly the pride and glory of the British nation. Several letters were addressed to Earl Howe, which, as they were anonymous, could not be attended to. This imagined neglect produced a general correspondence by letter through the whole fleet, and on the 14th of April, when the signal was made to prepare for sea, a general disobedience was obvious, and, instead of weighing anchor, the seamen of the admiral's ship gave three cheers, and these cheers were answered in the same manner from the other ships. Delegates were then appointed for each ship to represent the whole fleet, and the cabin of the admiral's ship was fixed upon as the place of their deliberation. In short the whole of their conduct was totally different from the honest, unreflecting characters of British seamen; the unanimity with which they acted manifested a complete combination, and evidently showed that they acted upon a deliberate and premeditated plan of mutiny. Petitions were drawn up and presented to the admirals then upon the spot, stating their demand of an increase of wages, and also some regulations for their benefit with respect to the ratio of provisions. On the 18th a committee of the admiralty arrived at Portsmouth, who made several propositions to reduce the men to obedience; the lords of the admiralty next conferred with the delegates, who assured their lordships that no arrangement would be considered as final, until it should be sanctioned by king and parliament, and guaranteed by a proclamation for a general pardon.

Matters remained in this situation till the 23d, when Earl Howe returned to his ship, hoisted his flag, and, after a short address to the crew, he informed them that he had brought with him a redress of all their grievances, and his majesty's pardon for the offenders; after some deliberation these offers were accepted, and every man returned with cheerfulness to his duty. It was now generally believed that all disputes were settled; but either by some misunderstanding, or by design, the sailors were betrayed into a belief that the government deluded them with vain hopes, and never intended to
accede to their requests. This rekindled the flame of mutiny, and on the 7th of May, when lord Bridport made the signal to weigh anchor, every ship at St Helens refused to obey. A meeting of the delegates was ordered on board the London. Vice-admiral Colpoys opposed their coming on board, and gave orders to the marines to level their pieces at them; a slight skirmish ensued in which five of the seamen were killed. The whole crew of the London now turned their guns towards the stern, and threatened to blow all ast the water unless the commanders surrendered; to this imperious menace they reluctantly submitted, and admiral Colpoys and captain Griffiths were confined for several hours in separate cabins.

In this mutinous state did they continue till the 14th of May, when lord Howe at length arrived from the admiralty with plenary powers to enquire into and settle the matters in dispute; he was also the welcome bearer of an act of parliament, which had been passed on the 9th granting an additional allowance, and also with his majesty's proclamation of pardon for all who should immediately return to their duty. Affairs being thus adjusted, the sailors appeared perfectly satisfied; the officers were generally reinstated in their commands, the flag of disaffection was struck, and the fleet prepared to put to sea to encounter the enemy.

Thus was Britain, averted by this dreadful and alarming mutiny, forced to accede to every request demanded by its authors, and to grant his majesty's pardon to those who had violated all discipline and subordination, and who had insulted and even confined officers of the highest rank, whom by their duty they were bound to treat with the greatest deference and respect. We shall make no farther observations upon this subject; the mutiny which followed soon after in another quarter is a sufficient comment; a mutiny which spread terror and alarm through the whole country, and which for boldness and extent was without a parallel in the history of Great Britain; by some, indeed, it has been considered rather as a fortunate circumstance, that, by the unreasonable demands of the sailors, which were incompatible with all discipline and subordination, their country was roused to a just sense of her wrongs, and at last raised her indignant arm against those who, relinquishing their own natural character of her gallant defenders, were the most forward to overwhelm her with ruin.

This alarming mutiny broke out at the Nore. The mutineers, in imitation of what had been done at Portsmouth, chose delegates from every ship, of whom a man of the name of Richard Parker was appointed president. After having either confined or set ashore their principal officers, they transmitted to the lords of the admiralty a series of articles or conditions, to which they peremptorily demanded compliance, as the only terms on which they would return to obedience. On the 23d of May they struck the flag of admiral Buckner, and hoisted the red flag, the symbol of mutiny in its stead.

The mutiny having now risen to a most alarming height, a deputation of the lords of the admiralty, at the head of whom was earl Spencer, proceeded to Sheerness; but finding the sailors rather rising in insolence and disobedience, than inclining to submission, they departed, after having signified to the seamen, that they were to expect no concessions whatever, further than what had been already made by the legislature, the benefit of which they might yet enjoy on returning to their duty.

The seamen now perceived their desperate situation, and with a view of extorting a compliance with their demands, they proceeded to block up the Thames, by refusing a free passage up and down the river to the London trade. The ships of neutral nations, however, colliers, and a few small craft, were suffered to pass, having first received a passport, signed Richard Parker, as president of the delegates.

All hopes of an accommodation being now given up, every necessary measure was taken to compel the seamen to return to their duty. An act of parliament was speedily passed for preventing all intercourse with the ships in a state of mutiny; all the buoys were removed from the river Thames, and the neighbouring coast by order of government, great preparations were also made at Sheerness against an attack from the mutinous ships, which had manifested some strong dispositions to bombard that place, and, after the rejection of the last attempt at a reconciliation through the medium of Lord Northesk, measures were taken by lord Keith, and sir C. Grey, to attack the fleet from the works at Sheerness, with gun boats and every thing else necessary for that purpose.
Happily, however, the defection of several of the ships, with other strong symptoms of disunion, rendered the application of force unnecessary. On the 10th of June several more of them pulled down the red flag. The rest of the fleet in a few days followed their example, and went under the guns of the fort at Sheerness. Immediately upon this, admiral Buckner’s boat went to the Sandwich with a picket-guard of soldiers to arrest Parker, who was very peaceably surrendered to them with about thirty other delegates. Their trials shortly after commenced; many of them were executed, a considerable number remained under sentence, till the signal victory of admiral Duncan, when they were pardoned. The seamen returned very peaceably to their duty, and Great Britain was by the blessing of providence delivered from a situation of the most extreme peril, and where one accident or mistake might have been the cause of unspeakable distress, if not utter ruin.

While the tranquility of the nation was disturbed, and its existence endangered, by the mutinous disposition of its most effective defenders, an evil which appeared at first of scarcely inferior magnitude threatened to overwhelm in ruin the pecuniary resources and even commerce of the country. The year 1797, among other wonders which it produced, likewise added this to the number, that the Bank of England suspended its payments in specie, and yet public credit remained unshaken.

Various conjectures have been formed with respect to this event. One powerful cause seems to have been the terror of an invasion, which induced the farmers, and other persons at a distance from the metropolis, to withdraw their money from the hands of those bankers with whom it was deposited. The run, therefore, commenced upon the country banks, and the demand for specie soon reached the metropolis. In this alarming state the ministry found themselves compelled to interfere, and an order of the privy council was issued on the 26th of February prohibiting the directors from issuing any cash in payment till the sense of parliament can be taken on that subject, and the proper measures adopted thereupon for maintaining the means of circulation, and supporting the public and commercial spirit of the kingdom at this important conjuncture.

The business was immediately laid before the parliament, which was fortunately sitting at this critical moment; the most violent debates ensued, the opposition, as usual, imputing every evil to the incapacity and wickedness of the ministry, and declaring with great violence that the bank had failed, and that the nation was ruined.

The statement of the committee being laid before parliament, the fidelity and exactness of which was never questioned, completely refuted all the vague assertions of opposition. By this statement it appeared that the bank had funds far above any demands that could possibly be made upon them; this soon allayed all the ferment and alarm which had been raised by this unexpected event; and that confidence, which had tottered a little, now stands on a firm and solid basis, supported by legislative sanction, and a development of the affairs of that great monied corporation.

On the 9th of June this year died at his seat at Beaconsfield after a painful illness the Rt. Hon. Edmund Burke. He was the first man, who, foreseeing the pernicious and destructive tendency of those principles which gave rise to the French Revolution, lifted up his warning voice, and with a certainty almost approaching to prescience proclaimed aloud to Europe the woes which would arise from this most astonishing and awful event.

The war on the part of Great Britain was during this year almost exclusively confined to naval operations, in which the skill and activity of the British seamen was eminently conspicuous, and invariably crowned with victory. The Spaniards and Dutch were grievous sufferers in two great naval engagements, which were both equally glorious to the British arms.

The first of these memorable actions took place on the 14th of February off Cape St. Vincent. The British squadron under the command of Sir John Jervis, amounted to no more than fifteen sail of the line, while that of the Spanish consisted of twenty seven, one of which was a four-decker, and carried 136 guns. The action commenced about half past 11 o’clock, the van ship the Culloden, Captain Trowbridge, firing against the enemy’s headmost ships to windward. The action in a short time after became general,
and it was soon apparent that the British admiral had accomplished his design of breaking through the enemy's line, and had effectually separated their fleet. His attention was therefore directed to the main body, which was reduced by this separation to 18 sail of the line; and after an engagement of some hours, which was but feebly supported by the enemy, the British remained in possession of four ships of the line. This splendid victory was achieved with little loss on the part of the British, the killed and wounded amounting only to 300 men.

The Dutch were still more unfortunate in their naval operations, but not equally inglorious; they supported a long and bloody engagement with amazing obstinacy and courage, and every man continued faithful to the last to their gallant admiral. The action commenced at about 40 minutes past 12 o'clock, at which time every ship of the British had broken the enemy's line, and cut them off from getting into the Texel, the land being then distant about seven miles. While the rear was attacked by the larboard division under vice admiral Onslow, the commander in chief Admiral Duncan directed all his attention to the enemy's van, and his own ship, the Venerable, was in close action for near two hours and a half, when he observed all the masts of the Dutch admiral's ship go by the board; she was, however, defended for some time after in a most gallant manner; but was at last obliged to strike to the Venerable; admiral De Winter himself being the only man left on the quarter-deck, who was not either killed or wounded. The great importance of this victory was not fully known at the time it was gained. It did not appear till afterwards that this fleet was designed to assist the French in their intended invasion of this country.

While Britain triumphed so completely at sea, a negociation was entered into at Lisle for the purpose of restoring peace between the French directory and England. Lord Malmesbury arrived at Lisle in the beginning of July, and on the 8th delivered in his projet as the basis of the negociation. As this projet contained some particulars concerning which the French commissioners professed themselves unable to determine, they sent them, with their observations, to the directory. On the 16th of July, Lord Malmesbury received a note from the French plenipotentiaries, informing him that the French government required as a preliminary to negociation the restitution of all his Britannic majesty's conquests. To this insolent demand lord Malmesbury replied, that he was sure peace on such terms would not be thought of. While the negociation remained in this state, from some commotion in the internal administration of France, the plenipotentiaries were recalled, and others appointed in their room. After a long discussion, and the strongest professions of a sincere desire to conclude a peace, they sent a note on the 15th peremptorily asking whether lord Malmesbury's powers were sufficient to restore all the possessions taken from France or her allies, and on his answering in the negative, he received another note requiring him to return in 24 hours to obtain the necessary qualifications from his own court. The strange demand urged in the note of the 15th demonstrated beyond a doubt that the professions they made concerning their sincere desire of friendship, however strongly, however solemnly urged, were false and perfidious, and that all prospect of an accommodation must be for the present abandoned.

Having rejected our offers of peace, the enemy resumed the project of an invasion of Britain, and it was generally believed that they seriously intended to make the attempt. Vast preparations were made in all the different sea-ports of France; a great number of flat-bottomed boats and transports were fitted out; and a formidable force was assembled near the sea coast to which they gave the appellation of The army of England. Idle stories were likewise propagated about rafts of an immense size, in which they were to float over to England, and to carry terror and dismay to her shores. This visionary scheme does not, however, seem to have been seriously adopted by the enemy. The conduct adopted by the ministry was prudent and judicious. By some the invasion was supposed so completely chimerical and impracticable as to render any preparation unnecessary. Instead of sleeping in this false security, the ministry took every necessary precaution to repel their attacks, unterrified by their threats, but not despising them.
A bill was passed for enabling the king to provide more effectually for the defence of the country, and to indemnify such persons as might sustain loss or injury, in consequence of the measures which it might be necessary to take for the general defence of the country, &c. likewise to ascertain those who were willing near their own homes to co-operate with the existing force of the country, whether as soldiers, pioneers, drivers of waggons, or in any other situation; circular letters were addressed to the Lord Lieutenant of the counties, informing them, that any corps of respectable householders would be accepted: in short every measure was taken by the ministry which could ensure internal tranquillity, or defeat the attempts of our enemies.

At no period of our history was so much zeal and courage displayed by the British nation. Instead of that narrow policy which actuated several of the continental powers, they united as one man in defence of their invaluable constitution; indignant at the menaces of the enemy, this high-spirited nation with firmness and magnanimity rallied round the standard of freedom; undismayed by the preparations of France, they joined with one soul in defence of their most gracious sovereign Lord the King, in defence of their liberties handed down to them by their ancestors as their invaluable birthright; resolved either to preserve these blessings or to perish in the attempt. Such indeed was the spirit, zeal, and loyalty, of the British nation, that the enemy, after having solemnly promised that they would be in England before the spring, finally abandoned the attempt, and, instead of the invasion of Britain, their fleet set sail for Egypt, accompanied by a great number of transports. It was their intention forcibly to effect a settlement in that country, and by degrees to penetrate to the British settlements in the East Indies.

But while the ministry watched with a jealous and vigilant eye the preparations of the enemy abroad, their attention was not diverted from the wicked and reasonable attempts of their adherents at home. By their vigilance a conspiracy of a very dangerous nature was discovered. Mr O'Connor, a young man of family, leagued with several obscure persons, had given just grounds for suspecting his designs. In consequence of these suspicions, he, together with his accomplices, were watched, and traced to Margate, from whence they intended to embark for France, and there apprehended. After several examinations they were finally committed to stand their trial for high treason, which took place at Maidstone. Their defence consisted in a simple denial of the facts with which they were charged. Mr O'Connor brought forward in his defence the most respectable members of the opposition, who gave him an excellent character. One only of the prisoners, a Mr O'Coigley, was found guilty, who was shortly after executed. Mr O'Connor was apprehended immediately on his acquittal, by authority of a warrant from the Duke of Portland, and sent under a guard to Dublin. Affairs in Ireland wore a still more alarming aspect. An extensive and dangerous conspiracy was there formed for erecting Ireland into an independent republic. As the transactions of these conspirators with their subsequent rebellion belong to the history of Ireland, it is unnecessary here to repeat the relation of that calamitous period.

We turn with pleasure from these afflicting scenes to one of the most brilliant naval victories which adorn the history of Great Britain, achieved off the mouth of the Nile by the illustrious admiral Nelson. The French fleet having escaped the British in their voyage to Egypt, and safely landed their forces at Alexandria, were on their return home, when admiral Nelson having reconnoitred the harbour of Alexandria, perceived that it was full of vessels of various kinds, and that the French flag was flying on board several of the ships. The enemy's fleet was first discovered by the Zealous, captain Hood, who immediately communicated, by signal, the number of ships, 16, lying at anchor in line of battle, in a bay upon the larboard bow, which he afterwards found to be Aboukir Bay. They were drawn up near the shore in a strong and compact line of battle, flanked by four frigates and numerous gun boats, and protected in the van by a battery planted on a small island. The position of the enemy presented the most formidable obstacles; but the admiral viewed these with the eye of a seaman determined on attack. The admiral's designs were as fully known to his squadron as was his determination to conquer or perish in the attempt. In approaching the enemy he was deprived of the assistance of the Culloden, as it struck upon a shoal from which
it could not be extricated till next morning. Three other vessels were hastily advancing in its rear; but the accident warned them of the peril, and they were so fortunate as to avoid the shoal. The action commenced at sunset with an ardour and vigour which it is impossible to describe. At about seven o'clock total darkness had come on, but the hemisphere was at intervals illuminated with the fire of the hostile fleets. The van ship of the enemy was dismasted in less than 12 minutes; and in 10 minutes after the second and third very nearly at the same moment were also dismasted, and at half past eight in the evening the fourth and fifth ships of the enemy's line were taken possession of by the British. Captain Berry at that hour sent lieutenant Galway with a party of marines, and that officer returned by the boat the French Captain's sword, which Captain Berry immediately delivered to the British admiral, who was below in consequence of a severe wound he had received in the head during the heat of the attack. While the victory was yet undecided, the unfortunate admiral Brueys received two wounds; and having changed his situation, he was exposed to a fresh shot which deprived him of life. L'Orient was warmly engaged with several of the hostile vessels, when an explosion indicated the danger of a conflagration. The only boats that could swim, were instantly dispatched from the Vanguard, and the lives of about seventy men were saved. The cannonading was partially kept up to the leeward of the centre till about ten o'clock, when the L'Orient blew up with a most tremendous explosion. An awful pause, and silence for about three minutes succeeded, when the wreck of the masts and yards, which had been carried to a vast height fell down into the water and on board the surrounding ships. After this awful scene, the firing recommenced with the ships to the leeward of the centre, till twenty minutes past ten; when there was a total cessation of firing for about ten minutes, after which it was revived till about three in the morning, when it again ceased, and the whole fleet except two ships remained in the possession of the British. Thus was achieved by the skill, valour, and discipline, of the British sailors and officers of every description, the glorious and ever memorable victory of the 1st of August, which excited the most lively demonstrations of joy not only in Britain but throughout all Europe.

The enemy were likewise about this time disappointed in another expedition which they fitted out for the invasion of Ireland. Their forces consisted of a ship of 80 guns, eight frigates, a schooner and a brig. They were discovered by the squadron under sir John Borlase Warren, who immediately gave the signal for a general chace, which was continued in very boisterous weather till the night of the 11th, when they were seen at a little distance to windward, the line of battle ship having lost her main top mast. The action commenced at 20 minutes past seven o'clock in the morning, and at eleven the Hoche struck and was followed by three others, full of men and every thing necessary for the establishment of their views in Ireland.

The victory of the Nile not only rendered the British sovereign in the Mediterranean, but aroused the powers on the continent to another effort to rescue themselves from the tyranny of France. A coalition was formed between the emperors of Russia and Germany, and the king of Great Britain, which, as long as the combined powers agreed among themselves, produced the happiest effects. While the French were repeatedly defeated and pursued across the Rhine, by the Austrians; general Suwarrow drove them from all their conquests in Italy. All the plans of that celebrated warrior were crowned with complete success, and the whole campaign was one uninterrupted chain of victories. It is unnecessary here to relate the misunderstanding that took place between the courts of Petersburgh and Vienna, with the subsequent abandonment of the coalition by the Emperor Paul.

In the view of our domestic concerns, every other consideration is for the present absorbed in the question of a legislative union with Ireland. Some preliminary discussion was introduced in a debate in the English House of Commons, on the 23d of January 1799; and the question was more formally and amply discussed in the Irish Parliament, which was opened on the 22d, with a speech from the lord lieutenant, indirectly announcing the measure. The reception it met with was unworthy of the dignity of a legislative assembly; instead of that dispassionate consideration which such an important measure deserved, it was opposed with the utmost extremity of violence and inten-
perance; instead of employing reason and argument in support of their cause, the enemies of the measure rather addressed themselves to the passions and prejudices of the people of Ireland, whom they endeavoured, by every possible art, to kindle into a flame. The most scandalous marks of applause and disapprobation, resembling the plaudits and hisses of a rabble in the galleries in a theatre, were bestowed on the different speakers, not only by the strangers in the house, but by the opposition members themselves. The discussion did not close till noon the following day, when the address was carried by a majority of one.

The report of the secret committee of the house of commons which clearly developed the views and intentions of the Irish traitors, occasioned the proposal of vigorous measures for the purpose of counteracting the progress of sedition, and checking the baneful influence of systematic treason. On the 19th of April the report was taken into consideration; and Mr Pitt moved for a bill to renew and amend the bill passed in the 38th of his present majesty, for securing and detaining persons accused of sedition, and for a bill to suppress seditious societies and seditious practices. The resolutions passed, and a bill was brought in by the lord mayor of London for carrying the latter part of them into effect. Several other measures were adopted, which operated as a temporary restraint on liberty, but which were justified, and rendered absolutely necessary, by the formidable appearance which treason had assumed. It is one of the chief excellencies of the British constitution that it contains within itself the means of its own preservation; that when the loud and imperious call of necessity requires, it can unmask those traitors who dare conspire its destruction, and drag them from their lurking holes to receive the punishment due to their crimes. Were the case otherwise, the boasted freedom of Britons, instead of a blessing, might be converted into a most dangerous engine of destruction. No lover of his country can regret for a moment the momentary privation of part of those privileges, when he reflects that the great object for which the sacrifice is made, is the preservation of the whole. He will naturally consider that the salutary restraints which have been thought necessary are intended to defeat the attacks of those determined Jacobins, who, fostered by the genial warmth of liberty, are indefatigable in planning its ruin.

The finances of the year 1795, were introduced by a notice given to the house of commons on the 26th November, by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, that on that day fortnight he should make a statement of the whole ways and means of the year. The plan which he meant to follow was that of raising a considerable part of the supplies within the year, the principle of which had already received the sanction and approbation of the house of commons. While the principle remained the same, the mode of raising the supply was rendered less exceptionable than in the year 1798. For this purpose the assessed taxes were repealed, and a general tax was imposed upon all the branches of income. No income under 60l. was subjected to any contribution, and the scale of modification was extended to 200l. after which a tenth part of the contributor’s income was exacted. The mode of obtaining this contribution differed from that pursued in the assessed taxes, as, instead of trebling the amount, the statement of income proceeded from the party himself, which it was in the power of commissioners appointed for that purpose, and sworn to secrecy, to return, if they thought that a false statement was given, or to demand a specification of income.

A bill had been brought in during the last session for the redemption of the land-tax. Its object was by absorbing a large quantity of stock, thereby to raise its price, and in the end to transfer a large portion of national debt into a landed security. The annual amount of the land-tax was 20,000,000l. It was proposed to sell or commute this annuity at twenty years purchase, for 3 per cent, stock which the government were to take in payment at 50. The preference was given to the owner of the land; and if within a certain time he should not be able to purchase, a further period was allowed. The pecuniary advantages of this measure must be evident, as the public dispose of an annual revenue of 20,000,000l. which being commuted for 3 per cent. stock estimated at 50, extinguishes of that stock 80,000,000l. the interest of which amounted annually to 2,400,000l. From this statement it is obvious that an annual saving of 400,000l. will thereby accrue to the public. A bill was now moved, the object of which was to render...
the said act more effectual, and to give greater facility to the execution of its provisions. As no other business of great importance occurred during the present session, we shall proceed to the military transactions of Great Britain, which were peculiarly important.

While the French were weakened by successive defeats in Italy and on the Rhine, a plan was formed by the British government in conjunction with Russia of invading the Batavian republic. Of all enterprises, which could be combined against the republic, none could be more desirable to the British government than the re-establishment of the prince of Orange, which, while it deprived the French government of great resources, which might yet be drawn from this mine, not yet exhausted, might force it to employ in that quarter, a part of the forces destined to complete the army of the Rhine. This expedition, under the command of general Abercrombie and admiral Mitchell, sailed from the Downs early in August, with about 130 transports, composing the first division. Early on the morning of the 27th of August, all the battalions of grenadiers and light infantry were landed under the protection of the guns of the fleet. An engagement took place at the moment when the English were about to take possession of the Downs and march forward. It lasted till four in the afternoon, and the Dutch were obliged to abandon the shore to the English. General Abercrombie being thus master of the point of the Helder, entrenched his advanced posts towards his right, and occupied with his left the point of the Helder, and the batteries which had been evacuated. From that moment the passage of the Texel was also occupied by the English, and admiral Story was obliged to quit his anchorage to put back into the Vlieter, the channel towards the north, in order to be out of reach. A great part of the English convoy and frigates having anchored in the road of the Texel, and the wind having freshened from the north, admiral Story determined to take advantage of the first tide to fall down into the road, and chase or destroy the convoy. At this moment a revolt broke out on board the Dutch fleet, and during the confusion occasioned by this circumstance, the English fleet entered the road of the Texel, and penetrated into the Vlieter with a favourable wind and tide. In this extremity, a commodore Story proposed to a sort of suspension of arms, during which he might consult his government. Admiral Mitchell, who had just finished his preparations for the attack, answered the proposal of the Dutch admiral by a categorical summons to hoist immediately the Orange flag. Story immediately gave the signal for battle, which occasioned at once a general defection. The crews unloaded the pieces and threw the balls and cartridges into the sea. Such being the disposition of the Dutch fleet, Story answered the summons of the British admirals, by protesting his fidelity to the republic, inveighing against the treachery of his crews, and by declaring himself prisoner of war as well as all his officers. The same evening the Orange flag was hoisted on all the vessels of the Dutch fleet; which consisted of eight ships of the line, and three frigates. Besides this fleet which surrendered to admiral Mitchell, three ships of the line, five frigates, and five East India vessels, were taken in the Nieuwe Diepe, as well as the artillery and stores, which were in the place.

The English, not having received any other reinforcement, than a part of the duke of York's division, consisting of four or 5000 men, under general Don, it was determined by general Brune, who had collected from 24 to 25,000 men, to attack general Abercrombie, who was entrenched behind the Zyp, and had only from 16 to 17,000 men. The moment was favourable, and he began the attack, which ended in the complete defeat of the French and Batavian army. They were obliged to resume their former position, and to await the arrival of fresh troops.

Meanwhile the allied army was reinforced by the arrival of the forces under the duke of York, and by the first division of the Russian troops under general Hermann, which landed from Yarmouth two days after. The duke of York determined upon an attack before reinforcements should arrive from the Low Countries and the Rhine. The affair commenced along the whole line with great fury on the 19th of September at day-break. The French were obliged to yield to the impetuousity of the Russians, who took possession of Bergen, an estate belonging to the prince of Nassau, with a considerable village, around which were very fine woods, where the French troops withdrew, after having given way to the furious attack of general Hermann. The Russians therefore had already passed the rear of the centre of Brune's line, while the duke of York attacked him in front.
The Russian column which had advanced too far, found itself attacked on a sudden on both its flanks, without the power of communicating with the English. The village of Bergen was retaken after a conflict which was so much the more obstinate as the Russians were in hopes of being able to maintain their first advantage, till they were supported by the English; they fought like men driven to desperation, and when broken and dispersed, defended themselves in the church, and in the houses, where great carnage ensued. In consequence of the defeat of the right wing, the whole allied army fell back to its entrenchments at the Zyp. Brune also occupied the same posts as he occupied before the battle.

A general attack was again made on the 2d of October, in which the allied forces were victorious, and took possession of Alkmaar; two days after a very serious engagement took place, which ended in favour of the Dutch, and the English and Russians were obliged to resume their former position. The failure of this last attack of the allied forces rendered it impossible to procure subsistence for an army, which unable either to extend itself, or draw its resources from the country it had in its possession, was forced to receive by the way of the sea every thing necessary for its support. The duke of York, therefore, assembled a council of war, whose unanimous opinion it was that the army could no longer keep that advanced position, that it should fall back to the Zyp, and wait the further orders of his majesty. An armistice was soon after concluded at Alkmaar, the leading articles of which were, the successive re-embarkation of the allied army; the re-establishment of the works of the Heldber, and the preservation of the works constructed by the English and Russian army, and the restitution of 8000 French and Batavian prisoners. Thus ended this ill fated expedition, the most considerable which has been undertaken in modern times. Although the chief object for which it was fitted out was not attained, yet the dreadful blow which the Dutch navy received was of infinite importance to Britain, and was said, with what truth we cannot determine, to have amply compensated her for the great expence necessary for its equipment.

On the 15th of May, just as his majesty was entering his box at Drury Lane Theatre, and was bowing to the audience, a person who sat in the second row from the orchestra, but towards the middle of the pit, got upon the seat, and levelling a horse pistol towards the king's box, fired it. The act was so instantaneous, as to prevent all the persons near him from seeing his design in time to defeat it, although one gentleman raised his arm, and directed the contents of the pistol to the roof of the box. The audience remained for a moment in an agony of suspense; which was succeeded by the most violent emotions. Terror, dismay, and rage, were marked on every countenance, except that of his majesty, who sat with the utmost serenity, while the queen, who was just near enough to hear the report and see the flash, collected confidence from his magnanimity. The culprit was immediately secured, and was examined in a private room of the theatre. During his examination he shewed the most manifest symptoms of a disordered mind. He was afterwards taken before his majesty's privy council, where he underwent another examination, but nothing of consequence transpired. It was determined, as there existed doubts of his derangement, to bring him to a trial, where such strong evidence appeared in his favour, as completely satisfied the jury of the derangement of his mind.

In our history of France we have taken notice of the unfortunate situation of affairs on the continent by the loss of the dreadful battle of Marengo, and the disastrous consequences which followed that melancholy event. It will, therefore, be unnecessary to repeat the history of that period, and of the subsequent events, which, although they are connected with the history of Great Britain, are there related.

In the internal history of Britain the grievous scarcity which, by the succession of two bad harvests, pressed so heavily on almost all ranks, requires some consideration. By a long and almost constant tract of rainy weather, the crop in 1799 was most materially injured, and the harvest greatly retarded. On an accurate examination of the quantity of corn in the country, the crop was found to be very deficient, and the prices of all sorts of grain, and of all the necessaries of life, rose to an unusual height. The people bore this calamity with exemplary patience, earnestly expecting that next harvest would put a period to their distress. The crop of 1800 was nearly as deficient as
the crop of the preceding year, partly occasioned by the bad state of the ground to receive the seed, and partly by the bad quality of the seed itself. Irritated by calamity, and persuaded by foolish, inconsiderate, and wicked men, that the scarcity was not occasioned by the visitation of providence, but by the artful combination of men, it was to be expected that a general odium would be raised against those who were considered as the authors of the present distress. The daily prints and pamphlets which issued from the press, with a few exceptions, were one source of most extensive mischief. Torrents of abuse, the most inflammatory and intemperate, were poured forth against all those who traded in grain or in any of the necessaries of life; the most false, absurd, and injurious charges, were brought against them; they were held up to popular obloquy under the invidious names of monopolists, regraters, and forestallers; and were represented as the sole authors of the miseries of the people, as men for whose crimes it was impossible to devise an adequate punishment. The people were at last inflamed by these violent declamations, and became discontented and outrageous. As the parliament was summoned chiefly, it is probable, to take this subject into consideration, expectations were formed that they would take such measures as would reduce the price of the necessaries of life. Although these hopes, being formed on no rational consideration of the subject, were completely disappointed, yet the judicious measures adopted by parliament, if they did not convert scarcity into plenty, contributed very materially to avert the horrors of a famine; a calamity which would undoubtedly have been felt in all its severity, if parliament, listening to the popular cry, and to the idle and inconsiderate suggestions of several of its members, had proceeded to impose oppressive laws on the farmer and corn-factor, thereby cramping the freedom of trade, and confining the transactions of those on whom the market must depend for a regular and perennial supply.

It was now eight years since Britain had been compelled to take up arms against the invidious and hostile designs of France. During that short period she had been exposed to perils novel in their nature, and menacing in their appearance, partly arising from the open and determined hostility of external enemies, partly from the insidious machinations of intestine foes. She was now about to be assaulted by a combination of the northern powers, who, in contradiction to the whole system of maritime jurisprudence, as acknowledged and practised by the nations of Europe, questioned her right of searching neutral vessels, thereby aiming an indirect blow at the superiority of her naval power. They affirmed that Britain had no right to search vessels escorted by a ship of war, that being deemed a sufficient security that the convoy contained no contraband goods; they moreover declared, that it was their determined resolution, if Britain refused to agree to their unreasonable pretensions, to assert their right by force of arms.

It was not to be expected that Britain would be awed by the menaces of this hostile combination, and relinquish an undoubted right sanctioned by the practice of all belligerent nations, clearly recognized and enforced in the writings of the most celebrated civilians, and founded on the plainest and most unalterable principles of the law of nature and nations. But while they determined to resist this change in the system of maritime jurisprudence, repeated attempts were made to conciliate the different powers whose rashness and prudence was about to kindle the flames of a new war in Europe. They appeared, however, determined on hostility, and every pacific overture was treated with neglect, and even contempt. In Russia the subjects of Great Britain were robbed of their property, detained in tedious imprisonment, and subjected to the caprices of a cruel, vindictive and unreasonable tyrant.

While Britain was threatened with this hostile confederacy abroad, disunion and dissension distracted her councils at home. The subject of catholic emancipation, which occasioned a schism in her cabinet, was said by the party who resigned, to be necessary to complete and give effect to the measures of the Irish Union, which, without extending the benefit of full freedom to the catholics, would be a base and a lifeless measure. Finding it impossible at present to attain this object, to which they attached so much importance, they did not think it consistent with the duty they owed their country, any longer to maintain responsible situations in his Majesty's councils. They therefore de-
terned to give in their resignation as soon as the state of public business would allow. Their successors were Mr Addington, lord Hawkesbury, lord Hobart, lord Eldon, earl St Vincent, &c.

The new arrangements being retarded by the illness of his Majesty, several of the ministers were, by that alarming circumstance, obliged to remain in their respective situations, until all apprehensions with regard to his recovery should be removed. As soon as that desirable event took place, those ministers who had not previously quitted their offices, now formally gave in their resignation to his Majesty.

The new ministry, as they had always given their most decided and strenuous support to the measures pursued by Mr Pitt, professed to have the same views, and to act upon the same principles. They repeatedly affirmed that the dispute with the northern powers was so important to the prosperity and to the glory of Britain, that it could neither be relinquished nor compromised; that since the combined powers were determined to persist in their unwarrantable pretensions, it became necessary for Britain to assert her right by force of arms. A formidable fleet was assembled at Yarmouth, which was entrusted to sir Hyde Parker, and under him to lord Nelson, and rear admiral Graves, assisted by captains inferior to none in the British fleet, for courage, valour, and experience. They set sail from Yarmouth on the 12th of March at day break, and having passed the sound on the 30th of March, about seven o'clock A. M., they anchored before Copenhagen at 12 the same day. The Danes seemed to have made very formidable dispositions. They had assembled ships of the line, pontoons, galleys, fire ships, and gunboats; which were flanked and supported by extensive batteries, some of which mounted from 50 to 70 pieces of cannon. They were attacked by 12 sail of the line and four frigates, commanded by lord Nelson. The battle commenced at 10 o'clock on the 2d of April, and continued with unabated fury for four hours; the fire on both sides was tremendous. The result was the capture or destruction of 18 sail of Danish ships, including in that number seven sail of the line, together with 4000 men killed and wounded. This victory, together with the death of the emperor Paul, struck a terror into the confederates, and was immediately followed by an armistice for fourteen weeks, which afterwards ended in a final settlement of this dispute.

While the British arms were thus acquiring additional lustre before Copenhagen, the valour and courage of her land troops under sir Ralph Abercrombie, were crowned with equal glory in Egypt. No event of importance took place after the departure of Napoleon, till the arrival of the British in that country, who anchored on the 2d of March in Aboukir bay. A landing was effected on the 8th, and on the 13th a battle took place, when the enemy were driven to the walls of Alexandria. On the 21st of March they advanced with their whole force, consisting of 11,000 men, and attacked the British two hours before day-break. A desperate and well contested action took place, in which the French were completely defeated, with the loss of 3000 men killed and wounded. The conflict was obstinate and bloody, and the defeat of the enemy was not effected without considerable loss on the part of the British. What chiefly damped the joy arising from the victory, was the death of their illustrious commander, who was mortally wounded early in the action, but continued delivering his orders with that coolness and perspicuity which ever distinguished him. His situation was not known till after the battle, when, having fainted with loss of blood, he was carried on board lord Keith's ship, where he died eight days after the engagement, in which, like Epaminondas and like Wolfe, he lost his life after having led on his soldiers to a glorious victory. The consequences of this battle appear to have been decisive as to the fate of Egypt, which the French were, on the 2d of September, compelled to evacuate.

After the ratification of the definitive treaty, the year 1802 produced few events of importance. Towards the conclusion of it, the public attention was chiefly directed to the subjugation of Switzerland, by the consular armies of France; and, while other nations beheld, in silence, the outrages of a conqueror whose power they had so recently felt, the unbroken spirit of the British, who had closed the war with the most brilliant achievements, ventured loudly to sympathize with the brave Helvetians, and to execrate their oppressor. It afterwards appeared that government had remonstrated on the subject, with the ruler of France, but, as they neither did, nor perhaps could, follow
up their remonstrance with hostile measures, it produced no effect. The general feeling, however, on this and other parts of the personal and political conduct of the First Consul, was expressed by the periodical journals in terms so offensive to his pride, as induced him to propose that some restraint should be put on the liberty of the British press, a proposal to which no minister would dare to listen, and which was therefore rejected.

At the commencement of the year 1803, two trials of an unusual nature, excited a considerable interest in the public. One was that of Peltier a French emigrant residing in London, who conducted a periodical paper in his native language, and who was accused of publishing a libel against the chief magistrate of France. Notwithstanding a most eloquent and masterly defence by his counsel, he was found guilty; but subsequent events prevented his punishment. The other trial was that of colonel Despard, who, with several associates not less obscure in situation than profligate in character, was convicted of a traitorous conspiracy against the person and government of the King, and underwent the punishment which the laws prescribe. A double interest was excited by this foolish and infatuated desperado, in consequence of his previous history, by which the credit of the two great political parties seemed in some degree affected; having been imprisoned on suspicion, under the administration of Mr Pitt, and his case having been made the subject of parliamentary discussion by sir Francis Burdett, who, on that occasion, spoke highly of his character; his present conviction gave a triumph to the sagacity of those by whom he had been suspected, and made his advocates submit to the charge of simplicity and want of discernment, to avert the imputation of more unworthy motives for their patronage.

But events of more awful importance were now at hand. On the 8th of March the orders for hostile preparations announced the probability of a renewal of war. Afflicting as this intelligence was to every friend of humanity, it could be surprising only to incorrect or ignorant observers of European affairs. Britain, though for the sake of experiment, she had purchased peace by the cession of her conquests, had not, like states which were discomfited in the contest, made any virtual surrender of her independence. The independence of a nation is only a name, unless she be equally independent of others, as others are of her; and unless she possess both the right and the power to resist, on the part of a rival, such measures as she knows no rival would suffer her to adopt. France, however, during the peace by the violations of the state of Europe, as it stood when that treaty was concluded; by the arrogation of a right to interfere in continental affairs which she denied to Britain; by regulations hostile to our trade; by the establishment of accredited spies in the ports of this kingdom; by the authorized publication of defiances and challenges; and by an avowal of fresh projects to subjugate Egypt, had followed such a conduct as on the part of Britain she would have powerfully resisted. The general grounds of war, therefore, for the great object of national independence, had been long prepared; but a matter of comparative insignificance drew them to a point. In the treaty of peace, the evacuation of Malta had been stipulated, on the fulfilment of certain preliminary conditions; these conditions were unfulfilled, and their fulfilment, by the subsequent conduct of France and Spain, had been rendered impossible. Yet, in this situation, we were called upon to perform our part of the contract, while that of France was to remain unperformed. Had Britain submitted to this she might have preserved her peace, but her independence was gone; for the dispute respecting Malta, like the precedence of an ambassador, or the priority of a title, however trifling it may appear to superficial minds, which are unable to pass from the sign to what is signified, involved the mighty question of our existence as a primary or a secondary state, and whether we were in future, to maintain our national station by our own power or by the permission of others. A fruitless negotiation of two months only served to aggravate the evil; as it drew from the French Consul an insult to the nation in the person of its representative, and boastful threats of invasion, which rendered it desirable for our future feeling of security, that the question of its practicability should be put at rest by a fair experiment. Preparations on both sides for this experiment constituted at first the only operations of war, for the enemy, by keeping his fleets in port, afforded us no opportunity of meeting them at sea. One novelty in warfare however occurred, by the imprisonment of every
British subject, without regard to sex or description, who was found in France. Hanover was also taken possession of by the enemy.

On the 23d July, an ill-concerted insurrection took place in Dublin, on which lord chief justice Kilwarden and several others were cruelly assassinated. It was soon suppressed, and the ring-leaders secured. Among these was Robert Emmet, Esq. a well connected and accomplished, but misguided young man, who was executed for treason on the 20th of September.

During this year, lord Wellesley, governor general of our settlements in India, found it necessary to engage in hostilities with three of the native princes. In the central parts, general Wellesley obtained a signal victory on the 23d September; and in the north, lord Lake was equally successful on the 1st November. This war was terminated in 1805.

With the exception of a short but alarming indisposition, which attacked the king in February 1804, that year produced no occurrence of any consequence, until Mr Pitt took a decided part against the minister, who, finding his supporters rapidly decrease, was induced to resign. Mr Pitt was, on the 11th May, appointed first lord of the treasury and chancellor of the exchequer. It is understood that he immediately attempted to form an administration, which should embrace Mr Fox and lord Grenville, with their respective friends; but the king insisting that the former of these gentlemen should be excluded, and the latter refusing to take any share in a ministry where this was the case, Mr Pitt was obliged to select his colleagues from such of his former party as still adhered to him, with the addition of some who had acted with Mr Addington. About this period Bonaparte assumed the title of Emperor of the French. In October a war with Spain commenced. It appeared, from the diplomatic correspondence which was laid before parliament, that France had allowed her no alternative, but that of being our concealed or our open enemy; and government, with a vigour, the propriety of which did not pass unquestioned, compelled her to assume the last, as the least formidable shape. Towards the end of the year, Paris was wholly occupied in admiring the pageant of their emperor's coronation: and London in a controversy respecting the merit of an actor of fourteen. It is difficult to say, which of the capitals was most frivolously employed.

Though the nation had now been two years at war, no military occurrence of any magnitude had taken place. Some of the smaller and more indefensible colonies of France and Holland had been captured. Tobago, St Pierre, and Miquelon, had been taken from the former; and from the latter Demerary, Essiquibo, Berbica, Curacoa, and Surinam. Our naval forces had done all which circumstances permitted, by blockading the ports of the enemy with the most persevering patience; and by picking up those straggling vessels that ventured out for offensive or commercial purposes. Some prizes of very great value, being chiefly large frigates loaded with silver, fell into their hands, at the commencement of the Spanish war.

This scantiness of incident was however amply compensated by the following eventful year (1805), the three last months of which produced more glory to the arms of Britain, and more disaster and disgrace to those of her continental allies, than any equal number of ages had ever produced before. We shall give the precedence to the most pleasing subject. In January a French fleet of six ships, which had escaped the blockade of Rochefort, made its way to the West Indies, and, after forcing a paucity contribution from some of the islands, returned with a haste which sufficiently testified their fear of encountering any British force that might have been dispatched in pursuit of them. Admiral Cochrane had been sent for that purpose, but found no enemy to contend with. During this ridiculous expedition, a larger fleet, consisting of 12 ships of the line, under admiral Villeneuve, having eluded lord Nelson's fleet in the Mediterranean, passed the Straits of Gibraltar on the 9th April, and was joined by six Spanish ships of the line from Cadiz. In the end of May, the united squadrons reached the West Indies, but lord Nelson, with that sagacity of conjecture, and rapidity of decision, by which all his measures were distinguished, had followed so closely in their track, that he arrived at Barbadoes on the 4th of June. This was the signal for their departure, and they immediately set sail, exhibiting to mankind the shameful spectacle of
twenty ships, (for such was their force before their arrival in Europe), chaced from corner to corner of the globe, by half their number. But though at this time they escaped lord Nelson, they were not safe. Near the coast of Spain on the 22d July, they were met by sir Robert Calder, who engaged and defeated them. His fleet consisted of 15 sail of the line, 2 frigates, and a few cutters, carrying 1278 guns and 9896 men: theirs of 20 ships of the line, 7 frigates, and 6 corvetts, carrying 1868 guns and 20,050 men. They had therefore a superiority of 5 ships of the line, 590 guns, and 11,169 men; and the British fleet, in addition to their disparity of force, had to keep Ferrol and Corunna in check, where there were 10 fresh ships of the line ready to support the enemy. Two Spanish ships, one of 84, the other of 74 guns, were taken; and the number killed and wounded in one of the captured ships, was greater than the whole number who suffered in the British squadron, which amounted to 41 killed and 158 wounded.

An expression in sir Robert's official letter, intimating an intention to bring the enemy to a second engagement, raised the public expectations to such a pitch, that, on their disappointment, (though it appeared to have been in his power to execute his intention), the murmurs became so loud as to occasion his trial by a court-martial. In former periods of our history, a commander, who, with 15 ships, had defeated 20, and taken 2, would have, at least, been thought no proper object of censure. But the splendid triumphs of our navy during the former war, and that exploit of "surpassing glory" which we are next to record, and which, unfortunately for sir Robert Calder, took place just before his trial, had flushed the minds of all, and probably of his judges, with such ideas of our maritime omnipotence, that, though acquitted of cowardice, he was found guilty of an error in judgment, for preferring, when both were in his option, the preservation of the advantages he had gained, to the hazard of an attempt at increasing them. He, of course ceased to be employed. Strictness of discipline, a strictness which may be varied as occasions require, is no doubt essentially necessary to our naval greatness; yet it may still remain a question whether, owing to temporary circumstances, it was not in the present case somewhat overstrained.

The remainder of the combined fleets together with those of Ferrol and Corunna took shelter in Cadiz, where they were blockaded by lord Nelson, (who reached Gibraltar on the 19th July), till the 21st of October, a day which will long be consecrated by every British heart to mingled recollections of exultation and sorrow: exultation in the completion of our naval triumphs; and sorrow for the death of the hero by whom they had been achieved. The battle which took place on this memorable day off Cape Trafalgar, was of such importance as entitles it to be described in the official lan-
guage of the surviving commander.

Euryalus, off Cape Trafalgar, October 22, 1805.

"Sir,—The ever to be lamented death of vice-admiral lord viscount Nelson, who, in the late conflict with the enemy, fell in the hour of victory, leaves to me the duty of informing my lords commissioners of the admiralty, that on the 19th instant, it was communicated to the commander in chief, from the ships watching the motions of the enemy in Cadiz, that the combined fleet had put to sea; as they sailed with light winds westerly, his lordship concluded their destination was the Mediterranean, and immediately made all sail for the Streights entrance, with the British squadron, consisting of twenty seven ships, three of them sixty-fours, where his lordship was informed by captain Blackwood, (whose vigilance in watching, and giving notice of the enemy's movements, has been highly meritorious,) that they had not yet passed the Streights.

On Monday the 21st instant, at day-light, when Cape Trafalgar bore E. by S. about seven leagues, the enemy was discovered six or seven miles to the eastward, the wind about west, and very light; the commander in chief immediately made the signal for the fleet to bear up in two columns, as they are formed in order of sailing; a mode of attack his lordship had previously directed, to avoid the inconvenience and delay in forming a line of battle in the usual manner. The enemy's line consisted of thirty-three ships (of which eighteen were French, and fifteen Spanish), commanded in chief by admiral Villeneuve; the Spaniards, under the direction of Gravina, wore, with
their heads to the northward, and formed their line of battle with great coolness and correctness; but as the mode of attack was unusual, so the structure of their line was new; it formed a crescent convexing to leeward; so that, in leading down to their centre, I had both their van and rear abaft the beam; before the fire opened, every alternate ship was about a cable's length to windward of her second a-head and a-stern, forming a kind of double line, and appeared, when on their beam, to leave a very little interval between them, and this without crowding their ships. Admiral Villeneuve was in the Bucentaure in the centre, and the Prince of Asturias bore Gravina's flag in the rear; but the French and Spanish ships were mixed without any apparent regard to order of national squadron.

As the mode of our attack had been previously determined, and communicated to the flag-officers and Captains, few signals were necessary, and none were made, except to direct close order as the lines bore down.

The commander in chief in the Victory led the weather column, and the Royal Sovereign, which bore my flag, the lee.

The action began at twelve o'clock, by the leading ships of the columns breaking through the enemy's line, the commander in chief about the tenth ship of the van, the second in command about the twelfth from the rear, leaving the van of the enemy unoccupied; the succeeding ships breaking through, in all parts, a-stern of their leaders, and engaging the enemy at the muzzles of their guns; the conflict was severe; the enemy's ships were fought with a gallantry highly honourable to their officers, but the attack on them was irresistible, and it pleased the Almighty disposer of all events, to grant his Majesty's arms a complete and glorious victory; about three P. M. many of the enemy's ships having struck their colours, their line gave way; admiral Gravina, with ten ships joining their frigates to leeward, stood towards Cadiz. The five headmost ships in their van tacked, and standing to the southward, to windward of the British line, were engaged, and the sternmost of them taken; the others went off, leaving to his Majesty's squadron nineteen ships of the line, (of which two are first rates, the Santisima Trinidad and the Santa Anna), with three flag-officers, viz. Admiral Villeneuve, the commander in chief, don Ignatia Maria D'Aliva, vice-admiral, and the Spanish rear-admiral don Baltazar Hidalgo Cieneros.

After such a victory it may appear unnecessary to enter into encomiums on the particular parts taken by the several commanders; the conclusion says more on the subject than I have language to express; the spirit which animated all was the same; when all exert themselves zealously in their country's service, all deserve that their high merits should stand recorded; and never was high merit more conspicuous than in the battle I have described.

The Achille (a French 74), after having surrendered, by some mismanagement of the Frenchmen, took fire and blew up; two hundred of her men were saved by the tenders.

A circumstance occurred during the action, which so strongly marks the invincible spirit of British seamen when engaging the enemies of their country, that I cannot resist the pleasure I have in making it known to their lordships: the Temeraire was boarded by accident or design, by a French ship on one side, and a Spaniard on the other; the contest was vigorous, but, in the end, the combined ensigns were torn from the poop, and the British hoisted in their places.

Such a battle could not be fought without sustaining a great loss of men. I have not only to lament, in common with the British navy, and the British nation, in the fall of the commander in chief, the loss of a hero, whose name will be immortal, and his memory ever dear to his country; but my heart is rent with the most poignant grief for the death of a friend, to whom, by many years intimacy, and a perfect knowledge of the virtues of his mind, which inspired ideas superior to the common race of men, I was bound by the strongest ties of affection; a grief to which even the glorious occasion in which he fell, does not bring the consolation which perhaps it ought; his lordship received a musket ball in his left breast, about the middle of the action, and sent an officer immediately to me with his last farewell, and soon after expired.
"I have also to lament the loss of those excellent officers captains Duff of the Mars, and Cooke of the Bellerophon: I have yet heard of none others.

"I fear the numbers that have fallen will be found very great, when the returns come to me; but it having blown a gale of wind ever since the action, I have not yet had it in my power to collect any reports from the ships.

"The Royal Sovereign having lost her masts, except the tottering foremast, I called the Euryalus to me while the action continued, which ship lying within hail, made my signals, a service captain Blackwood performed with great attention; after the action, I shifted my flag to her, that I might more easily communicate my orders to, and collect the ships, and towed the Royal Sovereign out to seaward. The whole fleet were now in a very perilous situation, many damaged, all shattered, in 13 fathom water off the shoals of Trafalgar; and, when I made the signal to prepare to anchor, few of the ships had an anchor to let go, their cables being shot. But the same good Providence which aided us through such a day, preserved us in the night, by the wind shifting a few points, and drifting the ships off the land, except four of the captured damaged ships, which are now at anchor off Trafalgar, and I hope will ride safe until those gales are over.

"Having thus detailed the proceedings of the fleet on this occasion, I beg to congratulate their lordships on a victory, which, I hope, will add a ray to the glory of his Majesty's crown, and be attended with public benefit to our country.

I am, &c.

C. Collingwood."

As a sequel to this glorious event, four French ships of the line, which had escaped from the battle, were captured by sir Richard Strachan, on the 4th November. The previous success of lord Nelson, the confidence which was universally reposed in him, and the circumstances in which his last and most illustrious service to his country was performed, made his fall be felt with an unusual overflow of tenderness and gratitude. Being relieved from the alarm of invasion, under which we had so long occasionally laboured, we could not help being affected, as if we had seen him sacrifice his life in combating at our own door, for the immediate and individual defence of our property, our families, and our persons. Under such impressions, innumerable testimonies of public honour and regret were paid to his memory. His body was removed to Britain in his own ship, exhibited in state at Greenwich, and buried in St Paul's, with a most magnificent attendance of all ranks and parties. His brother was created an earl, with a pension of 5000l. per annum attached to the title, and soon after, 120,000l. was voted by parliament to purchase a domain, and build a house; which, (like the national gift of Blenheim to Marlborough,) should serve as a monument of his victories.

In the character of lord Nelson we find a singular combination of qualities, which seldom co-exist in the same individual. His knowledge of the science of his profession, was equalled by his skill and dexterity in its practice. Though in the day of battle he shewed an ardour and impetuosity which are rarely seen but in those who fight without thinking, yet in the boldness, ingenuity, and simplicity of his plans; in the imperceptible art with which he made the mind of others enthusiastically seize them, and in the facility with which he provided against every possible change of circumstances, he surpassed the most renowned theoretical tacticians. When in pursuit of an enemy, he seemed actuated by a headlong eagerness and appetite for combat; yet it uniformly appeared that his conjectures respecting the design and destination of his foe, had been more shrewd and sagacious than those of the practised statesman, and had proceeded from a mind capable of penetrating the policy of the most subtle cabinet. He enforced the exactest discipline without seeming to do so, and infused, without any effort, a portion of his own spirit into all around him. His ruling passions were the love of glory and of his country; and a short life enabled him to gain the former, and to save the latter.

A few words more will serve to bring our naval history down to the present day. In November 1805, a French fleet, of 15 or 16 ships of the line, sailed from Brest, and, soon after, separated into three divisions. One of these was met with on the 6th of February by sir John Duckworth off the coast of St Domingo, and entirely defeated, with the loss of 3 taken and 2 burnt. A second, under Jerome Bonaparte, arrived in the
West Indies about the middle of June, and, although discovered by admiral Cochrane, the inferiority of his force obliged him to decline engaging it. Sir John Warren had been dispatched with a stronger fleet, but arrived too late to be of any service; a circumstance which beget some suspicion of want of arrangement and decision in the new Admiralty. Jerome has since reached Europe in safety; and this, like all the recent naval expeditions of France, has ended in nothing, but a little mischief to our traders. Of the third division no account has been yet received.

We now turn with less pleasure to the continental war, the details of which will be found under the head of France.

The only active part which England took in this unfortunate contest, was by sending Lord Cathcart with a large force to Hanover, where they were to co-operate with an army of Russians and Swedes. Their operations had not commenced when the Austrian armistice of the 4th December put an end to all prospect of success: and, by a convention between Prussia and France, they re-embarked without annoyance, and returned with no other loss than what was occasioned by the shipwreck of some transports.

A small Anglo-Russian army had also landed at Naples, with a view to make a diversion on the side of Italy. This circumstance furnished Bonaparte with a pretence for deposing the Neapolitan monarch, and placing his brother Joseph in his room. Ferdinand having retired to Sicily on the approach of the usurper, the British forces removed to that island to protect him. A detachment of this small army, amounting to 4000 men, landed in Calabria on the 1st of July 1806, under the command of Sir John Stuart; and immediately advanced to attack General Regnier, whose force was nearly double. The latter was totally defeated on the 4th with the loss of 3000 killed, wounded, or taken. The fortress of Cotrone was soon after captured with all its stores and a garrison of 600 men. Though this victory cannot be expected to produce the desirable effect of restoring to Ferdinand his Neapolitan territory, while France is free to support the usurper with all her armies, yet it is of infinite importance from the confidence in our soldiers which it gives to every Briton, and from the feeling of security which we derive from so powerful a demonstration that by land and sea we are equally superior to the foe; for in this battle, (to use the emphatic language of the general) "the prowess of the rival nations seemed to be fairly at trial before the world, and the superiority was greatly and gloriously decided to be our own."

To conclude the detail of military affairs, the Cape of Good Hope was taken on the 9th of January 1806 by the forces under General Baird, and Sir Home Popham; and Buenos Ayres on the 20th June by an expedition sent from the Cape under the last mentioned commander and General Beresford.

Our attention is now called to the political history of Britain, in which there have recently occurred revolutions as extraordinary and unexpected as those which were at the same period taking place on the continent. When Mr Pitt was again placed at the head of administration, Lord viscount Melville became first Lord of the Admiralty, an office which he filled with much honour to himself and benefit to the country. Meanwhile a board of commissioners, which had been appointed under the former ministry, for the purpose of enquiring into the management of the navy, were from time to time issuing reports of their proceedings. From the tenth of these it appeared, that, while Lord Melville was treasurer of the navy, his paymaster, not without his privy, had occasionally made use of the public money that lay uncalled for in his hands, for purposes of private emolument. As this was conceived to infringe a statute prohibiting the treasurer from removing public money from the bank, until it was required for naval services, the party in opposition embraced so fair an opportunity of depriving one of their ablest rivals of his power and popularity. After much clamour without doors, the 10th report was, on the 8th April 1805, taken into consideration by the house of commons, who, rather precipitately, passed a resolution, by the casting vote of the speaker, that "Lord Melville had been guilty of a gross violation of the law, and a high breach of duty." His lordship immediately resigned his office, and his name was expunged from the list of privy counsellors. After having thus been condemned by the house of commons, they admitted him to be heard in his own defence, an indulgence which did,
no service to his cause. A motion was afterwards carried for his prosecution before a court of law; which was rescinded, in favour of another for his impeachment of high crimes and misdemeanours at the bar of the house of lords. His trial began on the 29th April 1806, and judgement was pronounced on the 12th of June, acquitting him of all the charges. The vote was taken separately upon each, and the smallest majority of voices in his favour was 27.

This sentence was received with triumph and delight by the friends of Mr Pitt throughout the nation, for alas! that powerful and illustrious statesman was himself beyond the reach of earthly pain or pleasure. There appears to be little doubt that the mental toil which he had long undergone, and the vexation arising from the misfortunes of lord Melville, and the sudden failure of that formidable coalition by which he had laboured to humble the French usurper, must have augmented the force, and accelerated the effect of a malady to which he was constitutionally subject. From this or other causes, his health began rapidly to decline in December 1805. At the meeting of parliament, in January, he was unable to attend, and on the 23d of that month breathed his last, leaving the public, which had not yet recovered from its consternation at the issue of the continental contest, overwhelmed with feelings of sorrow and dismay.

The character of Mr Pitt will probably be best appreciated by a distant age, which can view without prejudice or concern the scene in which he acted; and we have already sufficient ground to affirm that the longer it is contemplated, the more it will be admired. In many respects, he closely resembled the two celebrated orators of antiquity, to whom it is no injustice to compare him; and the age in which he lived combined the leading circumstances which had called forth their exertions. Like Cicero he had to guard his country from a traiterous conspiracy against its constitution; and like Demosthenes, he had to rouse it to self-defence against the ambition of a foreign invader. His eloquence, too, embraced many of the characteristic excellencies of both. It had the copiousness of the former, and the vehemence of the latter: and to the dignity and vigour of the Greek, it joined the grace and mellifluence of the Roman. Nor was he less pure in his private conduct, than great in his political. It was but a few months before his death, that, on a charge of misapplying the public money, his renowned parliamentary rival pronounced an eulogium on his personal integrity; and it will long redound to his praise, that, with the management for twenty years of the largest national revenues that ever existed, he died at last in debt. When his death was announced in the house of commons, it drew the most animated panegyrics from men of every party; and a motion was agreed to for the payment of his debt, and the celebration of his obsequies at the public cost.

By the removal of lord Melville, and the death of Mr Pitt, the remaining members of administration were too much weakened to maintain themselves in power. Nor did they struggle to do so. A new ministry was immediately formed, consisting of lord Grenville, Mr Fox, and Mr Addington (now lord Sidmouth) with their respective friends. The most prominent measures of this triple alliance have been a plan for the amelioration of the army; a declaration of war with Prussia; and a negotiation for peace with France. The first of these was adopted on the repeal of Mr Pitt's bill for the immediate increase of the land forces; but seems to have an object altogether different. It is a speculative scheme for improving the character of our army at a distant period, and not calculated to augment its number for the pressure of present danger. This being the case, it is to be regretted, that, in the course of debating the subject, ministry were unfortunate enough to damp and disgust the spirit of the volunteers. These, to whom the country can make no pecuniary compensation, are to be rewarded only by the language of gratitude and respect from its representatives. But the war minister having indulged himself in a ludicrous contrast between the regular and voluntary forces, excited in the latter emotions so unpleasant, as induced many of them to resign, and even those, who continued their services, betrayed an indignation, the natural effect of which was prevented only by a sense of duty to their country.

War with Prussia was declared in consequence of her taking permanent possession of Hanover, which had been ceded to her by France, as an equivalent for her Franoison provinces. The general satisfaction with this measure cannot be more forcibly expres-
ed, than by observing that it was resolved upon with that vigour and decision, and in exact coincidence with that system of policy pursued by Mr Pitt.

The same compliment cannot be paid to the negotiation with France, as it seems to be the general opinion, that at a moment when no honourable and permanent peace can be obtained, the propriety of attempting it is somewhat questionable. But the negotiation being still unfinished, it is desirable for the world that its issue should demonstrate the general opinion to be erroneous.

Mr Fox, who was probably the chief promoter of this measure, was not fated to witness its result. He was seized with a dropsical ailment in July 1806, and, after undergoing repeated operations, died on the 13th September. The splendour of his talents, the distinguished renown he had so long enjoyed, the warm attachment of his numerous personal friends, arising from the cordiality and openness of his own affections, and his high political popularity, which, if less extensive, was more enthusiastic than that of his departed rival, made his last moments be watched, and the tidings of his death received, with an anxiety and regret which the public have rarely exhibited.

Lord Thurlow died a few days before Mr Fox; and the death of Lord Cornwallis, who had gone out a second time governor-general of India, was announced to the public a few days after that of Mr Pitt. Thus, in less than eleven months, was Britain bereaved of five of her most illustrious characters; of Nelson and Cornwallis, her most victorious commanders by sea and land; and of Pitt, Thurlow, and Fox, her most eloquent and able legislators, whom eloquence and ability alone had repeatedly advanced to the highest offices in the state.

W A L E S.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has distinction in language and manners, I have, in conformity with common custom, assigned it a separate article.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

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Area in square miles 7011.

NAME AND LANGUAGE.] The Welch, according to the best antiquaries, are descendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Caesar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Wales (the G. and W. being promiscuously used by the ancient Britons,) that is, Strangers. Their language has a strong affinity with the Celtic or Phoenician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and descriptive powers by those who understand it.

BOUNDARIES.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were shut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat westward. It does not however appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] The seasons are pretty much the same as in the northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce
crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well supplied with wholesome springs; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furnish Flintshire with great quantities of fish.

Mountains.] It would be endless to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdown, in Caernarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganshire, are the most famous; and their mountainous situation greatly assisted the natives in making so noble and long a struggle against the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

Vegetable and Animal Productions by Sea and Land.] In these particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horses are smaller but can endure vast fatigue, and their black cattle are small likewise, but excellent beef, and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. Some very promising mines of silver, copper, lead, and iron, have been discovered in Wales. The Welsh silver may be known by its being stamped with the ostrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, and Customs.] The inhabitants of Wales are supposed to amount to about 200,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the necessaries and many of the conveniences of life. The tax of Wales brought in some years ago about forty three thousand seven hundred and fifty two pounds a year. The Welsh are, if possible, more jealous of their liberties than the English, and far more irascible, but their anger soon abates; and they are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the most remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuscripts, some of which they pretend to be coeval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of their history, especially the ecclesiastical, is more ancient, and better attested, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thaliessin, who lived about the year 450, and whose works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince, that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the history which makes the present Welsh the descendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius seems to have influenced the ancient Welsh with an enthusiasm for independency, for which reason Edward I. is said to have made a general massacre of the bards; an inhumanity which was characteristic of that ambitious prince. The Welsh may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hospitality, and their strict adherence to ancient customs and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the stream of fashion. We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better sort of the Welsh speak the English language, though numbers of them understand the Welch.

Religion.] I have already mentioned the massacre of the Welsh clergy by Augustine, the popish apostle of England, because they would not conform to the Romish ritual. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romish clergy insinuated themselves into their favour, by their pretended power of absolving them from crimes; and the Welsh, when their ancient clergy were extinct, conformed themselves to the religion of Rome. The Welsh clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welsh and English. Their poverty was formerly a vast discouragement to religion and learning, but the measures taken by the society for propagating christian knowledge has in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer sort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two schoolmasters were employed to remove from place to place for the instruction of the inhabitants; and their scholars amounted to 72,964. No people have distinguished themselves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welsh have done by acts of national munificence. They print at a vast expence, Bibles, Common prayers, and other religious books, and distribute them gratis to the poorer sort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free school.
The established religion in Wales is that of the church of England, but the common people in many places are so tenacious of their ancient customs, that they retain several of the Romish superstitions, and some ancient families among them are still Roman Catholics. It is likewise said, that Wales abounds with Romish priests in disguise. And it is certain, that the principality contains great numbers of protestant dissenters. In former times, Wales contained more bishopricks than it does now; and about the time of the Norman invasion, the religious foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a seat of learning, at a very early period; but it suffered an eclipse by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales, when it was persecuted in England. The Welsh and Scotch dispute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrensis, whose history was published by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions several learned men of the same country, who flourished before the Reformation. The discovery of the famous king Arthur's and his wife's burying place was owing to some lines of Thaliessin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced several excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were Hugh Broughton, and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman Catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former was several gentlemen of the name of Lihuyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work the Archeologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewise a Welchman; as was that great statesman and prelate, the lord-keeper, Williams, archbishop of York in the time of King Charles I. After all, we must be of opinion, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and history of their own country. Wales, notwithstanding all that Dr. Hicks, and other antiquaries, have said to the contrary, furnished the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonstrated by Mr. Lihuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archeologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inscriptions of undisputed authority. (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua). I must not, however, omit the excellent history of Henry VIII. written by Lord Herbert of Cherbury.

With regard to the present state of literature among the Welch, it is sufficient to say, that some of them make a considerable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent scholars. The Welsh Pater-noster is as follows:

Ein Tad yr hun wyt yu y nefoedd, sancteiddwr dy enw; dewd by deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllus ar y daear, megis y mae yu y nefoedd: dyro i ny heddyw ym bara bengyddiol; a madden ni ni ei dyledion, fel y maddeuon ni ti'n dyledwy; ac nae aruain ni ei brofedi-gaeth, eithir gwared ni rhag drug: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogonian ym eos oesoedd. Amen.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER.] Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populousness or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Anglesey *, and has a harbour for ships. Brecknock trades in clothing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and silver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two sheriffs, and aldermen, who wear scarlet gowns, and other ensigns of state. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen; and part of the country is so fertile and pleasant, that it is called Little England. The other towns of Wales have nothing particular. I am however to observe, that Wales, in ancient

* The isle of Anglesea, which is the most western county of North Wales, is surrounded on all sides by the Irish sea, except on the south-east, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow strait called Meneu, which in some places may be passed on foot at low water: The island is about 24 miles long and 18 broad, and contains 74 parishes. It was the ancient seat of the British Druids.
times, was a far more populous and wealthy country than it is at present; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old castles are so strongly built, and so well situated, that they might be turned into strong forts by a little expence; witness the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars between Charles I. and his parliament.

**Antiquities and Curiosities.** Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. Several of its castles are stupendously large; and in some the remains of Roman architecture are plainly discernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and some appear to be partly British, and partly Roman. In Brecknockshire are some rude sculptures, upon a stone six feet high, called the Maiden-stone; but the remains of the Druidical institutions, and places of worship, are chiefly discernible in the island of Anglesey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who describes it as being the chief seminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Cherphilly-castle in Glamorganshire is said to have been the largest in Great Britain, excepting Windsor; and the remains of it shew it to have been a most beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

Among the natural curiosities of this country are the following. At a small village called Newton, in Glamorganshire, is a remarkable spring nigh the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the sea. In Merionethshire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Flintshire is a famous well, known by the name of St Wenefred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The spring boils with vast impetuosity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, supported by pillars, and the roof is most exquisitely carved in stone. Over the spring is also a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous state. King James II. paid a visit to the well of St Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a present which was made him of the very shift in which his great grandmother, Mary Stuart, lost her head. The spring is supposed to be one of the finest in the British dominions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to fling out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or scarcely varies in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greatest rains. After a violent fall of wet, it becomes discoloured by a wheyish tinge. The small town adjoining to the well, is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonshire is the high mountain of Penmaennawt, across the edge of which the public road lies, and occasions no small terror to many travellers; from one hand the impending rock seems ready every minute to crush them to pieces; and the great precipice below, which hangs over the sea, is so hideous, and till very lately, when a wall was raised on the side of the road, so full of danger, that one false step was of dismal consequence. Snowdown hill is by triangular measurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

There are a great number of pleasing prospects and picturesque views in Wales; and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

**Commerce and Manufactures.** The Welsh are on a footing as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the northern counties of England. Their trade is mostly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milfordhaven, which is reckoned the finest in Europe, lies in Pembrokeshire; but the Welsh have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late considerable sums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. It lies under two capital disadvantages, the first is, that, by making it the rendezvous of all the English marine, a bold attempt of an enemy might totally destroy the shipping, however strongly they may be defended by walls and forts. The same objection, however, lies to every harbour that contains ships of war and merchantmen. The second, and perhaps the chief disadvantage it lies under, is the strong opposition to rendering it the capital harbour of the kingdom, that it must meet with in parliament from the numerous Cornish and West country members, the benefit of whose estates must be greatly lessened by the disuse of Plymouth and Portsmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ships, and its inhabitants carry on an extensive trade. In Brecknock-
shire are several woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England, and even Ireland.

**Constitution and Government.** Wales was united, and incorporated, with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII., when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form: all laws, customs, and tenures, contrary to those of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the English liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every shire, and a burgess for every shire-town except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the same reign, there were ordained four several circuits for the administration of justice in the said shires, each of which was to include three shires; so that the chief justice of Chester has under his jurisdiction, the three several shires of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery. The shires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Anglesey, are under the justices of North Wales. Those of Caernarthen, Pembroke-shire, and Cardigan, have also their justices; as have likewise those of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other assistant was ordained to the former justices; so that now every one of the said four circuits has two justices, viz. one chief justice, and a second justice assistant.

**Revenues.** As to the revenues, the crown has a certain, though small property, in the product of the silver or lead mines; but it is said that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principalities, does not exceed 7 or 8,000 a year.

**Arms.** The arms of the prince of Wales differ from those of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of ostrich feathers, was occasioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poictiers, and the motto is, *Ich dien,* I serve. St David, commonly called St Taffy, is the tutelar saint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1st of March, and for which various reasons have been assigned.

**History.** The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons, the Silures, the Dimetis, and the Ordovices. These people cut out so much work for the Romans, that they do not appear to have ever been entirely subdued; yet part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. Though the Saxons, as hath been already observed, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three sons; and the names of these divisions were, Demetia, or South Wales; Povisia, or Powis-land: and Venedotia, or North Wales. This division gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to serve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppose them. They made, however, many vigorous and brave attempts against the Norman kings of England, to maintain their liberties; and even the English historians admit the injustice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a handle for the future conquest of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewelin, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his most dutiful son Griffyn, having put himself under subjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I. who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewelin, prince of Wales, disdaining the subjection to which old Llewelin had submitted, Edward raised an irresistible army at a prodigious expense, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking possession of Anglesey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to submit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewelin; but at last, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him most barbarously and unjustly hanged; and Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this
time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen in 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognise his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always since descend ed to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England becomes now the same. It is proper, however, to observe, that the kings of England have always found it their interest to soothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldest sons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a president, was named by the crown, for the administration of the principality. This was thought so necessary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no son, his daughter Mary was created princess of Wales.

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**ISLE OF MAN.**

The Mona mentioned by Tacitus was the isle of Anglesea, not this island. Some think it takes its name from the Saxon word Mang (or among) because lying in St George’s Channel, it is almost at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland; but Mona seems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached island. Its length from north to south is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the island is 54 degrees sixteen minutes north. It is said that on a clear day the three Britannic kingdoms may be seen from this island. The air is wholesome, and the climate, only making an allowance for the situation, pretty much the same as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other respects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divide the island, both protects and fertilizes the valleys, where there is good pasturages. The better sort of inhabitants have good sizeable horses, and a small kind, which is swift and hardy; nor are they troubled with noxious animals. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffins which breed in rabbit holes, are almost a lump of fat, and esteemed very delicious. It is said, that this island abounds with iron, lead, and copper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, slate, and stone.

The Isle of Man contains seventeen parishes, and four towns on the sea coasts. Castle-town is the metropolis of the island, and the seat of its government; Peel of late years begins to flourish; Douglas has the best market and best trade in the island, and is the richest and most populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the sea; Ramsey has likewise a considerable commerce, on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds excepting the north east. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may see how conveniently this island is situated for being the storehouse of smugglers, which it was till within these few years, to the inexpressible prejudice of his majesty’s revenue; and this necessarily leads us to touch upon the history of the island.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the sea, whom I have before mentioned, this island was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in history; and though we have no regular account of their succession, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedwere for some ages masters of those seas. About the year 1263, Alexander II king of Scotland, a spirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the superiority of Man, and obliged Owen or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It seems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced.
by Edward I., and the kings of England, from that time, exercised the superiority over
the islands; though we find it still possessed by the posterity of its Danish princes, in
the reign of Edward III., who dispossessed the last queen of the island, and bestowed it
on his favourite, Montague, earl of Salisbury. His family honours and estate being
forfeited, Henry IV. bestowed Man, and the patronage of the bishoprick, first upon
the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon Sir John Stanley, whose
posterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs-male, it devolved upon
the duke of Athol, who married the sister of the last lord Derby. Reasons of state ren-
dered it necessary for the crown of Great Britain to purchase the customs and the island
from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by 70,000l. being paid to the
duke in 1764. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the island, though
the form of its government is altered; and the king has now the same rights, powers,
and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, also, retain many of
their ancient constitutions and customs.

The established religion in Man is that of the church of England. The bishop of
Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of the other bishops,
but does not sit in the British house of peers; his see never having been erected into an
English barony. One of the most excellent prelates who ever adorned the episcopal
character, was Dr. Thomas Wilson, bishop of Man, who presided over that diocese up-
wards of fifty-seven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was emi-
rently distinguished for the piety and the exemplariness of his life, his benevolence and
hospitality, and his unremitting attention to the happiness of the people entrusted to his
care. He encouraged agriculture, established schools for the instruction of the children
of the inhabitants of the island, translated some of his devotional pieces into the Manks
language, to render them more generally useful to them, and founded parochial libraries
in every parish of his diocese. Some of his notions respecting government and church
discipline were not of the most liberal kind; but his failings were so few, and his vir-
tues so numerous and conspicuous, that he was a great blessing to the Isle of Man, and
an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had so much veneration for his cha-
acter, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that
no privater of that nation should ravage the Isle of Man.

The ecclesiastical government is well kept up in this island, and the livings are com-
fortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is spoken by the common
people, is radically Erse, or Irish, but with a mixture of other languages. The New
Testament and the Common Prayer Book have been translated into the Manks lan-
guage. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffensive, charitable, and hos-
pitable. The better sort live in stone houses, and the poorer in thatched; and their
ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation consist of wool,
hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign shipping for commodities they may
have occasion for from other parts. Before the South promontory of Man is a little
island called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and separated from
Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This island affords some curiosities which may amuse an antiquary. They consist
chiefly of Runic sepulchral inscriptions and monuments, of ancient brass daggers, and
other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are sometimes dug up, and
seem to indicate the splendor of its ancient possessors.

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**ISLE OF WIGHT.**

This island is situated opposite the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated
by a channel, varying in breadth from two to seven miles; it is considered as
part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length, extending from east to west, measures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth
from north to south above thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly the southern parts: the soil is various, but so great is its fertility, it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was grown here in one year, than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight; and it is supposed that its present produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. A range of hills, which affords fine pasture for sheep, extends from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the island, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only in the pastoral, but also in the great and romantic style. Of these beauties the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the choice of the situation of their houses, as in their other improvements. Domestic fowls and poultry are here in great numbers; the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Motherbank, and Cowes, commonly furnishing themselves from this island.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, that it has been called the garden of England: it has some very fine gentlemen’s seats; and it is often visited by parties of pleasure on account of its delightful scenes.

The island is divided into thirty parishes; and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thousand and twenty-four, exclusive of the troops quartered there. Most of the farm houses are built with stone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newportstands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Gows harbour, distant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, renders it commodious for trade. The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all of which are spacious, clean, and well paved.

Carisbrook castle, in the Isle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a prisoner, from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this castle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, died in it. There are several other forts in this island, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII., when many other forts and block-houses were built in different parts of the coast of England.

The SCILLY ISLES, anciently the SILURES, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land’s End in Cornwall, of which county they were reckoned a part. By their situation between the English Channel and St George’s Channel, they have been the destruction of many ships and lives. Some of the islands are well inhabited, and have large and secure harbours.

In the English Channel are four islands subject to England: these are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St Michael’s bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Britain. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues: and between that and Guernsey, seven leagues: and between the same and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans: and lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, 18 miles west of Normandy, and 84 miles south of Portland. The north side is inaccessible through lofty cliffs, the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planned, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of stockings. The honey in
Jersey is remarkably fine; and the island is well supplied with fish and wild fowl almost of every kind, some of both being peculiar to the island, and very delicious.

The island is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is so salubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was said there was here no business for a physician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided into twelve parishes. The capital town is St Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houses, has a good harbour and castle, and makes a handsome appearance. The property of this island belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal interest, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the British dominions durst recognise him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which most of them intermingle English words. Knit stockings and caps form their staple commodity, but they carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remains of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which is as it were a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

Guernsey is thirteen miles and a half from south-west to north-east, and twelve and a half where broadest, east and west; has only ten parishes, to which there are but eight ministers, four of the parishes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernsey, having one a piece. Though this is a much finer island than that of Jersey, yet it is far less valuable because it is not so well cultivated, nor is it so populous. It abounds in cider; and the inhabitants speak French; but want of firing is the greatest inconvenience that both islands labour under. The only harbour here is at St Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts; one called the Old-Castle, and the other Castle-Cornet. Guernsey is likewise part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

Alderney is about eight miles in compass, and is by much the nearest of all these islands to Normandy, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. This island is healthy, and the soil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

Sark is a small island depending upon Guernsey; the inhabitants are long lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniencies of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three last-mentioned islands together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of the four islands is that of the church of England.

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Ireland.

Situation, Boundaries, and Extent.

The island of Ireland is situated on the west side of England, between 6 and 10 degrees west longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longest day is 16½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the 10th clime, where the longest day is 17½ hours.

The extent or superficial content of this kingdom, is, from the nearest computation and survey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north to Missenhead south; and from the east part of Down, to the west part of Mayo, its greatest breadth 160 miles, and to contain 11,067,712 Irish plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of English statute measure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 150 miles, gives is an area of 27,457 square miles, with 127 inhabitants to each. From the east part of
IRELAND.

Wexford to St David's in Wales, it is reckoned 45 miles, but the passage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than 20 miles, and the passage from Holyhead in North Wales about 52 miles.

Names and divisions, ancient and modern.] Many conjectures have been formed as to the Latin (Hibernia), the Irish, (Erin) as well as the English name of this island. It probably takes its rise from a Phoenician or Gaelic term, signifying the farthest habitation westward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the divisions of Ireland; some dividing it into five circuits, and some into four provinces, those of Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Munster. I shall follow the last division, as being the most common, and likewise the most ancient.

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Leinster, 12 counties

Down
Armagh
Monaghan
Cavan
Antrim
Londonderry
Tyrone
Fermanagh
Down Patrick
Armagh
Monaghan
Cavan
Carrickfergus
Derry
Omagh
Enniskillen
Lifford

Ulster, 9 counties

Leitrim
Roscommon
Mayo
Sligo
Galway
Leitrim
Roscommon
Ballinrobe and Castletown
Sligo
Galway

Connaught, 5 counties

Clare
Cork
Kerry
Limerick
Tipperary
Waterford

Munster, 6 counties

Clare
Cork
Kerry
Limerick
Tipperary
Waterford

Chief Towns.

Chief.

Climate, seasons, and soil.] The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, excepting that it is more moist, the seasons in general being much wetter. From the reports of various registers it appears, that the number of days on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the same years in England. But without the evidence of registers, it is certain, that moisture (even without rain), is not only more characteristic of the climate of this island than that of England, but is also one of the worst and most inconvenient circumstances. This is accounted for in observing, that "the westerly winds, so favourable to other regions, and so benign even in this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the extreme.
Meeting with no lands on this side of America to break their force, and proving in the
general too powerful for the counteraction of the shifting winds from the eastern and
African continents, they waft hither the vapours of an immense ocean. By this cause, the
sky in Ireland is much obscured; and, from the nature of rest and condensation, these
vapours descend in such constant rains, as threaten destruction to the fruits of the earth in
some seasons. This unavoidable evil from natural causes is aggravated by the increase of
it from others, which are either moral or political. The hand of industry hath been
long idle in a country where almost every advantage must be obtained from its labour,
and where discouragements on the labourer must necessarily produce a state of languor.
Ever since the neglect of agriculture in the ninth century, the rains of so many ages
subsiding on the lower grounds, have converted most of the extensive plains into mossy
morasses, and near a tenth part of this beautiful isle is become a repository for stagnated
waters, which, in the course of evaporation, impregnate the air with noxious exhalations.
But in many respects the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of
England; the summers being cooler and the winters less severe. The piercing frosits,
the deep snows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are so fre-
cently observed in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here.
The dampness above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the growth of grass,
has been used as an argument why the inhabitants should confine their attention to the
rearing of cattle, to the total desertion of tillage, and injurious to the consequent growth
of population; but the soil is so infinitely various, as to be capable of almost every spe-
cies of cultivation, suitable to such latitudes, with a fertility equal to its variety. This
is so conspicuous, that it has been observed by a respectable English traveller, that
"natural fertility, acre for acre over the two kingdoms, is certainly in favour
of Ireland; of this there can scarcely be a doubt entertained, when it is considered that
some of the more beautiful, and even best cultivated counties in England, owe almost
every thing to the capital, art, and industry, of its inhabitants."
We shall conclude this article with the further sentiments of the same author (Mr
Young), whose knowledge of the subject, acquaintance with the kingdom, and candour,
are unimpeachable.
"The circumstance which strikes me as the greatest singularity of Ireland, is the
rockiness of the soil, which should seem at first sight against that degree of fertility;
but the contrary is the fact. Stone is so general that I have good reason to believe the
whole island is one vast rock of different strata and kinds rising out of the sea. I have
rarely heard of any great depths being sunk without meeting with it. In general it
appears on the surface in every part of the kingdom; the flattest and most fertile parts,
as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almost as much as the
more barren ones. May we not recognize in this the hand of bounteous providence,
which has given, perhaps, the most stoney soil in Europe to the moistest climate in it?
If as much rain fell upon the clays in England, (a soil very rarely met with in Ireland,
and never without much stone), as falls upon the rocks of her sister island, those lands
could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure; those of lime
stone, with only a thin covering of mould, have the softest and most beautiful turf
imaginable.
"The rockiness of the soil in Ireland is so universal, that it predominates in every
sort. One cannot use with propriety the terms clay, loam, sand, &c. it must be a
stoney clay, a stoney loam, a gravelly sand. Clay, especially the yellow, is much talk-
ed of in Ireland, but it is for want of proper discrimination. I have once or twice seen
almost a pure clay upon the surface, but it is extremely rare. The true yellow clay is
usually found in a thin stratum, under the surface mould, and over a rock; harsh, tena-
cious, stoney, strong loams, difficult to work, are not uncommon, but they are quite
different from English clays.
"Friable sandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the best
soils in the kingdom for tillage and sheep. Tipperary and Roscommon abound parti-

* O'Connor's Dissertations.
IRELAND.

The most fertile of all are the bullock-pastures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon in Clare, called the Corcasses. These are a mellow, putrid, friable loam.

"Sand, which is so common in England, and yet more common through France, Germany, and Poland, quite from Gibraltar to Petersburg, is no where met with in Ireland, except in narrow slips of hillocks, upon the sea coast. Nor did I ever meet with or hear of a chalky soil.

"Besides the great fertility of the soil, there are other circumstances which come within my sphere to mention. Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers; and it is remarkable that by much the finest parts of the kingdom are on the banks of these rivers. Witness the Suir, Blackwater, the Liffey, the Boyne, the Nore, the Barrow, and part of the Shannon; they wash a scenery that can hardly be exceeded. From the rockiness of the country, however, there are few of them that have not obstructions, which are great impediments to inland navigation.

"The mountains of Ireland give to travelling that interesting variety, which a flat country can never abound with. And, at the same time, they are not in such number as to confer the usual character of poverty which usually attends them. I was either upon or very near the most considerable in the kingdom. Mangerton, and the Reeks in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; those of Mourne in Down; Crow Patrick and Nephin, in Mayo; these are the principal in Ireland, and they are of a character in height and sublimity which should render them the object of every traveller's attention."

"The soil, though rocky, is extremely fertile, perhaps beyond that of England itself, when properly cultivated. Pasturage, tillage, and meadow ground, abound in this kingdom; but of late tillage was too much disconquenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in some of the northern parts of the kingdom abundance of hemp and flax are raised, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vast numbers of black cattle and sheep, and the Irish wool is excellent. The prodigious supplies of butter and salt provisions (fish excepted) shipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, afford the strongest proofs of the natural fertility of the Irish soil.

The bogs of Ireland are very extensive; that of Allen extends 80 miles, and is computed to contain 300,000 acres. There are others also which are very extensive, and smaller ones scattered over the whole kingdom; but it has been observed, that these are not in general more than are wanted for fuel.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES.] The numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, spacious bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which Ireland abounds, greatly enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon issues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, serves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a course of 150 miles, forming in its progress many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Kerry-Point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks spreading quite across it, south of Kilkale; but this might be remedied by a short canal, at the expense of 10 or 12,000L, and communication might also be made with other rivers to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Coercarraine: the Boyne falls into St George's channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a spacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, water the south part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their streams below Ros, they fall into the Channel, at Waterford haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coast, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country beyond any country in Europe best fitted for foreign commerce. The most considerable are those of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarven, Cork, Kinsale, Baltimore, Glendore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannon mouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegall, Killebogs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Boyle.

Ireland contains a vast number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught. Many of them produce large
quantities of fine fish: and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Some of the Irish lakes afford the most beautiful and romantic prospects, particularly that of Killarney, which takes its name from a small town in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is entirely surrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the immense declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with evergreens, from near their tops to the lakes themselves; among which are a number of rivulets trembling over the precipices, some from heights of little less than 300 feet. On the top of one of the surrounding mountains is a small round lake of about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil’s Punch Bowl. From the surface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards, and when viewed from the circular top, has a most astonishing appearance. The depth of it is vastly great, but not unfathomable, as the natives pretend. The discharge of the superfluous waters of this bowl, through a chasm into the middle lake, forms one of the finest cascades in the world, visible for 150 yards. The echoes among the hills surrounding the southern parts of the lake, which is mostly inclosed, are equally delightful and astonishing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmare, has placed some cannon in the most proper places for the amusement of travellers; and the discharge of these pieces is tremendous, resembling most the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which seems to travel the surrounding scenery, and die away among the distant mountains. Here also musical instruments, especially the horn and trumpet, afford the most delightful entertainment, and raise a concert far superior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vast and craggy heights that surround the lake, is one stupendous and frightful rock, the front of which towards the water is a most horrid precipice, called the eagle’s nest, from the number of those birds which have their nests in that place.

Inland Navigation.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improveable, as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kingdom; one in particular, reaching an extent of 60 miles, between the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic ocean. In surveying the grounds for this canal, it was found necessary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which from the spongy nature of that soil, became a work of incredible labour and expense, in strengthening the sides, and other works, to prevent falling in.

Mountains.] The Irish language has been more happy in distinguishing the size of mountains than perhaps any other. A knock signifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; sieve marks a craggy high mountain gradually ascending and continued in several ridges; a binn or binn signifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. The two last are often seen and compounded together in one and the same range. Ireland, however, when compared with some other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Down, are reckoned among some of the highest in the kingdom; of which Slieve Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains are found in Ireland, but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous histories that are annexed to some of them. Some of these mountains contain in their bowels, beds of minerals, coals, stone, slate, and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

Forests.] The chief forests in Ireland lie in Leinster, the King’s and Queen’s counties, and those of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulster there are great forests, and in the county of Donegal, and in the north part of Tyrone; also in the county of Fermangh, along Lough Erne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is some good timber; and the oak is esteemed as good as any of the English growth, and as fit for ship-building.

Metals and Minerals.] The mines of Ireland are late discoveries. Several contain silver and lead, and it is said that thirty pounds of their lead ore produce a pound of silver; but the richest silver mine is at Wicklow. A copper and lead mine have been discovered at Tipperary; as likewise iron-ore, and excellent free-stone for building. In one part of the kingdom is a stream of water, very much impregnated with
copper, which yields great quantities of that metal. The method taken to obtain it, is by putting broad plates of iron into a place where the water falls from some height, so that they may receive the whole power of the falling water. The acid, which holds the copper in solution, lets it fall in order to dissolve the iron, to which it has a stronger affinity. On the iron the other metal appears in its proper form, incrusting the plate, and gradually penetrating it; so that at last a plate of copper is left instead of iron. Hence, it is said by the vulgar, that this water has a power of changing iron into copper; but this is a mistake, for the iron is all dissolved and carried down the stream by the acid, which formerly held the copper in solution; while the latter, deprived of its solvent, which then rendered it invisible, only makes its appearance when the water lets it fall. Some of the Irish marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most of the counties. The coals that are dug in Kilkenny emit very little smoke; and it contains a crystalline stream which has no sediment. Those peculiarities, with the serenity of the air in that place, have given rise to the well-known proverb, that Kilkenny contains fire without smoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

Vegetable and Animal Productions by Sea and Land.] There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the same as those of England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moss, which are of vast service for firing where wood and coals are scarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland; but they have long since been exterminated by their wolf dogs, which are much larger than mastiffs, shaped like grey-hounds, yet as gentle and governable as spaniels. What I have already observed about the Irish exportation of salt provisions, sufficiently evinces the prodigious number of hogs and sheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are said to be more plentiful there than in England. The fish that are caught upon the coasts of Ireland are likewise in greater plenty than on those of England, and some of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, &c. Ireland is said to contain two millions and a half of inhabitants; but I suspect that the calculateon is overcharged by near half a million. As it is of great consequence to ascertain as near as possible the number of inhabitants of Ireland of both religions, we shall give them according to the best accounts, as they stood in the four provinces in 1733:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Protestant Families</th>
<th>Popish Families</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ulster</td>
<td>62,620</td>
<td>38,459</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leinster</td>
<td>25,238</td>
<td>92,424</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Munster</td>
<td>13,337</td>
<td>106,407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connaught</td>
<td>4,299</td>
<td>44,133</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>105,494</strong></td>
<td><strong>281,423</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

which, at five to each family in the country, and ten for Dublin, and seven for Cork city, makes in all, 2,015,229 souls. I am apt to think, when we consider the waste of war by sea and land, and the vast emigrations of the Irish to England, the British colonies, and other nations, that the above calculation may nearly serve for the present times, though the balance of number is certainly greatly risen on the side of Protestantism; and in some late debates in the Irish parliament, it has been asserted, that the number of the inhabitants of Ireland, amount to three millions; at present there is little doubt but they greatly exceed this number.

As to the manners of the ancient Irish, Dr Leland observes, that if we make our enquiries on this subject in English writers, we find their representations odious and disgusting: if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out in the most animated encomiums of their great ancestors. The one can scarcely allow them any virtue; the other, in their enthusiastic ardour, can scarcely discover the least imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The historian of England sometimes regards
them as the most detestable and contemptible of the human race. The antiquity of Ireland raises them to an illustrious eminence, above all other European countries. Yet, when we examine their records, without regard to legendary tales or poetic fictions, we find them, even in their most brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civilization; a state which exhibits the most striking instances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With respect to the present descendent of the old Irish, or as they are termed by the Protestants, the mere Irish, they are generally represented as an ignorant, uncivilized, and blundering sort of people. Impatient of abuse, and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehension, courteous to strangers, and patient of hardships. Though in these respects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbarisms are more easy to be accounted for, from accidental than natural causes. By far the greater number of them are Papists, and it is the interest of their priests, who govern them with the most absolute sway, to keep them in profound ignorance. They have also laboured under many discouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the service of foreign princes, they have been distinguished for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their surnames have an O or Mac, placed before them, which signify grandson and son; formerly the O was used by their chiefs only, or such as piqued themselves on the antiquity of their families. Their music is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy strain; though some of their latest airs are lively; and when sung by an Irishman are extremely diverting. The old Irish is generally spoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where some of the old uncouth customs still prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this custom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their custom of placing a dead corpse before their doors, laid upon tables, having a plate upon their bodies to excite the charity of passengers, is practised even in the outskirts of Dublin, though one would wish to see it abolished. Their convivial meetings on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themselves, is offensive to every stranger. But, as we have already observed, these customs are chiefly confined to the more unpolished provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught; the common people there having the least sense of law and government of any in Ireland, excepting their tyrannical landholders or leaseholders, who squeeze the poor without mercy. The common Irish, in their manner of living, seem to resemble the ancient Britons, as described by Roman authors, or the present Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and straw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the same materials, serve the double purposes of accommodating the family, who live and sleep promiscuously, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or such pieces of furniture as are not in immediate use.

Their wealth consists of a cow, sometimes a horse, some poultry, and a spot for potatoes. Coarse bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and sometimes fish, constitute their food; for, however plentifully the fields may be stocked with cattle, these poor natives seldom taste butchers meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robust, and hearty, scarcely know the use of cloaths, and are not ashamed to gaze upon strangers, or make their appearance upon the roads, in that primitive manner.

In this idle and deplorable state, many thousands have been lost to the community and to themselves, who, if they had but an equal chance with their neighbours, of being instructed in the real principles of Christianity, and been enured and encouraged to industry and labour, would have added considerable strength to government. The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themselves of the uncomfortable situation in which the Irish were at home, by alluring them to enter their service, and in this they have hitherto been assisted by priests and Jesuits, whose interest it was to infuse into the minds of their credulous disciples, an aversion to the British government: but we have now the pleasing prospect of a happy reformation among these people, in consequence of the late laws passed by the parliament of Great Britain in favour of Ireland, as well as from the numerous English protestant working schools lately
established over the kingdom; which institution will undoubtedly strike deeper at the root of popery, than all the endeavours of the British monarchs to reduce them.

The descendants of the English and Scots, since the conquest of Ireland by Henry II. though not the most numerous, form the wealthiest part of the nation. Of these are most of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eastern and northern coasts, where most of the trade of Ireland is carried on; especially Belfast, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulster, which, though the poorest soil, is next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, by far the best cultivated and most flourishing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots in the reign of James I. and other Presbyterians, who fled from persecution in that country in the succeeding reigns, planted themselves and established that great staple of Irish wealth, the linen manufactury, which they have since carried on and brought to the utmost perfection. From this short review, it appears, that the present inhabitants are composed of three different classes of people; the old Irish, poor, ignorant, and depressed, who inhabit, or rather exist, upon the interior and western parts; the descendants of the English, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to the whole coast facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, science, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God, and primitive Christianity: thirdly, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who, like the others, are so zealously attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require some ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are so thoroughly consolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and better sort of the Irish nation, in general differ little in language, dress, manners, and customs, from those of the same rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hospitality is well known; but in this they are sometimes suspected of more ostentation than real friendship.

Religion.] The established religion and ecclesiastical discipline of Ireland is the same with that of England. Among the bulk of the people in the most uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the most absurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Irish papists still retain their nominal bishops and dignitaries, who subsist on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind submission of the latter to their clergy, does not prevent Protestantism from making a very rapid progress in the towns and communities. How far it may be the interest of England, that some kind of balance between the two religions should be kept up, I shall not here enquire.

Ireland contains at least as many sectaries as England, particularly Presbyterians, Baptists, Quakers, and Methodists, who are all of them connived at or tolerated. Great efforts have been made, ever since the days of James I. in erecting free-schools for civilizing and converting the Irish Papists to Protestantism. The institution of the incorporated society for promoting English Protestant working schools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly successful, as have many institutions of the same kind, in introducing industry and knowledge among the Irish; and no country in the world can shew greater public spirited efforts than have been made by the government of Ireland, since that time, for these purposes; but many of the parliamentary grants of this kind have been trifled with and perverted.

Archbishopricks and Bishopricks.] The archbishopricks are four; Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam.

The bishopricks are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Killmore, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Os- sory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

Language.] The language of the Irish is fundamentally the same with the British and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made use of by Scotch Highlanders, opposite the Irish coasts. It is, however, in a great measure defaced by provincial alterations, but not so altered as to render the Irish, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The usage of the Irish language, occasions among the common people, who speak both that and the English, a disagreeable tone in speaking, which diffuses itself among the vulgar in general, and even among the better sort, who do not understand Irish. It is probable, however, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.
LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Learning seems to have been cultivated in Ireland at a very early period. Mr O'Halloran says, that the Irish "appear to have been from the most remote antiquity, a polished people, and that with propriety they may be called, the Fathers of Letters." We are even told, that Egypt received arts and letters from Niulus the Phenician, who is represented as the great ancestor of the Irish nation. But these accounts are considered by many as fabulous: and it has been observed that no literary monuments have yet been discovered in Ireland earlier than the introduction of Christianity into this country; and that the evidence of any transaction previous to this period, rests entirely on the credit of Christian writers, and their collections from old poets, or their transcripts of records deemed to have been made in the times of Paganism.

It is said, that when St Patrick * landed in Ireland, he found many holy and learned Christian preachers there, whose votaries were pious and obedient. Camden observes, that, "the Irish scholars of St Patrick profited so notably in Christianity, that, in the succeeding age, Ireland was termed Sanctorum Patria. Their monks so greatly excelled in learning and piety, that they sent whole flocks of most learned men into all parts of Europe, who were the first founders of Lieuxue abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Italy; of Wirtzburgh, in Franconia; St Gall, in Switzerland: and of Malmsbury, Lindisfarren, and many other monasteries, in Britain." We have also the testimony of venerable Bede, that about the middle of the seventh century, many nobles, and other orders of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country into Ireland, either for instruction, or for an opportunity of living in monasteries of stricter discipline: and that the Scots (as he styles the Irish) maintained them, taught them, and furnished them with books, without fee or reward: "a most honourable testimony," says lord Lyttleton, "not only to the learning, but likewise to the hospitality and bounty of that nation." Dr Leland remarks, that a confux of foreigners to a retired island, at a time when Europe was in ignorance and confusion, gave peculiar lustre to this seat of learning; nor is it improbable or surprising, that seven thousand students studied at Armagh, agreeable to the accounts of Irish writers, though the seminary of Armagh was but one of those numerous colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Irish have also distinguished themselves in the republic of letters. Archbishop Usher does honour to literature itself. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and satire. The sprightliness of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of distinguished genius whom Ireland has lately produced, may also be particularly mentioned, sir Richard Steele, bishop Berkely, Parnell, Sterne, and Goldsmith.

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one university, which is denominated Trinity College. It consists of two squares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. Three sides of one of the squares are of brick, and the fourth is a very superb library, but being built of bad stone, it is unfortunately mouldering away. The inside is beautiful and commodious, and embellished with the busts of several ancient and modern worthies. A great part of the books on one side were collected by archbishop Usher, who was one of the original members of this body, and the most learned man it ever produced. The new square, three sides of which have been built within about twenty years, by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament Square, is of hewn stone: and the front of it next the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilasters, festoons, &c. The provost's house has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland stone. The chapel is a very mean structure, as is also the old hall, wherein college exercises are performed; but the new hall in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room. In their museum, is a set of figures in wax, representing females in every state of pregnancy. They are done upon real skeletons, and are the labours of almost a whole life of a French artist.

* It has been affirmed that St Patrick was a Scotchman; but Mr O'Halloran denies this; and says, that "it appears from the most authentic records, that Patrick was from Wales."
IRELAND.

This seminary was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation consisted only of a provost, three fellows, and three scholars, which has from time to time been augmented to twenty-two fellows, seventy scholars, and thirty sizers. However, the whole number of students is at present about four hundred; who are of three classes, fellow-commoners, pensioners, and sizers or servitors. Of the fellows, seven are called seniors; and the annual income of each of these is about seven hundred pounds. The provostship is supposed to be worth three thousand pounds a year. Trinity-college has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, masters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. The visitors are, the chancellor or vice chancellor, and the archbishop of Dublin.

ANTiquITIES AND curiosities, natural AND artificial.] I have already mentioned the wolf-dogs in Ireland. The Irish goshawks and gerfalcots are celebrated for their shape and beauty. The moose-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this island, their horns being sometimes dug up of so great a size, that one part has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greatest natural curiosity in Ireland is the Giant's Causeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus described by Dr Pocoke, late bishop of Ossory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He says, "that he measured the most westerly point at high water, to the distance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet farther upon a descent, till it was lost in the sea. Upon measuring the eastern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and saw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the east, and is, like that, lost in the water."

"The causeway is composed of pillars all of angular shapes, from three sides to eight. The eastern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright sides of the pillars, some of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar consists of several joints, or stones, lying one upon another, from six inches to about one foot in thickness; and what is very surprising, some of these joints are so convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of spheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greatest firmness, every stone being concave on the other side, and fitting in the exactest manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally consist of about forty joints, most of which separate very easily, and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water."

"But this is not the most singular part of this extraordinary curiosity, the cliffs themselves being still more surprising. From the bottom, which is of black stone, to the height of about sixty feet, they are divided at equal distances by stripes of a reddish stone, that resembles a cement, about four inches in thickness; upon this there is another stratum of the same black stone, with a stratum of five inches thick of the red. Over this is another stratum ten feet thick, divided in the same manner; then a stratum of the red stone twenty-feet deep, and above that a stratum of upright pillars; above these pillars lies another stratum of black stone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another stratum of upright pillars, rising in some places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not so high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of these cliffs extend about three English miles."

The cavities, the romantic prospects, cataracts, and other pleasing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities, and several pamphlets have been employed in describing them.

As to the artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or stone-towers, found upon the coasts, and supposed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical incursions, who made use of them as spy-towers or barbicans, light houses or beacons.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER.] Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is in magn.
edifices, public and private. Its magnitude and the number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions; much about the size of Stockholn, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marseilles, and is supposed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants. It is situated 270 miles north-west of London, and near sixty miles west from Holyhead in
North Wales, the usual station of the passage vessels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin stands about seven miles from the sea, at the bottom of a large and spacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almost into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both sides, which form spacious and noble quays where vessels below the first bridge load and unload before the merchants' doors and warehouses. A stranger upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about seven miles broad, and in stormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably surprised with the beautiful prospect on each side, and the distant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low situation, makes no great appearance. The increase of Dublin, within these last twenty years, is incredible, and it is generally supposed that 7000 houses have been added to the city and suburbs since the reign of queen Anne. The number of houses in the year 1777, was 17,151, and there have been many new buildings erected since. This city, in its appearance, bears a near resemblance to London. The houses are of brick; the old streets are narrow and mean, but the new streets are as elegant as those of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville street, which is sometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houses are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole, at an equal distance from the sides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for the sea vessels, as far as the customhouse, or centre of the city, is but small when compared with the Thames of London. Over it are two handsome bridges, lately built of stone, in imitation of that at Westminster, and there are three others that have little to recommend them. Formerly the centre of Dublin, towards the customhouse, was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purposes; but of late, a new street has been opened, leading from Essex bridge to the castle, where the lord lieutenant resides. A new Exchange has been lately erected, an elegant structure of white stone, richly embellished with semi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The barracks are pleasantly situated on an eminence near the river. They consist of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battalions of foot, and one regiment of horse; from hence the castle and city guards are relieved daily. They are said to be the largest and completest building of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing 5000 foot and 100 horse.

The linen hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of such linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for sale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the trustees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are composed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbishop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national institution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds which otherwise would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thousands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stephen's Green is a most extensive square, round which is a gravel walk of near a mile. Here gentle company walk in the evenings, and on Sundays after two o'clock, and in fine weather make a very gay appearance. Many of the houses round the Green are very stately, but a want of uniformity is observable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another spacious square near Stephen's Green, now laid out and partly built. The houses being lofty, uniform, and carried on with stone as far as the first floor, will give the whole an air of magnificence not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath. The front of Trinity-college, extending above 3000 feet, is built of Portland stone in the finest taste.

The parliament house was begun in 1729, and finished in 1739, at the expence of 40,000l. This superb pile was in general of the Ionic order, and was justly accounted one of the foremost architectural beauties. The portico in particular was, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts had also many beauties, and the manner in which the building was lighted, has been much admired. This superb building, on the 27th of February 1792, was observed to be in flames, about 5 o'clock in the afternoon, when the house of Lords, as well as the Commons was sitting, and in full debate. When the alarm was given, one of the members made his way to the roof, and looking down
into the house from one of the ventilators, confirmed the apprehensions of those within, by saying the dome was surrounded by fire, and would tumble into the house in five minutes. The volume of fire by which the dome was surrounded, soon made apertures on all sides, by melting the copper from the wood-work, and thus exhibiting the cavity of the dome filled with flames like a large furnace, which at about half past six tumbled into the house with one great crash. The valuable library, and all the papers of importance, were saved.

But one of the greatest and most laudable undertakings that this age can boast of, is the building of a stone wall about the breadth of a moderate street, and of a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to shelter vessels in stormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord mayor, &c. the same as in London. Every third year, the lord mayor, and the twenty-four companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the franchises. Upon this occasion the citizens vie with each other in shew and ostentation, which is sometimes productive of disagreeable consequences to many of their families. In Dublin there are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which serve as a kind of nursery to those in London. In this city are 18 parish churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French, and 1 for Dutch protestants, 7 presbyterian meeting houses, 2 for methodists, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman catholic chapels. A royal hospital, like that of Chelsea, for invalids; a lying-in-hospital, with gardens, built and laid out in the finest taste; an hospital for lunatics, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who himself died a lunatic; and sundry other hospitals for patients of every kind. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt, and others are rebuilding in a more elegant manner. And, indeed, whatever way a stranger turns himself in this city, he will perceive a spirit of elegance and magnificence; and if he extends his view over the whole kingdom, he will conclude that works of ornament and public utility in Ireland almost kept pace with those erecting, great as they are, over the different parts of Great Britain. For it must be acknowledged that no nation in Europe, comparatively speaking, has expended such sums as the grants of the Irish parliament, which has been, and continues to be, the life and soul of whatever is carried on; witness the many noble erections, churches, hospitals, bridges; the forming of harbours, public roads, canals, and other public and private undertakings.

It has, however, been a matter of surprise, that with all this spirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. In the capital, which may be classed among the second order of cities of Europe, there is not one inn which deserves that name. This may, in some measure, be accounted for, by the long and sometimes dangerous passage from Chester and Hollyhead, to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from visiting that island; but as it is now proposed to make turnpike roads to Portpatrick in Scotland, from whence the passage is short and safe, the roads of Ireland may, by this means, become more frequented, especially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets with views the most luxuriant and rich, he is sometimes cloyed with a sameness that runs through the whole: but in those countries of North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whose tops look down upon the clouds, the extensive lakes, enriched with bushy islands, the cavities, glens, cataracts, the numerous feathered creation, hopping from cliff to cliff, and other pleasing and uncommon natural objects, that frequently present themselves in various forms and shapes, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination, and are pleasing to the fancy of every admirer of nature, however rough and unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deservedly reckoned the second city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles south-west of Dublin, and contains above 8500 houses. Its haven is deep, and well sheltered from all winds; but small vessels only can come up to the city, which stands about seven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter shipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a
great resort of ships to this port, particularly of those bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee islands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. It appears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were 11 churches in Cork, though there are now only seven, and yet it has ever since that time been esteemed a thriving city; but it must be observed, that besides the churches, there are at this time six mass houses, two dissenting meeting houses, another for quakers, and a chapel for French protestants. Kinsale is a populous and strong town, with an excellent harbour, and considerable commerce and shipping; and it is, moreover, occasionally a station for the navy royal; for which end this fort is furnished with proper naval officers and storekeepers. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and shipping, and contains 2561 houses. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the west side of the town is a citadel. Limerick is a handsome, populous, commercial, strong city: it lies on both sides the Shannon, and contains 5257 houses.

Belfast is a large seaport and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen water, where it falls into Carrickfergus Bay. Downpatrick has a flourishing linen manufacture. Carrickfergus (or Knockfergus) by some deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and castle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is most usually called) stands on Lough-Foyl, is a strong little city, having linen manufactures, with some shipping. All this extreme north part of Ireland is situated so near to Scotland, that they are in sight of each other coasts. Downegal, the county-town of the same name (otherwise called the county of Tyrconnel), is a place of some trade; as is likewise Enniskilling. All which last mentioned places, and many more (though less considerable ones), are chiefly and most industriously employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen thread, to the benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vast annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewise to render the money constantly drawn from Ireland into England, by her absentees, less grievous to her.

Though Ireland contains no strong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has several forts and garrisons, that serve as comfortable sinecures to military officers. Their chief are Londonderry and Culmore Fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinsale, Duncannon, Ross-Castle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of these forts are furnished with deputy-governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary provisions from the government.

It cannot be pretended that Ireland is as yet furnished with any public edifices to compare with those to be found in countries where sovereigns and their courts reside: but it has some elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taste and public spirit of the inhabitants. The castle, Essex-bridge, and several edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent; and elegant pieces of architecture, and many noble Gothic churches and other buildings, are to be seen in Ireland.

The Irish nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with those of England in the magnificent structure of their houses, and the elegance of their ornaments; but it would be unjust, where there are so many equal in taste and magnificence, to particularize any. In speaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I must not forget the numerous barracks where the soldiers are lodged, equally to the ease and convenience of the inhabitants.

Commerce and manufactures.] What I have said of England under this head, is in a great measure applicable to Ireland. Her exports are linen-cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, horses, and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, tanned leather, calf skins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheese, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horse-hair, lead, copper-ore, hertings, dried fish, rabbit-skins, and fur, otter-skins, goat skins, salmon, and some other particulars; but it is probable that the exports of Ireland will be greatly increased by the late laws passed in favour of the trade of that kingdom. It is certain that the Irish have carried their inland manufactures, even those of luxury, to a considerable height, and that their lord lieutenants, and their courts, have of late encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, make use of no other.
PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these I know none in Ireland, as the bankers cannot be admitted as such: neither can the Dublin Society for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, which was incorporated in 1750. The linen hall, however, that is erected at Dublin, is under just and nice regulations, as any commercial house in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland formerly was only entitled, the dominion or lordship of Ireland, and the king's style was no other than Dominus Hibernie, lord of Ireland, till the 33d year of king Henry VIII. when he assumed the title of king, which is recognised by act of parliament in the same reign. But England and Ireland becoming one and the same kingdom, they in general agree in their laws. But after the conquest of Ireland by King Henry II. the laws of England were received and sworn to by the Irish nation, assembled at the council of Lismore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, in a state of dependence, it was thought necessary that it should conform to, and be obliged by, such laws as the superior state thought proper to prescribe.

But this state of dependence being almost forgotten, and ready to be disputed by the Irish nation, it was thought necessary, some years ago, to declare how that matter stood; and therefore, by statute 6th of George I. it is declared, “that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to, and dependent upon the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inseparably united thereto; and that the king's majesty, with the consent of the lords and commons of Great Britain, in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland.” This determination of the British parliament, was, however, far from giving general satisfaction to the Irish nation, many of whom disputed the dependency of Ireland upon the parliament of Great Britain more than ever. After many struggles, and after a traitorous attempt to separate the country from Great Britain and to unite it to France, had plunged it into a desperate rebellion, an incorporated union of the two kingdoms, as the only measure that could secure mutual tranquillity and happiness, was proposed to the parliaments of both countries, in each of which, after long and minute discussion, it was at last agreed to. Ireland, therefore, now no more a separate kingdom, in common with every other part of the empire enjoys and is protected by the British constitution.

For the regular distribution of justice, there are in Ireland four terms held annually for the decision of causes; and four courts of justice, the chancery, king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer. The high sheriffs of the several counties were formerly chosen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord lieutenant. From this general view it appears, that the civil and ecclesiastical institutions are almost the same in Ireland as in England.

REVENUES.] In Ireland the public revenue arises from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the trustee, for applying it to particular purposes; but there is, besides this, a private revenue arising from the ancient demesne lands, from forfeiture for treason and felony, priseage of wines, light-house duties, and a small part of the casual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the same unlimited property that a subject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a secret to the public.

The revenue of Ireland is supposed at present to exceed half a million sterling, of which the Irish complain greatly and justly, that about 70,000l. is granted in pensions, and a great part to absentees. Very large sums were also granted by their own parliament for more valuable purposes, the improvement of their country and civilizing the people; such as the inland navigation, bridges, highways, churches, premiums, protestant schools, and other particulars, which do honour to the wisdom and patriotism of that parliament.

COINS.] The coins of Ireland are at present of the same denominations and the like fabric with those of England, only an English shilling passes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Irish were, is at present a matter of mere curiosity and great uncertainty.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Ireland now maintains and pays a considerable body of troops who have been often of singular service to England; and the military force of
Ireland has been greatly increased by the many volunteer associated companies of yeomanry, which have been lately formed in that kingdom; these have been highly beneficial in quelling the late rebellion which was raised there. Those parts of Ireland that are most uncultivated contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little sense either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are absolutely necessary for keeping them in order; witness the insurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, who were instigated by their priests; and the late atrocious rebellion, marked with such circumstances of unprincipled and diabolical cruelty, as are a disgrace to humanity; though it must be confessed that many of the common people in Ireland have laboured under such oppressions as afforded them just grounds for discontent. It does not however, appear, that the bulk of the Irish Catholics are fond of a revolution in government.

Order of St Patrick.] This order was instituted February 5th, and the installation of the first knights was performed on the 17th of March, 1783. It consists of the sovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand masters of the order, and the archbishop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbishop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St Patrick the register of the order. The knights are installed in the cathedral of St Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are splendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a cross, with the motto round, Quis separabit, 1783, fastened by an Irish harp to the crown imperial. A star of eight points encircles it on the coat.

History.] The history of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater justice than that of any other country, be distinguished into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulster prince boasted to the pope of an uninterrupted succession of one hundred and ninety seven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Irish antiquaries carry their history up to 500 years before the Christian era, at which time they assert, that a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, settled in Ireland, and introduced the Phoenician language and letters into this country; and that however it might have been peopled still earlier from Gaul or Britain, yet Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the sons of Mlesius, gave a race of kings to the Irish, distinguished from their days by the name of Gadelians and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and contested parts of the Irish history, we shall only observe, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the great apostle of Ireland, St Patrick, was employed in the propagation of Christianity in this country, though there had been Christian missionaries here long before, by whose means it had made a considerable progress among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this period, Ireland was occasionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England; but in the year 795 and 798 the Danes and Norwegians, or, as they were called, Easterlings, invaded the coasts of Ireland, and were the first who erected stone edifices in that kingdom. The common habitations of the Irish till that time, were huddles covered with straw and rushes, and but very few of solid timber. The natives defended themselves bravely against the Easterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork: but they resided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Irish was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, seem to have called to their assistance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a considerable maritime power; and this might have given occasion for his clergy to call him king of great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was about that time a flourishing city, and that the native Irish gave the Easterlings several defeats, though supported by their countrymen from the continent, the Isle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of England formed a design of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is said to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from some of the Irish chieftains, who had afforded considerable assistance to his enemies. His design was patronized by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered about the year 1168. Dermott Mac Murrough, king of Leinster, and an oppressive tyrant, quarreled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince O'Rorik. A confederacy being formed against him, under Roderick O'Connor (who it seems was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven
from his country, and took refuge in the court of king Henry II., who promised to restore him, upon taking an oath of fidelity to the crown of England, for himself, and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cause to the English barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz Stephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald. Those noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the same principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conquest of England under William I., and Strongbow was to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strongbow arriving with a strong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The descendants of the Danes continued still possessed of Dublin, which after some ineffectual opposition made by King O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the English soldiers; but Mac Turkil the Danish king, escaped to his shipping. Upon the death of Dermot, Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, seized upon his estate in England and Wales, and recalled his subjects from Ireland. The Irish about the same time, to the amount of above 60,000, besieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Irish friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Irish to raise the siege with great loss; and going over to England, he appeased Henry by swearing fealty to him and his heirs, and resigning into his hands all the Irish cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's absence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the siege; and in him ended the race of the Easterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II., attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran soldiers, and the flower of his English nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulster, but the great king Roderick O'Connor, submitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's submission included that of Ulster, and that consequently he was the paramount sovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the estates of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his English nobility. He then settled a civil administration at Dublin, as nearly as possible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having first settled an English colony from Bristol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free customs, save their charters, which the citizens of Bristol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flourish.—Thus the conquest of Ireland was effected by the English, almost with as much ease as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards; and for much the same reasons, the rude and unarmed state of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his son John, who in 1185 went over in person to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill use of their power, and rendered themselves hateful to the Irish, who were otherwise very well disposed towards the English. Richard I. was too much taken up with the crusades to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his accession, made amends for his former behaviour towards the Irish. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland English laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinster and Munster, which was within the English pale, into twelve counties. I find, however, that the descendants of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal subjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exercised all acts of sovereignty within their own states; and indeed this was pretty much the case so late as the reign of James I. The unsettled reign of Henry III., his wars and captivity, gave the Irish a very mean opinion of the English government during his reign; but they seem to have continued quiet under his son Edward I. Gaveston, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the successes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almost proved fatal to the English interest in Ireland, and suggested to the Irish the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the English governors and armies; and being supported by his brother in person, he was actually
crowned king of Dundalk, and narrowly missed being master of Dublin. The younger Bruce seems to have been violent in the exercise of his sovereignty, and he was at last defeated and killed by Bermingham, the English general. After this, Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and passed several excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not suppressed without great loss and disgrace on the side of the English. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the English inhabitants had no inconsiderable share. A succession of vigorous, brave governors, at last quieted the insurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, son to Edward III. having married the heiress of Ulster, was sent over to govern Ireland, and if possible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progress, but did not entirely accomplish it. It appears, at this time, that the Irish were in a very flourishing condition, and that one of the greatest grievances they complained of, was, that the English sent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II., finding that, the execution of his despotic schemes in England must be abortive without further support, passed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no use of force, the Irish looked upon his presence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and bestowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In short, he behaved, so as entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very despotic manner in England, he undertook a fresh expedition to Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Irish. His army again struck the natives with consternation, and they threw themselves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition, that the duke of Lancaster landed in England; and Richard, upon his return, finding himself deserted by his English subjects on account of his tyranny, and that he could not depend upon the Irish, surrendered his crown to his rival.

The Irish, after Richard's death, still retained a warm affection for the house of York; and upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced its cause. Edward IV. made the earl of Desmond lord lieutenant of Ireland for his services against the Ormond party and other adherents of the house of Lancaster, and he was the first Irish chieftain that obtained this honour. Even the accession of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Irish to his title as duke of Lancaster; they therefore readily joined Lambert Simmel, who pretended to be the eldest son of Edward IV., but for this they paid dear, being defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them somewhat cautious at first of joining Perkin Warbeck, notwithstanding his plausible pretences to be the duke of York, second son of Edward IV. He was, however, at last recognized as king by the Irish; and in the preceding pages, under the history of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretensions. Henry behaved with moderation towards his favourites, and was contented with requiring the Irish nobility to take a fresh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the desired effects during the administration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII., governed Ireland by supporting its chiefs against each other, but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural son, the duke of Richmond, his lord lieutenant. This did not prevent the Irish from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz-Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at last hanged at Tyburn. After this the house of Austria found their account in their quarrels with England, to form a strong party among the Irish.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed some pretensions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a strong party among the Irish themselves. It is hard to say, had he lived, what the consequence of his claim might have been. Henry understood that the Irish had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto assumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Irish, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to speak the truth, it was somewhat surpris-
ing that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect submission of the native Irish to Henry's government than ever had been known; and even O'Neill, who pretended to be successor to the last paramount king of Ireland, swore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

The pope, however, and the princes of the house of Austria, by remitting money, and sometimes sending over troops to the Irish, still kept up their interest in that kingdom, and drew from them vast numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good soldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpressible difficulties to the English government, even in the reign of Edward VI., but it is remarkable that the Reformation took place in the English part of Ireland with little or no opposition. The Irish seem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but they proved thorns in the side of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual disputes she had with the Roman catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneasiness; and the pope and the house of Austria always found new resources against her in Ireland. The Spaniards possessed themselves of Kinsale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Essex, are well known in English history.

The lord deputy Mountjoy, who succeeded Essex, was the first Englishman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Irish before Kinsale, and bringing Tyrone prisoner to England; where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, shown to such an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehensions Elizabeth had from the popish interest in Ireland. James I. confirmed the possessions of the Irish; but such was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnell, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to seize the castle of Dublin; but their plot being discovered, their chiefs fled beyond seas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they instigated sir Calim O'Dogliarty to a fresh rebellion, by promising him speedy supplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the dispute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Irish rebels, which passed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, vested in the crown 511,465 acres, in the several counties of Donegal, Tyrone, Colerain, Fermanagh, Cavin, and Armagh: and enabled the king to make that protestant plantation in the North of Ireland, which now, from the most rebellious province of the kingdom, is the most quiet and reformed.

Those prodigious attainders, however just and necessary they might be, operated fatally for the English in the reign of Charles I. The Irish Roman Catholics in general, were influenced by their priests to hope not only to repossess the lands of their forefathers, but to restore the popish religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and detestable conspiracy for massacring all the English protestants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy dissensions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being discovered by the English government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed in 1641 their horrid scheme of massacre; but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm protestant writers, some of whom have mounted the number of the sufferers to 40,000; other accounts speak of 10,000, or 12,000 and some have even diminished that number*. What followed in consequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Irish Papists upon themselves, belongs to the History of England. It is certain that they smarted so severely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His papish successor and brother James II., even after the Revolution took place, found an asylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the assistance of the natives there, he might re-

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* Mr Guthrie's account of the numbers killed in the Irish massacre is much below that generally given. Mr Hume, after enumerating the various barbarities practised by the Papists upon the Protestants, says, "by some computations, those, who perished by all those cruelties, are made to amount to an hundred and sixty, or two hundred thousand; by the most moderate, and probably the most reasonable account, they must have been near 40,000." Hist. of England, vol. vi. p. 377. edit. S. W. 1763.
mount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own pusillanimity co-operated with his disappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his son-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that William ever gained in person; a victory, however, on which depended the safety of the protestant religion, and the liberties of the British empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been reinstated on the throne, and nothing else could have been expected than that, being irritated by opposition, victorious over his enemies, and free from every restraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and pursued more arbitrary designs than before. The army of William consisted of 36,000 men, that of James of 33,000 but advantageously situated. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undisciplined rabble: but his French auxiliaries were far from behaving as heroes. It must be acknowledged, however, that he left both the field and the kingdom too soon for a brave man.

Many political reasons occurred for not driving the Irish to despair. The friends of the Revolution and the protestant religion were sufficiently gratified out of the forfeited estates. It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorously into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wisdom of the above considerations. The spirit of industry has enabled the Irish to know their own strength and importance; to which some accidental circumstances have concurred. All her ports were opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and of late years, acts of parliament have been made for permitting the importation of salt beef, pork, butter, cattle, and tallow, from Ireland to Great Britain. But though some laws and regulations had occasionally taken place favourable to Ireland, it must be acknowledged that the inhabitants of that country laboured under considerable grievances, in consequence of sundry unjust and injudicious restraints of the parliament of England respecting their trade.

The war between Great Britain and her American colonies was attended with very important consequences in Ireland. By this contest, her attention was excited to the restrictions on her own manufactures and commerce. In 1779, therefore, the parliament of Ireland, in their address to the throne, demanded, in strong language, the restoration of their commercial freedom; hopes were repeatedly held out to them of some partial compliance with their requisition; but when the people of Ireland saw that nothing effectual was likely to be done, and that an opposition to any relaxation of the commercial laws was pretty general in England, resolutions were entered into by the inhabitants of the trading towns to prevent the importation of British manufactures, and associations were entered into of a more effectual, but more dangerous nature. The dread of an invasion from France, added to the circumstance of the military force of Ireland being continually drained for the support of the American war, furnished a plausible plea for forming military associations, avowedly for the defence of the country against foreign enemies; this spirit soon became general throughout the kingdom; the numbers thus associated and armed are said at last to have amounted to upwards of 60,000 men.

Government saw these proceedings with astonishment and alarm; to offer the least resistance was vain, and a proposal to bring them to act under the authority of the government, was rejected with scorn. Having provided for the defence of the country, they soon began to extend their views. A free and unlimited commerce with all the world was the first and great object for which no compensation could be admitted. The state of things, joined to the alarming and perilous situation of Great Britain, left to her ministers no alternative; they were under the necessity of yielding to that spirit which they were unable to repress: accordingly on the 13th of December, the ministers laid before the house three propositions for granting relief to Ireland; they were unanimously agreed to, and bills founded upon them, immediately brought in and passed.

These conciliatory measures produced but a momentary quiet among the people; they soon began to proceed farther, and to declare all authority assumed by the British parliament over them in any case whatsoever to be a gross usurpation. The parliament of Ireland not being so forward in acceding to these views, as they had expected, a meeting of the volunteer corps took place on the 15th of February 1782, when the
most violent resolutions were adopted, and they declared that in every situation, they would maintain with their lives and fortunes the constitutional right of the kingdom to be governed only by the king and parliament of Ireland. The same sentiments soon became universally avowed throughout the kingdom; the plan of concession was again resorted to. A change having taken place in the British ministry in the spring of 1782, the duke of Portland came over as lieutenant, and in April of that year, the declaratory act, asserting and securing the sovereignty of the parliament of Great Britain over Ireland, was repealed; and that all doubts and jealousies might be effectually removed, a bill was passed in the following year by the British legislature, containing, in the fullest and most express terms, a relinquishment on the part of Great Britain of all right to interfere with the judgment of the Irish courts, or to make laws to bind Ireland in time to come.

These concessions, great and important as they were to Ireland, dishonourable and dangerous to Great Britain, as striking at the root of the connection between the two countries, did not produce either general or lasting tranquillity. When the government of a country, either through weakness or imprudence, is reduced to the necessity of yielding to the demands of popular clamour, its concessions only prove sources of new and perhaps more unreasonable demands; such was the case at present in Ireland. Agitated by the spirit of political innovation, and flushed by the late successes, the minds of the people were not easily tranquillized; during their apparent inaction, they seem only to have been in search of an object suited to their perturbed and restless imaginations: and such was the subject of parliamentary reform. The volunteers perceiving, on the part of government, some indications of a design to get rid of them altogether, eagerly fixed upon this popular topic as a centre of union. A grand national convention of delegates from the whole volunteer army was assembled at Dublin on the 10th of November 1783; the earl of Charlemont was elected president, and on the following day, a committee was appointed to prepare a specific plan of parliamentary reform; by them a number of resolutions were digested, which were submitted to the convention at large, on the twenty eighth of November.

Mr Flood, on the following day, in the house of commons, moved for leave to bring in a bill for the more equal representation of the people in parliament. The motion was received, by a great majority of the house, with the strongest marks of disapprobation. Mr Yelverton the attorney-general insisted, that the house could not, without yielding to a disgraceful pusillanimity, consent to receive propositions tendered to them at the point of the bayonet, by a body of armed men; the motion was rejected by a great majority. The house then came to a resolution, that they will support the rights and privileges of parliament against all encroachments. An address was also ordered to be presented to the king, expressing the happiness they enjoyed under the established government, and assuring him of their determination to support the present constitution with their lives and fortunes. This address being sent up to the Lords, received their concurrence.

Thus, by the firmness of the legislature, the farther pursuit of an object, which had very much agitated the minds of the people, and which in its farther progress threatened the most serious mischief to the country, was for the present repressed. The subject of parliamentary reform made some noise in Great Britain about this period, and for sometime before, but in Ireland the speeches and resolutions of the reformers were distinguished by the particular indecency of their expressions, and the virulence of their reflections against the laws and constitution of their country. In these violent proceedings the eye may now trace the secret fermentation of that mighty mischief, which hath lately burst forth in all the horrors of treason and rebellion, transforming the ignorant and misguided populace into demons, and rendering the country a dreadful scene of assassination and murder.

About this period the minds of the people in that country were in a state of extreme agitation; their passions had been so long stimulated by those objects which are of all others most calculated to inflame, that they seem to have acquired a morbid degree of irritability; those grievances, whether real or imaginary, which in other nations would
scarcely have ruffled the calm of domestic tranquillity, threatened, in that country, to produce all the horrors of the most violent tempest.

During the course of their proceedings, relative to parliamentary reform, interests of a more pressing nature frequently divided the attention of the people, and were pursued with a most intemperate degree of zeal and violence. They seem to have expected, that by the restitution of commercial freedom, they were immediately to arrive at the possession of that prosperity and opulence, which can only be obtained by slow progress, and is the reward of patient and persevering industry. Disappointed in these visionary hopes, their situation was rendered more calamitous by the idleness of the lower class of people, and the neglect of their proper occupations by the better sort, both of which were to be attributed to the general disposition to political speculations. In order to relieve the distresses of their own manufactures, it was proposed to lay heavy duties on the manufactures of other countries imported into Ireland; a measure dictated by a narrow and short-sighted policy, but for which the people had become extremely clamorous. The legislature, however, with no less wisdom than firmness, rejected the motion. In consequence of this disappointment of their hopes, the people were thrown into the most violent fermentation, and as there was reason to believe that these commotions were either excited or continued by the seditious and inflammatory libels, which were daily circulated in the public papers, prosecutions were commenced against several of the printers, and a bill was brought into parliament by Mr Foster for securing the liberty of the press, by preventing the publication of libels, which, after a considerable opposition, and receiving several modifications, passed with a general concurrence.

Soon after this a plan for regulating and finally adjusting the commercial intercourse between the two nations, excited a very general interest both in Great Britain and Ireland; but, after having exercised the attention of the legislatures of both kingdoms for upwards of seven months, was frustrated by the violence of that misguided zeal which then pervaded the whole nation. Indeed so insolent had the people of that country now become, in consequence of the concessions extorted from Great Britain; their minds so agitated with groundless doubts and jealousies; so distracted with political speculations, that a calm and temperate discussion of a subject of such magnitude was not to be expected. The unfortunate indisposition of his majesty happened soon after their rejection of the commercial propositions. This event was no sooner known in Ireland, than the rage of theoretical innovation and all the angry passions which had agitated the minds of parties, were rekindled; as if on the watch for an object of sufficient force to set them in motion, they eagerly laid hold of the opportunity afforded them by the question of the regency to exhibit a practical proof of their newly acquired independence, and perhaps indirectly to point at other aims, which at that period were not ripe for development.

Our limits do not permit us to enter into a detail of the measures adopted on this occasion; but we may shortly observe, that the conduct of the Irish parliament in the whole of this business is strongly marked by precipitation and violence, and that the arguments by which the leaders in both houses supported their views, were such as in their ultimate application evidently tended to break the connection betwixt the two kingdoms; that this project had been already conceived is by no means improbable. Mr Fitzgibbon the attorney general firmly and strenuously opposed the measures of the majority in parliament, contending for the constitutional connection betwixt the two kingdoms, and concluded his speech by this solemn and almost prophetic warning, that if the two houses of parliament should in a moment of phrenzy, sacrifice their connection with the crown in pursuit of paradoxical phantoms, they might perhaps live to see Ireland once more indebted for the restoration of her civil and religious liberties, to a British army. But while these matters were drawing to a conclusion, their necessity was superseded by the sudden and unexpected recovery of the King, and thus the immediate cause of the dissentions and divisions being removed, a temporary calm was produced.

But the discontented and turbulent spirits of the people of Ireland were now and had been for some time past in such a state of continual agitation and ferment, that no tranquillity was lasting; the fire of political discord sometimes ceased to blaze, but the smoke-
ing embers were ever ready to burst forth into a flame, upon the smallest communication with any inflammable matter. Such was the state of the Irish nation at the breaking out of the French Revolution. It is not, therefore, surprising that the dreadful explosion which nearly set Europe on fire, should have almost destroyed that country. The principles of those who overthrown the old government of France, have been justly considered as the signal for revolt to the discontented, to the unprincipled, and to the profligate of all nations. In Britain they spread with rapidity, and their progress at one time was so considerable, and the evident intentions of the faction so alarming, as to excite no small degree of apprehension and terror; but the firmness of the executive government, supported by the good sense and energy of the British nation, carried us nobly through the storm. In Ireland these principles took an immediate and firm hold of the minds of the people; enflamed by political speculation, and irritated by groundless jealousies and discontents, they were urged into the very last stage of crime with a precipitation, which but among that people whose example they designed to copy, has no parallel.

It appears, that soon after the French revolution a conspiracy was formed in Ireland, whose aim was to overthrow the constitution and government of the country, to separate Ireland from Great Britain, and to establish a republic after the example of France, on the destruction of all religious establishments, the abolition of ranks, and the confiscation of property. The most efficient engine of this treasonable combination was the society of United Irishmen. This society was established in the year 1791; for some time their attention was entirely directed to the engaging into their society persons of activity and talents; and the subject of parliamentary reform, either as a step to the attainment of their ultimate object, or as a cover to their real designs, was again revived and prosecuted with redoubled energy and vigour; affiliated clubs and societies were spread over the whole country, writings of the most flagitious and treasonable tendency were circulated with indefatigable perseverance, and the lower classes, who in that country are sunk in the most deplorable ignorance, were in this manner trained to be instruments of the most diabolical barbarity. No efforts were left untried for bringing their designs to maturity, and for giving to the societies the strength and consistency of a revolutionary army; every mean was employed, which malignant cunning could devise, for eradicating from the minds of the people all the principles either of public or private duty; they incited the soldier to betray his king; they armed the tenant against his landlord; and they taught the servant to conspire with the assassin of his master; thus blasting the repose and security of private life in its very sanctuary, and effacing every law of truth, justice, and gratitude. Nor was any artifice omitted, which could either weaken or embarrass the government; the well affected were intimidated from joining the yeomanry corps; magistrates, witnesses, jurors, in a word, every class and description of people, who ventured to support the laws, were immediately marked for destruction, and the barbarous assassinations perpetrated by murderers, who issued from their dens during the darkness of midnight, sparing neither sex nor age, spread terror and dismay over the whole face of this miserable and distracted country.

In the summer 1796, great numbers had enrolled themselves; and about this period a direct communication with the enemy was opened by the heads of the party, and French assistance was solicited and promised to be speedily sent to aid the disaffected in that kingdom; directions were in consequence issued by the leaders of the societies, to form themselves into military bodies, and to be provided with arms and ammunition; these directions were speedily obeyed; the societies assumed a military form, and it appears by the original papers seized at Belfast on April 1797, that their numbers at that period, in the province of Ulster alone, amounted to nearly 100,000.

An agent was soon after sent to the French directory, acquainting them with their preparations; this agent from various channels of information appears to have been the late lord Fitzgerald, who, accompanied by Mr O'Conner, proceeded to Switzerland, and had an interview near the French frontier with general Hoche, on which occasion every thing was settled with a view to the invasion.
About October 1796, an accredited messenger arrived from the French republic, who came to communicate to the leaders of the Irish union the intention of the French, speedily to invade Ireland with fifteen thousand men and a great quantity of arms and ammunition; this attempt was accordingly made in December following, when the French fleet took advantage of a thick fog and escaped from Brest unobserved by admiral Colpoys, who had been blocking them up for several months; meeting with violent storms in their passage, the fleet was dispersed, and, on the 24th, part of them, consisting of eight two deckers and nine of different classes, anchored in Bantry bay; the fury of the tempest rendering any attempt to land impossible; they quitted their station on the 27th in the evening; an officer and seven men were driven on shore in a boat belonging to one of the French ships; this gentleman upon examination, stated that the fleet upon its leaving Brest consisted of about fifty sail, having on board 25,000 men, commanded by general Hoche, and that it was destined to attack Ireland. The appearance of this armament excited a considerable degree of alarm in Ireland, but the greatest loyalty manifested itself throughout this part of the kingdom, and every demonstration was given of their zeal and ardour to oppose the enemy wherever it could be supposed a descent would be attempted.

The effects of the union had not so fully extended themselves at that time to this part of the kingdom, a defect which the leaders afterwards took care to supply. During the summer of 1797, very extensive preparations were made both at the Texel and at Brest for a second attempt; and in the autumn, intelligence was received by the executive of the union, that the troops were actually embarked in the Texel, and only waited the wind; their designs were again frustrated by the glorious and ever memorable victory of lord Duncan over the Dutch fleet on the 11th October 1797. The communication betwixt the directory of France and the Irish executive was still kept up, and assurances were still given that succours might be expected. In the mean time the most active and vigorous measures were pursued against the conspirators; a bill was passed prohibiting seditious meetings; another, commonly called the inscription act, by which the lord lieutenant and council were enabled, upon the requisition of seven magistrates of any county, to proclaim the whole or any part thereof to be in a state of disturbance, and within those limits this law was to operate; and by another the habeas corpus act was suspended, and the yeomanry established.

But such was the boldness of the conspirators, that in defiance of the additional energy of the executive government, the same system of outrage and opposition to the laws, which had been so successfully made use of the former year in Ulster, was now very generally extended over all the southern and midland counties, and every exertion was made to give strength to the conspiracy, and by an active system of terror to compel the people to look for protection to the union rather than to the laws. Our limits do not permit us to enter into a detail of the enormities committed on the peaceable and well affected inhabitants, nor could we shock the feelings of the humane reader by a recital of barbarities attended with such circumstances of unrelenting cruelty as must entail everlasting disgrace upon the Irish nation. It will be sufficient to say, that in the months of February and March, many parts of the provinces of Leinster and Munster were actually in possession of a murderous banditti, and no night passed without the commission of numerous murders, several districts in these provinces had been proclaimed under martial law, but this measure proved ineffectual, and great numbers of the loyal inhabitants of the counties of Cork, Limerick, Tipperary, Kilkenny, Carlow, King's county, Queen's county, Kildare, and Wicklow, were in the course of one night stripped of their arms, and obliged to fly for shelter into the garrison towns. Under those alarming circumstances, on the 30th March, the lord lieutenant issued a proclamation, stating that the traitorous conspiracy, which had long existed within this kingdom, had broken out into acts of open rebellion, and giving notice that the most direct and positive orders were given to the officers commanding his majesty's forces, to employ them with the utmost vigour and decision for its suppression, and for disarming the rebels, and all persons disaffected to his majesty's government, by the most summary and effectual methods; the promptitude and energy with which these orders were executed, were attended with such effects in dissolving the union and disconcerting the views of the conspiracy, that
it became evident to the generality of the leaders, that they had now no other alternative than to rise at once or abandon their designs. The arrest of the Leinster committee on the 12th March, with several other leading members of the union on the same day, had likewise so much exposed the traitors in all their unhallowed labyrinths of iniquity, and tended so much to weaken their organization, that they were precipitated into a desperate effort before their designs were fully ripe for execution. A plan was accordingly digested by the military committee for a general rising, which was to take place on the 29th of May. Government were perfectly informed of the intentions of the conspirators, and caused several of the leaders to be apprehended on the 19th and 21st; and late in the evening of that day, the approaching insurrection was announced to the lord mayor, and on the following day a message to the same effect was sent by the lord lieutenant to both houses of parliament.

Notwithstanding the military precautions that were adopted to counteract the insurrection, it took place in the neighbourhood of Dublin on the night appointed; the measures taken in the metropolis prevented any disturbance there. They attacked the town of Naas in considerable force, but were repulsed by the Armagh militia and ancient British light dragoons with great slaughter; several other engagements took place in that part of the country, in all of which the rebels were defeated and put to flight, and great numbers killed. On the 28th intelligence was received that the insurrection was spreading southward, and had broke out in great force in the county of Wexford; their numbers were then stated to amount to 4000 at least, and a great many of them mounted. Here their principal strength seemed to be collected, after they were broken and dispersed in every other quarter; their numbers at last amounting by the best accounts to near 15,000.

Our limits do not permit us to enter into a detail of the military operations against this formidable force; it is sufficient for us to say, that the rebels, after having been defeated at Enniscorthy by general Lake, and in the neighbourhood of Wexford by brigadier general Moore, evacuated the town, which was immediately entered by the king’s troops without opposition. The rebels who escaped from Wexford, in different places, attempted to make a stand, and collect the scattered remains of their adherents, but such was the activity and energy of the officers and soldiers, that all their endeavours were frustrated; they were attacked, defeated, and dispersed, in all quarters, and tranquillity began gradually to be restored.

About the end of August, some frigates and transports from France appeared in Killala-bay, and landed about 1000 men, with a considerable quantity of arms and ammunition. As the strength of the rebellion was now broken, the numbers who joined them were not considerable, and on the eighth of September being attacked by general Lake, they surrendered at discretion; the rebels who had joined them were dispersed, and a great proportion of them killed or taken. Another effort was made by the French to support, or rather to rekindle the flames of rebellion in Ireland. On the 17th of September, a fleet sailed from France, destined for that country, consisting of a ship of eighty guns, eight heavy frigates, a schooner, and a brig; these ships were all entirely new, full of troops and stores, with every thing necessary for the establishment of their views; on the 11th of October, this fleet was discovered by the squadron under Sir J. B. Warren, who immediately gave chase; next morning he came up with them, attacked and defeated them; the whole fleet, except one or two frigates, was captured. This blow, it is to be presumed, has put a period to all the hopes entertained by the French government, of making themselves masters of Ireland by a co-operation with the traitors of that kingdom. Bands of banditti continued for some time after this to infest the country, particularly the county of Wexford; property to a great amount was in a short time destroyed, in the plunder of houses and houghing of cattle; scarce a night passed in which groups of 50 or 60 of these miscreants did not assemble in the horrible occupation of burning, murdering, and plundering, the industrious and well affected inhabitants; but, by the vigilance and activity of the troops, they were pursued to their lurking holes, and either dispersed, taken, or destroyed.

Such has been the termination, as we sincerely hope it will turn out to be, of a conspiracy no less atrocious than alarming; whether we consider the diabolical designs of
the traitors, the secrecy with which they conducted their infernal operations, or the wide diffusion of those wicked principles by which they effected the corruption of the mass of the people, setting them loose from every political and moral restraint, and rendering them the active instruments of an unprincipled and desperate band, in a system of wickedness without a parallel.

That men of weak understandings, or such as had not properly attended to the principles upon which the French revolution was conducted, should at first be led away with the specious theories of the philosophers, may admit of some excuse; but when, during the space of ten years, ruin and destruction have continued to overwhelm and desolate that unfortunate and devoted country; when their mild and gracious sovereign has been sacrilegiously murdered; his royal consort and family, the heroic partners of his cruel and protracted sufferings, put to an ignominious death; the clergy and nobility, with almost every gentleman of landed property, either massacred, robbed, or banished; the citizens of her most flourishing and prosperous cities fallen victims to the unfeeling and diabolical barbarity of systematic assassins; their wives and daughters sacrificed to the brutal lust of their destroyers; themselves either perishing by the hand of the executioner, or collected in the public squares without distinction of sex or age, and slaughtered by thousands, or doomed to languish in hopeless misery, in noisome and pestilential dungeons; in short, after such a long, unbroken, melancholy train of woes following one upon another in France, we cannot too strongly execrate the designs of those wretches who had conspired to reduce their principles to practice in this happy country, and to pollute those sacred abodes of peace, and of prosperity, with blood and massacre. Our warmest gratitude is due to the supreme disposer of all things, whose protecting care hath defended us from the machinations of our enemies, and averted the dreadful calamity which impended over Britain; and after him to the vigilance of the executive government, to the activity of the army, and to the zealous co-operation of his majesty's loyal and affectionate subjects.

The consolidation of the empire by the union of Ireland with Great Britain, seemed now to be the only thing still wanting to complete our security. This subject was laid before the British house of commons by Mr Pitt; his speech on this occasion was eloquent, perspicacious, and argumentative; with his usual firmness and accuracy he completely refuted all the calumnies, the misrepresentations, and false assertions, of its opponents, both as to the principle of the measure, the terms to be proposed for adoption, and the means of carrying it into execution; by the opposition it was combated with their usual candour, but, after undergoing an ample discussion, it received the approbation of a great majority in both houses. When the subject came to be considered in the Irish parliament, its reception was such as was unworthy of a deliberative body; adversity, it appeared, had not yet calmed their furious spirits, and on this occasion they distinguished themselves by a renewal of the same intemperate violence which had characterised their debates on former occasions; dazzled and bewildered by a phantom, they were incapable of truly perceiving and appreciating a subject of such magnitude, in all its bearings and relations.

When two countries exist as separate and independent nations under the same sovereign, the question respecting the expediency of a complete legislative union, abstractly considered, seems to be attended with no difficulties, nor to admit of any doubt. Among the important benefits that may naturally be expected to flow from such a measure, may be reckoned an increase of energy and vigour, a consolidation of strength and resources, a perfect coincidence of views and interests, and the gradual decay of all national preference and distinction, by which animosities are produced and fomented. The circumstances must therefore be very strong which can justify a conclusion against its expediency, and more so which can warrant its total and complete reprobation; but so far was this measure in its particular application to Great Britain and Ireland from being attended with any such circumstances, that the situation of both countries had rendered it absolutely necessary for their mutual preservation and prosperity; and clearly pointed it out as the only barrier which could be opposed to the efforts of our inveterate foes, and the only means by which their ceaseless machinations to effect the separation of both countries, could be effectually counteracted. The rancorous severity,
IRELAND.

therefore, with which it was opposed in the Irish parliament, when first submitted to their consideration, must appear highly reprehensible; far from making use of sober argument and sound reasoning, or entering into a cool investigation of a subject of such high importance, their speeches were mere declamatory harangues, much better fitted to inflame the passions, than to direct or enlighten the understanding.

Though this indecent warmth had during the recess of parliament in some degree abated, and great part of the country, listening to the voice of sober reason and sound sense, now viewed the measure with approbation, it nevertheless continued to be condemned by the opposite party with that intemperate violence of which in the former session they had exhibited so disgraceful an example. On the motion for the address in the Irish parliament, the subject was introduced by Sir L. Parsons: his speech was distinguished by its violent abuse of the measure, which he considered as a plan of the British minister to enslave Ireland, to deprive her of her constitution, and to subject that kingdom to the unlimited control of the British parliament; and he concluded with a motion, whose tendency, had it been carried, was to shut the door against all future discussion of this subject, and thereby bring upon the legislature the disgrace of having acted so unworthy of a deliberative body as to refuse even to take under their consideration a measure of the highest importance to the security and happiness of both countries.

He was answered by Lord Castlereagh, who in a forcible and eloquent speech shewed that the whole of the honourable baronet's declamation, if it proved any thing at all, tended to prove this absurd position, that it never could be consistent with the liberties of two independent nations to unite under any form of government whatever; that his reasoning tended to shake to the very foundation that connexion between Great Britain and Ireland, which he affected so highly to prize, as superseding the necessity of a legislative union; that the question had gone abroad among the people; that it had occupied a portion of every man's thoughts; and involving as it did the liberties and security of the country, could not now be allowed to rest without the most ample and deliberate discussion; that their own honour and their duty to their constituents imperiously demanded this of them, as well as respect for the common sovereign of both countries, who had recommended this important subject to their consideration.

Towards the close of the debate Mr Grattan entered, and soon after rose and addressed the house on the subject; it is almost unnecessary to say that his speech was distinguished by its rancour and virulence against the British government, and by a complete reprobation of the measure, and this in such language as had a direct tendency to rekindle the flames of discontent and rebellion. The amendment of Sir L. Parsons was rejected by a majority of 42, and a call of the house was moved for by Lord Castlereagh on Wednesday 5th February, for the purpose of laying before them a message from his majesty on that subject. When the house met, he accordingly stated that he had it in command from his majesty to say before them the resolutions of the British parliament upon the subject of a more intimate union of the two countries, and to express his majesty's earnest recommendation, that they would take these resolutions into their serious consideration: The message concluded with expressing his majesty's firm reliance on the wisdom of his parliament and the loyalty of his people for the completion of such a system as will establish the power of the empire on a foundation not to be shaken either by foreign or domestic enemies. Lord Castlereagh then opened the plan of the union, consisting of eight articles, in a speech of great length and detail: a very warm debate ensued, which was prolonged to a very late hour, when the house divided, and there appeared a majority of forty three in favour of the union, the numbers being 158 and 115.

The house then in a committee entered upon the consideration of the particular articles, to which a considerable opposition continued to be made, but they were all carried in both houses without any material alteration, and an address presented to his majesty, stating, that in conformity to the message of his excellency, they had taken into their consideration the subject of a legislative union, and had agreed to the resolutions which accompanied the address; that sensible of the efforts of the common enemy to separate the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, and thereby to overthrow the
empire, they cordially embraced the principle of a legislative union, as the surest protection against the intrigues of foreign and domestic enemies, and the firmest pledge for the strength and the integrity of the empire. On the 2d of April, lord Grenville in the house of Lords, and Mr Pitt in the house of commons, brought a message from the king, informing them, that he felt the most sincere satisfaction in communicating to them the joint address of the Lords and Commons of Ireland, laying before his majesty certain resolutions containing the terms proposed by them for an entire union of the two kingdoms, and earnestly recommending to both houses to take all such future steps as might tend to the speedy execution of a work so interesting to the security and happiness of his subjects in both kingdoms. This message was referred to the consideration of a committee of the whole house. As the principle of the measure had been fully discussed in the former session, little opposition was made to the house going into a committee. The several articles, after undergoing a most ample and deliberate discussion, were all agreed to with very little alteration, and then reported to the house.

The resolutions were also carried in the house of lords; a few alterations were suggested which were agreed to by the commons, and an address presented to his majesty by both houses, expressing of their concurrence in the object recommended by his majesty's message. The resolutions, as amended by the British parliament, were then laid before the parliament of Ireland; and received their approbation, and an address to that purpose was presented to the lord lieutenant. A bill was then brought in, founded upon the articles of union, as agreed upon by the parliament of Great Britain and Ireland. This bill, after encountering even in this last stage a considerable degree of opposition, was finally passed in both houses. A similar bill was brought into the British parliament by Mr Pitt and lord Grenville, which passed without much opposition, and soon after both bills received the royal assent.

Thus has that great measure of imperial policy been accomplished, which there is reason to hope will, in an eminent degree, contribute to the strength and prosperity of the empire, and render it impregnable against all the attempts of enemies either to subvert or divide its power. England, Scotland, and Ireland, will therefore now form a triple cord which no man can break, the firm guarantees of each others being and each others rights;

Dum domus Æneas Caput sæculi immobile saxum
Accolat; et imperium Pater Romanus habebit.

We shall conclude this short narrative with a brief summary of the principal articles of the union as adopted by both kingdoms.

1st, The kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland shall, on and ever after the 1st day of January 1801, be united into one kingdom, to be styled the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

2d, The succession to the imperial crown shall remain limited and settled in the same manner as it now stands in the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland.

3d, The united kingdom shall be represented in one and the same parliament.

4th, The peerage of Ireland shall be represented in the house of lords of the united kingdom, by 28 temporal peers, who shall be chosen for life, and by four spiritual lords by rotation of sessions; any peer of Ireland shall be capable of being elected a member of the house of commons, provided that so long as he shall serve in the house of commons, he shall not be capable of being elected as a peer, or be qualified to vote at the election of any peer, and that he shall be liable to be tried as a commoner; for every three Irish peerages that may become extinct, the king may create one, till the whole peerage be reduced to 100, below which number it is not to be reduced.

One hundred commoners shall be the number of representatives for Ireland in the house of commons of the united kingdom.

For the space of 20 years after the union shall take place, the contribution of Great Britain and Ireland respectively towards the expenditure of the united kingdom in each year, shall be defrayed in the proportion of 15 parts for Great Britain and 2 for Ireland; at the expiration of that period, the future expenditure of the united kingdoms, other than the interest and charge of the debt incurred before the union, shall be defrayed in such proportion as the united parliament shall deem just and reasonable.
HAVING gone over the British Isles, we shall now return to the Continent, beginning with the extensive and mighty kingdom of France, being the nearest to England, though part of Germany and Poland lies to the northward of France.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

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Containing 160,374 square miles, with 155 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES. It is bounded by the English Channel and the Netherlands on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, East; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, South; and by the Bay of Biscay, West.

DIVISIONS. The ancient provinces of this kingdom have been divided by the national assembly into 83 departments, as follows.

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* France, nearly a square, is divided into 83 DEPARTMENTS, including Corsica. Every department is subdivided into districts, in all 547; and each district into CANTONS. The above are the chief towns of each department, and also the districts.
NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Franks, or Freemen, a German nation, restless and enterprising, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants; and the Roman force not being able to repress them, they were permitted to settle in the country by treaty. By its situation, it is the most compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpose both of power and commerce, and since the beginning of the 12th century the inhabitants have availed themselves of many of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholesome; but some late authors think it is not nearly so salubrious as is pretended; and it must be acknowledged, that the French have been but too successful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain false prepossessions in favour of their own country. It must indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and settled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intensely cold, and the inhabitants not so well supplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent soil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almost every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than those of England; but neither the pasturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, so that it has no verdure, and the soil barely produces as much rye and chesnuts as serve to subsist the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French soil is, that the inhabitants, having but a precarious security in their own property, do not apply themselves sufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. But nature has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vast plenty.

Notwithstanding great efforts made in agriculture, much of the land remains uncultivated; and though some provinces, as Alsace and Languedoc, yield an exuberance of corn, it is frequently imported. Indeed all Europe, one year with another, does not produce sufficient corn for its own consumption, and it is necessary to have supplies from the luxuriant harvest of America.

The French have of late endeavoured to supply the loss arising from their precarious title to their lands, by instituting academies of agriculture, and proposing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but those expedients, however successful they may be in particular instances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the husbandman is sure of enjoying the fruit of his labour, which is far from being the case in the present distracted state of the country. No nation is better supplied than France is with wholesome springs and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent use by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniences of life. Of their canals and mineral waters, distinct notice will be hereafter taken.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vauge, which divides Lorrain from Burgundy and Alsace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compté from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor in the province of Auvergne.
Rivers and Lakes.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north west, being, with all its windings, from its source to the sea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on the south-west to Lyons, and then runs on due south till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course, first north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, soon after its rise, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English Channel at Havre. To these we may add the Somme, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises near Havre de Grace, and discharges itself into the Bay of Biscay at Rochefort. The Rhine, which rises in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Sarte in its passage. The Somme, which runs north-west through Picardy, and falls into the English Channel below Abbeville. The Var, which rises in the Alps, and runs south, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice. The Adour runs from east to west, through Gascony, and falls into the Bay of Biscay below the Bayonne.

The vast advantages, both in commerce and conveniency, which arise to France from those rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and completed in 1680; it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the speedier passage of the French fleet; but though it was carried on at an immense expense for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not answered that purpose. By the canal of Calais, travellers easily pass by water from thence to St Omer, Gravelines, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a course of eighteen leagues, to the immense benefit of the public and the revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpressibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomless. There is another at Issoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Besse, in which if you throw a stone, it causes a noise like thunder.

Mineral Waters, and Remarkable Springs.] The waters of Bareges, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The best judges think, however, that the cures performed by them are more owing to their accidental success, with some great persons, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alsace are said to cure the palsy, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagués, not far from Bareges, are several wholesome minerals and baths, to which people resort as to the English baths, at spring and autumn. Forges in Normandy is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St Amand cure the gravel and obstructions. It would be endless to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, as well as many remarkable springs; but there is one near Aigne, in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noise like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taste, but has a poisonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die instantly.

Metals and Minerals.] France has many unworked mines, which would be very productive, if duly attended to, but at present do not yield minerals sufficient for consumption; steel alone is imported to the annual value of 125,000l. Languedoc is said to contain views of gold and silver. Alsace has mines of silver and copper, but they are too expensive to be wrought. Alabaster, black marble, jasper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. Salt-petre is made in every part of the kingdom, and sea-salt is now procured free from the oppressive duty, but not remarkable for its purity. At Laveran, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which serves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the best drab cloth; and in the province of Anjou are several quarries of fine white stone. Some excellent turquoises (the
only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and freestone open all over the kingdom.

**Vegetable and Animal Productions, by Sea and Land.** France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for soups than those of England. As to all kinds of seasoning and Ballard they are more plentiful, and in some places better than in England; they being next to their vines, the chief object of their culture.

France produces excellent fruits of all kinds, particularly grapes, figs, prunes, chestnuts, and especially the Pyrenean mountains, supply it plentifully with timber and other wood. Silk is so plentifully produced, besides what is imported, as to afford a considerable trade. The cattle and horses are neither very numerous nor very good, but it has many flocks of fine sheep; yet so great is the consumption, that both sheep and wool are imported. The province of Gastenois produces great quantities of saffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gascony, and other provinces of France, are so well known, that they need only be mentioned. It is sufficient to observe, that though they differ very sensibly in their taste and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly those of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontagne, Hermitage, and Frontignac; and there are few constitutions, be they ever so valetudinary, to which some one or other of them is not adapted.

Wine, the staple, is made to the value of 15,000,000l. annually, more than an eighth part of which, besides brandy and vinegar, is exported. Olive oil is made in large quantities, particularly in the provinces next to the Mediterranean; but the consumption is so great, that much of it is imported from Italy: the inferior sorts supplies the soap manufactories, of which there are thirty-six at Marseilles.

Oak, elm, ash, and other timber common in England, is found in France; but it is said that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of salt is made at Rhée, and about Rochefort on the coast of Santoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which when burnt makes excellent barilla, or potashes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at present far inferior to the English bot; in the management and dispositions of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horses, black cattle, and sheep, are far inferior to the English; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine. The hair and skin of the chamois, or mountain goat, are more valuable than those of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and those of England, but that the former is not so well served, even on the sea coasts, with salt water fish. There is a considerable fishery, and one for anchovies to the amount of 83,000l. besides more important fisheries upon the coasts of America and Newfoundland.

**Forests.** The chief forests of France are those of Orleans, which contains 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, ash, &c. and the forest of Fontainbleau near as large; and near Morchismoir is a forest of tall, straight timber, of 4000 trees. Besides these, large numbers of woods, some of them deserving the name of forests, lie in different provinces; but too remote from sea carriage to be of much national utility.

**Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.** According to the most authentic calculations, it is not probable that France before the revolution contained above 24,000,000 of inhabitants; at present its population must be reduced greatly below that number, by internal murders, and by the long, destructive and bloody wars she has since carried on. It was formerly supposed, by some speculative men, that the population of France had for many years been upon the decline; but, upon an accurate investigation, the reverse appeared to be fact; though this country certainly lost a great number of valuable inhabitants, by the revocation of the edict of Nantes. 

* In the year 1589, Henry IV., who was a protestant, and justly styled the Great, after fighting his way to the crown of France, passed the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to the Protestants the free
The French, in their persons, are rather lower than their neighbours: but they are well-proportioned and active, and more free than other nations, in general, from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their sprightly wit than personal beauty; the peasantry in general, are remarkably ordinary, and are best described by being contrasted with women of the same rank in England.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the subject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character; and they are perhaps the only people ever hard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakness. It supports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inspires other nations.

The French affect freedom and wit; but fashionable dresses and diversions engross too much of their conversation. Their diversions are much the same with those of the English, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into gross foppery in the men, and in the ladies is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexes are seldom attended with that criminality which, to people not used to their manners, they seem to indicate; nor are the husbands so indifferent, as we are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are excessively credulous and religious; but of all the people in the world they bear adversity and reduction of circumstances with the best grace; though in prosperity many of them are apt to be insolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious.

The French have been much censured for insincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their excess of civility, which throws a suspicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have certainly many amiable characters, and a great number of instances of generosity and disinterestedness may be found amongst them.

It is doing the French no more than justice to acknowledge, that, as they are themselves polite, so they have given a polish to the ferocious manners, and even virtues of other nations. They long possessed the lead in taste, fashion, and dress; but since their revolution they have lost that influence.

Dress.] The French dress of both sexes is so well known, that it is needless to expatiate upon them here; but indeed, their dress in cities and towns is so variable, that it is next to impossible to describe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their constantly changing their fashions is of infinite service to their manufactures. With regard to the English, they possess one capital superiority, which is, that the clothes of both sexes, and their ornaments, are at least one third cheaper.

Religion.] The first national assembly in their new constitution retained the Roman Catholic religion in France, allowing religious liberty to all other sects. By the laws of that constitution, no man was to be molested for his opinions, nor interrupted in the exercise of his religion. The territorial possessions of the Gallican church were claimed as national property, and disposed of through the medium of a paper money called assignats, for the creditors of the state; and the clergy made dependent upon pensionary establishments paid out of the national treasury; out of which also were paid the expenses of worship, the religious, and the poor. All monastic establishments were suppressed; but the friars and nuns were allowed to observe their vows, and nuns optionally to remain in their convents, or to retire upon pensions.

The clergy were elective by the people, and took an oath to observe the laws of the new constitution *. They notified to the bishop of Rome their union in doctrine, but paid

exercise of their religion; but his edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the succeeding persecutions, drove the people to England, Holland, and other Protestant countries, where the silk manufacture, to the great prejudice of the country that persecuted them.

* Many of the clergy, called refractory priests, from a conscientious refusal of this oath, have been ejected from their benefices, and many of the popular curates made bishops.
him no fees, nor acknowledged any subordination to his authority. They were supplied with lodgings upon their living, whereon they were obliged to reside and perform the duties of their office. They voted as active citizens, and were eligible to some lay offices in the districts, but to no principal ones.

The whole country was divided into nine metropolitan circles, had a metropolitan bishop with a synod in each, besides one for Paris. The metropolitan bishop was confirmed by the eldest bishop in his circle. Appeals were made from the bishops to these synods.

A bishop was appointed to each of the eighty-three departments, which formed so many dioceses. They were appointed by the electoral assembly of the department, and confirmed by the metropolitan bishop, but must have held an ecclesiastical office fifteen years. The salaries were from 500£ to 840£ per annum. Each diocese had also a seminary, with three vicars, and a vicar-general to prepare students for holy orders, and these vicars formed a council for the bishop.

But this new constitution of the church was of short duration; it seems to have been only a preparatory step to what soon after followed, the absolute proscription of the Christian religion. There is no doubt but the party which has been ultimately victorious in France, had this in view from the beginning of the revolution, as well as the destruction of the monarchy; at present, therefore, there is no established religion in that country*. In their public shows and festivals the people have been accustomed to witness the most shocking indignities committed both against natural and revealed religion; and if the success of their rulers is proportionate to the ardour of their zeal, all regard to either will be banished from the minds of that people.

France contains more than two millions of non-catholics; and the protestants, who are greatly increasing, are in proportion to the catholics, as one to twelve. There are already many regular congregations; viz. German Lutherans, French and Swiss Calvinists, Bohemian Anabaptists, and Walloon or Flemish Dissidents, besides many chapels for the ambassadors. It also contains many Jews.

**Language.** One of the wisest measures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every proposal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He succeeded so far as to render it the most universal of all the living tongues; a circumstance that tended equally to his greatness and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the school of arts, sciences, and politeness. The French language, at present, is chiefly composed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay; its corner stones, fixed under Lewis XIV., are as it were loosened; and in the present mode of writing and expressing themselves, the modern French abandon that grammatical standard, which alone can render a language classical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the English; but they are well adapted to subjects void of elevation or passion. It is well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common conversation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Notre Père qui es aux cieux, ton nom soit sanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté soit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous aujourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offenses. Et ne nous induis point en tentation, mais nous délivre du mal: car à toi est le regne, la puissance et la gloire, aux siecles des siecles. Amen.*

**Learning and learned men.** The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immersed in barbarity. The first learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which improves the understanding, corrects the taste, or regulates the affections. It consisted in a subtle and quibbling logic, which was mere adapted to pervert than improve the faculties. But the study of the Greek and Roman writers, which first arose in Italy, diffused itself among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary pursuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to the French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, who greatly distinguished themselves by their writings; among whom were Budeus, Clement

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* Bonnarte restored the public exercise of the Roman Catholic religion in 1801.
Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens are also mentioned by every real scholar with respect. It was not, however, till the seventeenth century that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Académie Française was formed for this purpose: and though their labours, considered as a body, were not so successful as might have been expected, some particular academicians have done great service to letters. In fact, literary copartnerships are seldom very successful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the present case. The academy published a dictionary for improving the French language; it was universally despised. Furetiers, a single academician, publishes another: it meets with universal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Augustus of France. The protection he gave to letters, and the pensions he bestowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterprises upon which he expended so many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deservedly obtained a very high reputation; the first was distinguished for skill in moving the passions; the second for majesty; and both, for the strength and justness of their painting, the elegance of their taste, and their strict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhausted the subjects of comedy, were they not everywhere inexhaustible, and particularly in France. In the works of satire and criticism, Boileau, who was a close imitator of the ancients, possessed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakespeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our superiors: Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Massillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to surpass. The genius, however, of their religion and government is extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the most useful branches of philosophy. All the establishments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of science, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whose interest is to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and ministry, who have an equal interest in concealing the natural rights of mankind, and every sound principle of government. The French have not, therefore, so many good writers on moral, religious, or political subjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced some great men who do honour to humanity; whose career no obstacle could stop, whose freedom no government however despotic, no religion however supersitious, could curb or restrain. As an historian, De Thou is entitled to the highest praise; and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of the Archbishop of Cambray? Few men have done more service to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he is an honour to human nature; he is the legislator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and wherever they go they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And, indeed, several writers have lately appeared in France, whose writings breathe such sentiments of liberty, as did but ill accord with an arbitrary government; sentiments which have made rapid progress among men of letters, and persons in the higher ranks of life, and which there can be no doubt have been one considerable cause in producing the late important revolution.

In the Belles Lettres and miscellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers: among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, and Voltaire, as the most considerable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Descartes was the greatest philosopher in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flourished in the present age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert, the latter of whom, to the precision of a geometer has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the present century the French have almost vieed with the
English in natural philosophy. Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, were he not still more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature; and under this view, his Natural History is the first work of its kind.

Their painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at present to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr Greuse, for portraits and conversation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in most other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper-plates have been universally and justly celebrated; but such a liberal patronage has been afforded to English artists, that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them also in the manufacture of paper proper for such impressions. Their treatises on ship-building and engineering stand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the English.

No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our superiors in architecture; though we now bid fair for surpassing them in this art.

We shall conclude this head with observing, that the French have now finished the Encyclopédie, or general dictionary of arts and sciences, which was drawn up by the most able masters in each branch of literature, in 28 volumes in folio (six of which are copperplates) under the direction of Messieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is perhaps the most complete collection of human knowledge we are acquainted with.

Universities and Public Colleges.) These literary institutions received a loss by the expulsion of the Jesuits, who made the languages, arts, and sciences, their particular study, and taught them all over France. Before the revolution there were in France twenty-eight universities, which are as follow: Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dijon, Douay, Flèche, Montauban, Montpelier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Mouzon, Richelieu, Rheims, Soissons, Strasbourg, Toulouse, Tournois and Valence. Among these, the Sorbonne at Paris is most celebrated. In consequence, however, of the revolution every thing was changed, and even the best institutions under the monarchy were subverted or annulled, with the exception of the French college in Paris, which has undergone no change. In their stead have been substituted Primary Schools, which answer to uncommon ones, where reading, writing, and arithmetic, are taught. There are many private schools erected in Paris, the object of which is to prepare youth for the higher classes, so that they may be transplanted from those nurseries to the central seminaries. These private institutions in Paris, are generally conducted in a very proper manner; but so much cannot be said for those in the provincial towns and in the country. Formerly the clergy claimed the exclusive right of instructing youth. The parish priests were allowed lands and houses, but being now deprived of these benefits, they are obliged, as their only means of support, to teach small schools, where the country people pay for the education of their children; but those schools are so little frequented, that the rising generation may be said to grow up without any instruction. Time will prove whether it would not redound more to the advantage of the French nation, to pay more attention to the proper instruction of youth than to the extension of their dominions. Without instruction the rising generation will have to lament the fatal consequences of ignorance, immorality, and unbridled licentiousness. Another institution was likewise established to which they gave the name of Normal schools, to which men of clear understanding only were to be appointed to prepare youth for the higher schools; the teachers from among men of the first talents known only by their discoveries, and by their writings. These schools were raised upon a hasty and unstable foundation, and hence in less than a year they were dissolved. The schools which exist at present are the Central Schools, the Polytechnic schools, and the schools for the public service (Ecoles de Service Publique). The regulations for the public Central schools are as follow. There shall be a central school in each department. The whole of the instructions shall be divided into three parts or sections; drawing, natural history, the ancient and modern languages, shall be taught in the first; mathematics, physics, and chemistry,
in the second; and universal grammar, the fine arts, history, and legislation, in the third. The pupils to be received into the first at the age of twelve, into the second at fourteen, and into the third at sixteen. There shall be a public library in each central school, with a botanic garden, and apparatus of chemical and philosophical instruments. The professors to be examined and chosen by a jury of instruction, and the choice to be confirmed by the departmental administration. A professor cannot be dismissed by the aforesaid administration, unless there be a complaint preferred against him by the jury of instruction, which must be well grounded. The salary of the professor is from 2400 to 3600 francs, also to be paid by the departmental administration. They have besides such a yearly gratuity from each pupil, as the department thinks fit, which seldom exceeds twenty-five francs. The fourth part of the pupils are in general too poor to spare any thing. It is easy to remark that the general rules or laws are very well digested, but the manner in which they are to be obeyed or maintained should have been laid down at the same time. It is to be lamented also that morality is passed over; especially as the public exercise of religion is little encouraged. In the second section the learner from fourteen to sixteen, is instructed in the abstract sciences, which tend very much to sharpen the understanding, and to call forth the latent powers of the mind, and from sixteen to eighteen he is taught to read the best historians. Besides the central schools, they have likewise what they call the Central School of the Four Nations, in which are taught, ancient languages, natural history, drawing, mathematics, experimental philosophy, and chemistry, general grammar and logic, history, legislation, and fine arts. The second central school in Paris is in the Panthéon, formerly the church of Saint Geniviéves. The regulations are entirely the same. Among the teachers in those seminaries, some are known by their literary productions, and those who are not may yet be very well qualified to fill their respective situations. In those departments where universities, colleges, large cloisters, palaces of emigrants, and libraries, were already established, it was easy to establish central schools, but where universities, &c. were wanting, they are not even at this day furnished with central schools. Besides the three central schools in Paris, ninety seven are intended for the departments, of which forty one are established, and forty are not. Different teachers are still wanting in some of which are established. Collections of instruments and libraries are wanting in many. There are no teachers of the foreign languages to be found in any. One teacher is only appointed for Latin and Greek, to which he devotes two hours every day, the age of the pupils being from twelve to fourteen. But in so short a time, pupils of that age cannot be expected to make any great progress in the acquisition of those languages. Many of the philologists in Paris complain that ancient literature is very little attended to, if not quite neglected. Commissioners were appointed to travel through the departments in order to examine, and make a report of the state of the central schools. According to their report, the schools in most places were in a very indifferent state; even some of the teachers knew very little of what they professed, and in most of the departments, the central schools were little sought, and attended by very few.

The next school, but of a higher order, is the Polytechnic school, in the former Palais de Bourbon, where the assembly of five hundred held their sittings in a large hall. The pupils are translated from the central schools, after a preliminary examination, in the elements of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, &c. The number of pupils is settled at 860, who are divided into brigades, twenty to each hall, under the inspection of the teachers, and a visitor or chief inspector, whom they alternately choose from among themselves. In the first class are taught the higher algebra and analytic geometry, together with that part of geometry applicable to perspective and the construction of maps. In the second class is taught the art of laying out roads, erecting bridges, &c., likewise hydrostatics, hydraulics, and mechanics. In the third class is taught fortification, the chemistry of minerals, metallurgy, and mining. The Polytechnic school is kept in very proper order; it contains a good philosophical apparatus, in three rooms on the third story. In the first room are many conveniences for the prosecution of physical and chemical researches. In the second room there is a large collection of mechanical and hydrostatical, optical, astronomical, electrical, and mag-
networks of instruments. The Polytechnic school has a very neat and good library of about ten thousand volumes of the chief works on the different subjects taught in this institution. It is open for the use of pupils some hours every day, and on the decades the whole day. It has likewise two very large and fine chemical laboratories, besides two of inferior extent, and some mechanical work-shops. The director and administrator have lodgings at free cost in the school.

In order to promote agriculture, and extend scientific enquiries, Louis XIV. founded the Academy of Sciences, which comprehended mathematics in all their branches, physics, natural history, chemistry, and medicine; he also established the Academy of Belles Lettres, the Academy of Inscriptions, the Academy of Surgery, and the Academy of Architecture. During the revolution, all preceding monarchical institutions underwent a change, and even the free temples of the sciences were subverted. Upon their ruin was founded the National Institute, which not only comprehends all the branches into which the academies of sciences, and of the belles lettres, were formerly subdivided, but also includes logic, morals, and politics.

Antiquities and curiosities, natural and artificial. Few countries, if we except Italy, can boast of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and consequently, compared to them, those of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a most curious account of the sepulchres of their kings, which have been discovered so far back as Pharaoh; and some of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be seen triumphal arches; but the most entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones; by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vast delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and sacred; some of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itself. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. Nismes, however, exhibits the most valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raised in the Augustan age by the Roman colony of Nismes, to convey a stream of water between two mountains for the use of that city, and is as fresh to this day as Westminster bridge: it consists of three bridges, or tiers of arches, one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 223. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other stupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients, that all streams will rise as high as their heads. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Nismes; but the chief are, the temple of Diana, whose vestiges are still remaining; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the finest and most entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the house erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maison Carrée. The architecture and sculpture of this building are so excellently beautiful, that it enchant's even the most ignorant, and it is still entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in the Rue de la Harpe, may be seen the remains of a palace, or Thermæ, supposed to have been built by the emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, about the year 356, after the same model as the baths of Diocletian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of free-stone and bricks. But the most extraordinary of all artificial curiosities, is the subterraneous cavern at Paris: For the first building of that city, it was necessary to get the stone in the environs; as Paris was enlarged, the streets and suburbs extended to and were built on the ancient quarries from which the stone had been taken, and hence proceed the caverns or frightful cavities which are found under the houses in several quarters of the city. Eight persons lately perished in one of them, a gulf of 150 feet deep, which excited the police and government to cause the buildings of several quarters to be privately propped up. All the suburbs of St James's, Harp-street, and even the street of Tournon, stand upon the ancient quarries, and pillars have been erected to support the weight of the houses; but as the lofty buildings, towers, and steeples, now tell the eye what is seen in the
France.

air, is wanting under the feet, so it would not require a very violent shock to throw back the stones to the places from whence they had been raised.

At Arles in Provence is to be seen an obelisk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and seven feet diameter at the base, and all but one stone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The most particular are in Burgundy and Guienne; and other places, besides the neighbourhood of Nismes, contain magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiny, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty one pounds, containing the story of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general. It would be endless to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

I have already mentioned several remarkable springs and mountains, which may be considered as natural curiosities. Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been also before noticed. There are some subterraneous passages and holes, especially at Saint Aubin in Brittany, and Niom in Dauphiny, really stupendous.

Cities and towns.] These are numerous in France; of which we shall mention only Paris, Lisle, and their principal sea-ports, Brest and Toulon.

Lisle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the most regular and strongest fortification in Europe, and was the master-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garnisoned with above ten thousand regulars; and for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of silk, cambric, and camblets, are very considerable; and its inhabitants amount to about one hundred thousand. Every reader is acquainted with the history of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demolish, but it is still a thorn in the side of the English, by being a harbour for their smugglers, and may now, by an article in the last treaty of peace, be put into what condition the French ministry may please. The rest of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving southward, we come to the Isle of France; the capital of which, and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been so often described, it may appear superfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deserves, to all the capitals in the world, in every respect, not excepting even population. Many of the English have been imposed upon in this point: particularly by the computing from the births and burials within the bills of mortality, which exclude the most populous parishes about London. Another mistake lies in computing from the births and marriages. The number of dissenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not register the births of their children, is amazing; the registers of others are not known by the public; and many of the poorer sort will not afford the small expence of such registering. Another peculiarity existing in London, is, that most of the Londoners, who will afford the expence, when they find themselves consumptive, or otherwise indisposed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris, therefore, where the registers are more exact and accessible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and strict, is far more easily ascertained than that of London; and, by the best accounts, it does not exceed seven or eight hundred thousand, which is far short of London and its contiguous parishes.

Paris is divided into three parts; the City, the University, and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the university and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are shewy, and some of its streets, squares, hotels, hospitals, and churches, superbly decorated with a profusion of paintings, tapestry, images, and statues; but Paris, notwithstanding its boasted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniences of life, and the solid enjoyments of society. Without entering into more minute disquisition, Paris, it must be owned, is the paradise of splendor and dissipation. The tapestry of the Gobe-
lines* is unequalled for beauty and richness. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itself; and the institution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England, or elsewhere. The Thulleries, the palace of Orleans, or as it is called Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are shewn, the royal palace, the king's library, the guild hall, and the hospital for the invalids, are superb to the highest degree. The city of Paris is said to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French noblesse at Paris take up a great deal of room with their courts and gardens; and so do their convents and churches. The streets are very narrow, and the houses very high, many of them seven stories. The houses are built of stone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedness, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half so large as the Thames at London; it is too far distant from the sea for the purposes of navigation, and is not furnished, as the Thames, with vessels or boats of any sort; over it are many stone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The streets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though in reality there is more shew than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of strangers are mostly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and in truth, the greatest part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of strangers that arrive daily, from every nation and quarter of the globe. This ascendency is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, the Gobelins, or manufacture of tapestry, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapness of provisions, excellency of the French wines, and above all, to the purity of the air and climate in France. With all these advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London, in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanliness of their streets, elegance of their houses, especially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is said disagrees with strangers, as do likewise their small wines. In the houses of Paris most of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once a-day. These brick floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party walls of stone, are however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with tester and curtains; but bugs are here a most intolerable nuisance, which frequently oblige strangers to sleep on the floor during the excessive heat in the summer. Their shops are but poorly stored with goods; and the shopkeepers and tradesmen, an indolent, loitering people, seldom make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dress, of velvet cap, silk night gown, and Morocco slippers; but when they intend a visit, or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the resemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contrast between this class of people and those of the same rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do most of the drudgery business of the shop, while the husband loiters about, talks of the great, of fashions and diversions, and the invincible force of their armies. The splendour of the grand Monarque used to be also with them a favourite topic of conversation, previous to the change in their political system. The Parisians, however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is considered as infamous. Bread, and all manner of butcher's meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the summer season, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes and small wine. The Parisians

* One Gob'ei, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the first who settled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the house has retained his name ever since; and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, established that valuable manufactory.
scarcely know the use of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris used to be so well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, seldom happened, and strangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever so uncommon, met with the most polite treatment. The streets are patrolled at night by horse and foot; so judiciously stationed, that no offender can escape their vigilance. They likewise visit the publicans precisely at the hour of twelve at night, to see that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France are under the same excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom; but for the same reason, when robberies do happen, they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, Great Britain excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleasant, and contain a number of fine seats, small towns, and villages; some of them, being scattered on the edges of lofty mountains rising from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The observatory stands 150 toises from the Barrier, on an eminence, and, like the whole of Paris, on a chalky basis. It was built about 1667. The establishment of the Academy of Sciences, and of the observatory at Paris, owe their origin to the anxiety which the great Colbert, minister to Louis XIV. felt for the promotion of the sciences. The observatory was erected by the celebrated French artist Perrault, who has paid more attention to the beauty of the edifice, and to his own fancy as an architect, than to the accommodation of astronomers. The building consists of two very large and high stories; all the floors are in good order, and on the platform or gallery, and under the building, are caves of remarkable depth. The finest front is least seen, as it faces a garden belonging to one of the residing astronomers, so that from the common entrance in Rue St Jaques, the observatory appears to some disadvantage. This establishment was falling into decay during the latter years of the monarchy; at least some of the instruments were so old, that others, suitable to the present state of astronomy and mechanics, had become absolutely necessary. Count Cassini, who was at that time director of the observatory, represented to the government the deficiencies complained of; and had actually begun to make them good. But the revolution took place, Cassini was obliged to quit the observatory, and the building and instruments were greatly injured in the times of terrorism. It is now undergoing a thorough repair, which is much wanted; and it is to be supplied with instruments corresponding to the present perfection of science.

The palace of Versailles, which stands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expensive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furnish, is properly a connection of buildings, each of exquisite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and sublime of that art. The gardens, and water works, (which are supplied by means of prodigious engines, across the Seine at Marli, about three miles distance), are astonishing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a stranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taste and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amusement of that luxurious court which lately occupied them; but some of them are in a shameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanliness.

Brest is a small, but very strong town, upon the English channel, with a most spacious and finely fortified road and harbour, the best and safest in all the kingdom: yet its entrance is difficult by reason of many rocks lying under water. At Brest is a court of admiralty, and academy for sea affairs, docks and magazines for all kinds of naval stores, rope-yards, store-houses, &c. insomuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy of France, and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a sea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour for the reception and protection of the navy. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ships pass from the one into the other, both of them having an outlet into the spacious outer harbour. Its arsenal, established also by that king, has a particular store-house for each ship of war, its guns, cordage, &c. being separately laid up. Here are spacious workshops, for blacksmiths, joiners, carpenters, locksmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of stone,
is 320 toises or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine supplies whatever may be wanting in the particular store-houses, and contains an immense quantity of all kinds of stores, disposed in the greatest order.

**Commerce and Manufactures.** Next to Henry IV, justly styled the Great, the famous Colbert, minister to Lewis XIV., may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure as a trading, as she did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally possess that undaunted perseverance which is necessary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, understand them better. It is to be considered at the same time, that France, by her situation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, must be always possessed of great inland and neighbouring trade.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV., and in the age of his grandson Lewis XIV., the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the Protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to 4000; and their silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Protestants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. Next to Tours and Lyons, Paris, Chatillon, and Nismes, are most celebrated for silk manufactures. France contains 1,500 silk mills, 21,000 looms for stuffs, 12,000 for ribbons and lace, 20,000 for silk stockings, all of which employ two millions of people. They also manufacture gloves and stockings from spider-silk. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and stuffs, more especially at Abbeville, Amiens, and Paris, are said to be now little inferior to those of England, and have greatly injured them, particularly in the Turkish markets, assisted by the clandestine importation of English and Irish wool, and workmen from this country.

In manufactures the French have always been distinguished for their invention, and the English for their superior improvement. Abbeville is famous for cloth, linen, sail, cloth, and soap; Auvergne for fine thread, lace, stuffs, and paper; Nismes for fine serges; Cambray for cambrics; St Quentin for lawns; and Picardy for plate glass.

The districts adjoining the British channel, contain many sheep of the English breed, which are said to degenerate by removal from their native soil.

Besides the infinite advantage arising to her inland commerce, from her rivers, navigable canals, and a connexion with two seas, her foreign trade may be said to extend itself all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether France was a loser by its cession of Canada and part of Louisiana at the late peace. But the most valuable part of Hispanicola in the West Indies, which she possesses by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a most improvable acquisition, and the most valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the West Indies, she likewise possesses the most important sugar islands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, St Lucia, St Bartholomew, Deseda, and Marigalante. Her possessions in North America are only a small tract upon the Mississippi.

The French possessions in the East Indies were never very considerable; and what territory they had is now in the possession of the English. Before the revolution her trade is thus described by Mr Anderson: 'Her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, through Metz and Strasbourg—To the Netherlands through Lisle—To Spain (a most profitable one), through Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the western ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great advantage of France, more especially respecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marseilles) with Turkey and Africa, has long been very considerable. The negro trade from Guinea supplies her sugar colonies, besides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence.

The commercial treaty between France and England appears to have served both countries, by opening an extensive market for English woollens, cottons, pottery, and hardware, and for French wines, linens, and cambrics, besides having nearly destroyed the great smuggling trade on their coasts, and promoted a friendly intercourse between
the two nations; but it has also been the means of glutting the French market with English goods, and affording the French an opportunity to rival the English in their manufactures, as appears from new ones, particularly one in imitation of Wedgewood's ware, already established at Paris.

The exports are wine, vinegar, brandy, oil, silks, satins, linens, woollen cloth, tapestries, laces, gold and silver embroideries, toys, trinkets, perfumery, paper, prints, books, drugs, dies, &c. The imports are hardware, earthenware, cottons, metals, hemp, flax, silk, wool, horses, East and West Indian goods, &c. It employs one million tons of shipping, with near 50,000 seamen; and before the revolution, the imports were valued at 9,583,333l. the exports at 12,500,000l. and it had a balance of trade of more than two millions in its favour; but its trade and manufactures have since declined.

One great disadvantage to the commerce of France, is, that the profession of a merchant is not so honourable as in England and some other countries. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to distinguish their respective pieces; which must be very embarrassing, especially to strangers.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] It has no trading companies (having abolished all monopoly) but a bank or caisse d'escompte, and a bank of extraordinaries.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] France, by the revolution in 1789, founded a new constitution, upon the principles that all men are free and equal in their rights, and that sovereignty resides in the nation. It is quite unnecessary to give any detail of this constitution, as it has been since completely overthrown. After the condemnation and murder of their sovereign, a new constitution was formed, which was very soon abolished to make way for the dominion of the five Directors, who formed the executive government; there was besides a legislative body, composed of a council of ancients, of two hundred and fifty members, and a council of five hundred.

Immediately after the arrival of Bonaparte from Egypt, a scheme was entered into for the overthrow of this constitution, which was carried into execution at the point of the bayonet. A new government was established, consisting of what was called a conservative senate of eighty members, a tribunate of 100 members of 25 years of age at least, a legislative body of three hundred; and three consuls nominated for ten years, and indefinitely re-eligible. Bonaparte was appointed First Consul, and very soon contrived to unite in his own person the whole executive power. The government is at present a military despotism, and being supported solely by the influence and authority of one man, cannot rest upon a very solid foundation.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the soil in France; her numerous manufactures and extensive commerce; her great cities, her numerous towns, sea ports, rivers and canals; the cheapness of provisions, wines and liquors; the formidable armies and fleets she has sent forth, to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their sprightliness and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude that France is the most powerful nation, and her people the most opulent and happy in Europe. The reverse, however, appears to be the state of that nation at present; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

The most obvious causes of this national poverty took their rise from the ambition and vanity of their kings and courtiers, which led them into schemes of universal dominion, the aggrandizement of their name, and the enslaving of Christendom. Their wars, which they sometimes carried on against one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the subject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free gifts, &c. When these failed, other methods, more despotic and unwarrantable, such as raising and reducing the value of money, as it suited their own purposes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppressions, were adopted, which gave the finishing blow to public credit, and shook the foundations of trade, commerce, and industry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we consider the motives of these wars, a desire to enslave and render miserable the nations around them, that man must be devoid of humanity whose breast is not
raised with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been spilt, the miseries and desolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a sacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, that while they thus grasp after foreign conquest, their country exhibits a picture of misery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a most dismal and solitary appearance. The shops are mean beyond description; and the passengers, who saunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty streets, appear to be chiefly composed of priests and devotees passing to or from mass, hair-dressers, and beggars. That this is the appearance of their towns, and many of their cities, we may appeal to the observation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it possible to mention a people more indigent than these citizens, we might describe the farmers and peasantry. We have, in another place, mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and most extensive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidst this profusion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exist upon the gleanings; and his cattle, which are seldom numerous, pick a subsistence, in the summer months, from the skirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, dispirited, and depressed, exhibits a spectacle of indigence hardly credible; and to see him ploughing the ground with a lean cow, ass, and a goat yoked, excites in an English traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled. He forgets the country while he feels for the man.

The Revenues of France have been long in a disorderly state, and they have, during the present war, chiefly subsisted upon the plunder of the countries they have over-run. Their army is numerous and well appointed, and having been for a number of years constantly on the field, must be well disciplined. Their navy has been almost totally annihilated by the signal victories obtained by the fleets of Great Britain.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.] The National Assembly, desirous of establishing the French constitution on the principles it has declared, abolished irrevocably those institutions which they imagined injurious to liberty and equality of rights.

There is no longer any nobility, nor peerage, nor hereditary distinctions, nor difference of orders, nor feudal government, nor patrimonial jurisdiction, nor any of the titles, denominations, and prerogatives, which are deriv'd from them; or any of the orders of chivalry, corporations, or decorations, for which proofs of nobility were required: nor any kind of superiority, but that of public functionaries in the exercise of their functions.

Royalty, which was one branch of the first constitution, is now abolished, the unfortunate monarch decapitated, and the constitution has degenerated into a military despotism.

HISTORY.] The history of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly interesting to an English reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul, on the Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave resistance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Caesar, about forty eight years before Christ. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who subdued but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks, themselves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of several people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. The Salii had a rule, which the rest of the Franks are said to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the succession of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of sovereignty, and is well known by the name of the Salic law.

The Franks and Burgundains, after establishing their power, and reducing the original natives to a state of slavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise
to those numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the several par-
liments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the
whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of
the grand council, consisting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the dissolution of the Roman
empire, the first government in France seems to have been a kind of mixed monarchy,
and the power of their kings extremely circumscribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The first Christian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the best
French historians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 491, and was baptized, and
introduced Christianity in the year 498: The mind of Clovis had been affected by the
pathetic tale of the passion and the death of Christ; and, insensible of the beneficial
consequences of the mysterious sacrifice, he exclaimed with religious fervour, "Had I
been present with my valiant Franks, I would have avenged his injuries." But though
he publicly professed to acknowledge the truth of the gospel, its divine precepts were
but little respected. From this period the French history exhibits a series of great
events; and we find them generally engaged in domestic broils or in foreign wars.
The first race of their kings prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens,
who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon
their posterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often
mentioned as the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and
part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire
by will, among his sons, which proved fatal to his family and posterity. Soon after this,
the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of
Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France, and about the year 900 obliged the
French to yield Bretagne to Rollo their leader, who married the king’s daughter, and
was persuaded to profess himself a Christain. This laid the foundation of the Norman
power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William
duke of Normandy, who subdued Harold, the last Saxon king, in the year 1066. This
event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almost
perpetual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithstanding
their numbers, and the assistance they received from Scotland.

The rage of crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the
French crown in two respects: in the first place, it carried off hundreds of thousands
of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king;
in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of numbers of the nobility, who died
abroad without heirs.

But passing over the dark ages of the crusades, their expedition to the Holy Land,
and wars with England, which have been already mentioned, we shall proceed to that
period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings
us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince,
though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swiss, who till
then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and
great defects. He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but lost the imperial
crown: Charles V. of the house of Austria, and king of Spain, being chosen. In the
year 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two
kings met in an open plain near Calais, where they and their attendants, displayed their
magnificence with such emulation and profuse expense as produced it the name of the
Field of the Cloth of Gold. Feats of chivalry, parties of gallantry, together with such
exercises and pastimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than
serious business, occupied both courts during eighteen days that they continued together.*

* The French and English historians describe the pomp of this interview, and the various
spectacles, with great minuteness. One circumstance, mentioned by the maréchal de Fleuranges, who was pre-
sent, and which appears singular in the present age, is commonly omitted. After the tournament,"
says he, "the French and English wrestlers made their appearance, and wrestled in presence of the
kings and the ladies; and as there were many stout wrestlers there, it afforded excellent pastime; but
as the king of France had neglected to bring any wrestlers out of Bretagne, the English gained the
Francis made some dazzling expeditions against Spain, but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power: by which he disoblged the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a confederacy against him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions was afterwards the source of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithstanding the variety of disagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flourishing condition. Francis I. was succeeded by his son Henry II. who upon the whole was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was so well served by the duke of Guise, that though he lost the battle of St Quintin, against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who never since had any footing in France. He married his son, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this scheme, he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be seen in the history of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomeri.

He was succeeded by his son Francis II., a weak, sickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whose power was entirely engrossed by a prince of the house of Guise, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engrossment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a strong opposition against the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catharine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, who had adopted the cause of Hugonotism, was broken in pieces, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death for a conspiracy against the court; but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her second son, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the Protestants, was assassinated by one Poltro, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjustly thought to have been instigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the Protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded each other. At last the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a Protestant, and the French king's sister. The heads of the Protestants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all if possible in one night. This project proved but too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the massacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The signal for the inhuman slaughter of so many thousands, was to be made by striking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect amidst the general carnage that some few moments should be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to rest, when he was aroused by the noise of the assassins, who had surrounded his house. A German, named Besme, entered his chamber, and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever distinguished him. Incapable of resistance from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt

prize. After this, the kings of France and England retired to a tent, where they drank together, and the king of England seizing the king of France by the collar, said, "My brother, I must wrestle with you," and endeavoured once or twice to trip up his heels; but the king of France, who was a dextrous wrestler, twisted him round, and threw him on the earth with prodigious violence. The king of England wanted to renew the combat, but was prevented."

Mémoires de Fleuranges, 12mo, Paris, 1753, p. 329.
to assassinate him, with an undismayed countenance, he had scarce uttered the words, "Young man, respect these grey hairs, nor stain them with blood," when Besme plunged his sword into his bosom, and with his barbarous associates threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guise contemplated it in silence, but Henry count d'Angoulesme, natural brother to Charles, spurred it with his foot exclaiming, "Courage, my friends, we have begun well, let us finish in the same manner." It is said that about 30,000 Protestants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France, and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573 with the Protestants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had some time before been chosen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he with some difficulty escaped to France, where he took quiet possession of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobility of France the feudal powers they had lost. The heads of the Protestants could raise armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A holy league was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. The Protestants under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called the German princes to their assistance, and a sixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke of Alençon declaring himself lord of the Netherlands. The civil war was finished within the year, by another sham peace. The king, ever since his accession to the crown, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagancies. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscriptions of the Protestants, and the setting aside from the succession the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guise, the idol of the Roman Catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had some distant pretensions. To secure himself on the throne, a seventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the disadvantage of the Protestants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that, after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he and his brother the cardinal, were, by his majesty's orders, and in a manner under his eyes, basely assassinated in 1588. The leaguers upon this declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the Protestants; but while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was in his turn assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king of Navarre*, head of the house of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from his cell the decrepit popish cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Being strongly supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, seemed only to make him more illustriously unfortunate; for he and his little court were sometimes without common necessities. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection lay against him but that of religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, split among themselves; and the French nation in general, being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themselves of the public distractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came secretly to a resolution of declaring himself a Roman Catholic. This was called a measure of prudence, if not of necessity, as

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*A small kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greatest part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predecessors had been unjustly dispossessed by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.
the King of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young Duke of Guise.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. This complaisance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained absolution from the pope, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for several years with various fortune. In 1598 he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to his old friends the Protestants the free exercise of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chastised the Duke of Savoy who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself with wonderful attention and success (assisted in all his undertakings by his minister, the great Sully), to cultivate the happiness of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of silk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-established the tranquillity, and in a great measure secured the happiness of his people, he formed connexions with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the house of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army; others say (for his invention does not clearly appear), that he designed to have formed Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her for protection into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in these conjectures, it is certain that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach in the streets of Paris, by one Ravilliac, like Clement, another young enthusiast, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. son to Henry IV. deservedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous cardinal Richelieu, who put a period, by his resolute and bloody measures, to the remaining liberties of France, and to the religious establishment of the Protestants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, made some weak efforts, by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above a million of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres was spent in carrying them on; and that nine cities, four hundred villages, two thousand churches, two thousand monasteries, and ten thousand houses, were burnt, or otherwise destroyed, during their continuance.

Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, though himself was next to an enthusiast for popery, supported the protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the house of Austria: and after quelling all the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Lewis XIII. who in 1643, left his son, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the administration of his mother Anne of Austria, by the factions of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Conde flamed like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and sometimes a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a protestant had turned a papist. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domestic wars; but the queen-mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarine for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually among themselves, that when Lewis assumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himself the most absolute monarch that ever sat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domestic administration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, whom I have more than once mentioned, who formed new systems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a surprising height.
FRANCE.

To write the history of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis: through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness; by the latter he embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. By his impolitic and unjust revocation of the edicts of Nantes, in the year 1685, with the dragooning of the protestants that followed it, he obliged them to take shelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they established the silk manufactures, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was so blinded by flattery, that he arrogated to himself the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his conveniency, and at last raised against himself a confederacy of almost all the other princes of Europe; at the head of which was king William III, of England. He was so well served, that he made head for some years against this alliance; but having provoked the English by his repeated infidelities, their arms, under the duke of Marlborough, and the Austrians, under the prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miserable as the beginning was splendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued series of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of seeing those places taken from him, which in the former part of his reign were acquired at the expense of many thousand lives. Just as he was reduced, old as he was, to the desperate resolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was saved by the English Tory ministry deserting the cause, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He survived his deliverance but two years; and in his last hours displayed a greatness of mind worthy of his elevated situation: "Why do you weep," said he to his domestics, "Did you think "me immortal?" He died on the first of September 1715, and was succeeded by his great grandson Lewis XV.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war had not the regency been seized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of sense and spirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood, who having embroiled himself with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent, on the fifth of December 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

The reader is not to imagine that I am to follow the affairs of France through all the inconsistent scenes of fighting and treating with the several powers of Europe, which are to be found in their respective histories. Among the first acts of the late king's government, was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his first minister. Though his system was entirely pacific, yet the situation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the King of Poland, in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the house of Austria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law, Stanislaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interposition of the Russians and Austrians; but Stanislaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorraine, during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principles in a war with Great Britain; in the management of which the latter was so ill seconded by her allies, that it was finished by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy wretch, whose sullen mind, naturally unsettled, was inflamed by the disputes between the king and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the desperate resolution of attempting the life of his sovereign. In the dusk of the evening, as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was suddenly wounded, though slightly, with a pen-knife, between the fourth and fifth ribs, in the presence of his son, and in the midst of his guards. The daring assassin had mingled with the crowd of courtiers, and was instantly betrayed by his distracted countenance. He declared it was never his intention to kill the king, but that he only meant to wound him that God might touch his heart, and incline him to restore the tranquillity of his dominions by re-establishing the parliament, and banishing the archbishop of Paris whom he regarded as the source of the present commotions. In these frantic and incoherent declarations he persisted amidst the most exquisite tortures; and after human ingenuity had been exhausted in devising new modes of torment, his judges, tired out with
his obstinacy, consigned him to a death, the inhumanity of which is increased by the
evident madness that stimulated to the fatal attempt; and which might fill the hearts of
savages with horror. He was conducted to the common place of execution, amidst a
vast concourse of the populace; stripped naked and fastened to the scaffold by iron
gyves. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming sulphur. His thighs, legs,
and arms, were torn with red hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, resin, and sulphur,
were poured into the wounds; and to complete the awful catastrophe, tight ligatures
being tied round his limbs, he was torn to pieces by young and vigorous horses.

The Jesuits having rendered themselves universally odious by their share in the cons-
spiracy against the late king of Portugal, fell in France under the lash of the civil
power, for certain fraudulent mercantile transactions. They refused to discharge the
debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large sum, and who was
supposed to act for the benefit of the whole society. As a monk, indeed, he must ne-
necessarily do so. The parliaments eagerly seized an opportunity of humbling their spi-
rual enemies. The Jesuits were every where cited before those high tribunals in 1761,
and ordered to do justice to their creditors. They seemed to acquiesce in the decision,
but delayed payment under various pretences. New suits were commenced against
them, in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the course
of these proceedings, which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent, they were com-
pelled to produce their INSTITUTE, or the rules of their order, hitherto studiously
concealed. That mysterious volume, which was found to contain maxims subversive of
all civil government, and even of the fundamental principles of morals, completed their
ruin. All their colleges were seized, all their effects confiscated, and the king, ashamed
or afraid to protect them, not only resigned them to their fate, but finally expelled
them the kingdom, by a solemn edict, and utterly abolished the order of Jesus in France.

Elated with this victory over ecclesiastical tyranny, the French parliaments attempt-
ed to set bounds to the absolute power of the crown, and seemed determined to confine
it within the limits of law. Not satisfied with refusing, as usual, to register certain op-
pressive edicts, or with remonstrating against them, they ordered criminal proceed-
sions to be commenced against the governors of several provinces, acting in the king's name,
who had enforced the registration of those edicts. The magnanimity of these assemblies
had awakened new ideas in the bosoms of the French; they were taught by the late
remembrances to consider their inherent rights; and this flame, in the succeeding reign,
burst forth with accumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontainbleau, in
1763, the chief events attending it, so humiliating to France, have been already men-
tioned in the history of England; and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corsica, a small island in the Mediterranean, had long resisted with manly firmness
the oppressive councils of the Genoese, who claimed the sovereignty over it by right of
conquest. But, unable to support those pretensions, Genoa transferred them to France,
on condition that Lewis should put her in full possession of the adjacent island of Cap-
raria, which the Corsicans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his engage-
ments, powerful armaments were fitted out by Lewis, at Antibes and Toulon; twenty
battalions of French were landed in Corsica; and the natives, whose free suffrages had
summoned Paoli, one of their principal chiefs, to the supreme government of the island,
determined to defend their liberties to the utmost.

A sharp and bloody war, such as suited the inferior numbers of the inhabitants and
the nature of the country, was carried on in all the fastnesses and mountainous parts of
the island; and it was not till after the French had fatally experienced, in two success-
ive campaigns, the enthusiastic courage which animates the champions of freedom, that
they overwhelmed by their superior numbers this unfortunate people; nor had Lewis
much reason to triumph in an acquisition, to attain which he had sacrificed several thou-
sands of his bravest troops, and only extended his dominion over a rugged and unpro-
ductive island.

The late unfortunate king, Lewis the XVI. succeeded his grandfather, Lewis the XV.
on the 10th of May 1774. Several regulations were made after his accession, highly
favourable to the general interests of the nation, particularly the suppression of the Mus-
France.

Quetaries, and some other corps, which being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal person than any real military service, were supported at a great expence, without an adequate return of benefit to the state. One remarkable circumstance which attended this reign, was the placing of Mr. Necker, a protestant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Possessed of distinguished and acknowledged abilities, his appointment would have excited no surprise, had it not been contrary to the constant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the conduct of her revenue. It now stood forward as a new instance of enlargement of mind and liberality of sentiment; and will to posterity mark the prominent features of the reign of Lewis XVI. Under the direction of this gentleman, a general reform took place in France, through every department in the revenue. When hostilities commenced in 1777, between France and Great Britain, in consequence of the assistance afforded by the former to the revolted British colonies in America, the people of France were not burdened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by his economy, improvements, and reformation that were introduced into the management of the finances. In consequence of this national economy, the navy of France was also raised to so great a height, as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

With a most laudable zeal to extend the dominion of science, Lewis fitted out several vessels on astronomical discoveries. The chevalier de Borda was instructed to ascertain the exact position of the Canary islands, and Cape de Verd; and the different degrees of the coast of Africa from Cape Spartel to the island of Goree. The chevalier Grenier, who had traversed the Indian seas to improve the charts, and correct the errors of former navigators, was liberally rewarded by a monarch who aspired to immortalise the era of his power by expeditions beneficial to mankind.

The visit of the emperor of Germany to the court of Paris, was another occurrence that excited the attention of Europe. Averse to pomp, he chose to travel under the humble title of count Falkenstein; he was received by Lewis with that respect which was due to the imperial dignity, and the regard that he was impatient to testify to the brother of his royal consort. During six weeks that the emperor remained at Paris, his hours were incessantly devoted to examine the various establishments of that capital, and in viewing the manufactures. With the same spirit of enquiry, he made a tour through the different provinces of the kingdom, and in his journey endeavoured to glean whatever might be advantageous to his own dominions.

Amidst the fury of war, Lewis displayed that regard for science which had early formed a striking characteristic of his reign. Previous to the commencement of hostilities, the English had sent two vessels into the South seas, commanded by captains Cook and Clerke, to explore the coasts and islands of Japan and California; the return of those vessels was hourly expected in Europe; and Lewis, with a considerate humanity which reflects the brightest lustre on his character, by a circular letter to all his naval officers, commanded them to abstain from all hostilities against these ships, and to treat them as neutral vessels. The letters mentioned also in terms of the highest respect Captain Cook, who had long distinguished himself in successive voyages of discovery. But death allowed not that celebrated navigator to enjoy this grateful testimony to his merit; for in one of the newly discovered islands he had already fallen a victim to the blind fury of the savage inhabitants.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in consequence of the representations of Mr. Necker, a variety of unnecessary offices in the household of the queen were abolished; and sundry other important regulations adopted, for the ease of the subject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. Could we implicitly credit his memorial, he changed the excess of the disbursements at least one million sterling, of the year 1776, into an excess of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000l. But the measures of Mr. Necker were not calculated to procure him friends at court; the vain, the interested, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have possessed sufficient firmness of mind to support an upright and able minister. He was therefore displaced, and is said to have been particularly opposed by the queen's party.
The independence of America had been the grand object of France, and that having been acknowledged in the fullest and most express terms by Great Britain, the preliminary articles of peace were signed at Paris on the 20th of January 1783; but the immense expenses incurred were found at last to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means support; and the miserable exigencies to which government was reduced, contributed no doubt to bring about the present revolution.

In the various wars of France with England, particularly in the last and present centuries, no object appears of more consequence to her naval operations than the obtaining a port in the Channel. With a view of obviating this want, the ablest engineers in that kingdom have proceeded, by the most astonishing and stupendous works, to render the port of Cherburgh capable of receiving and protecting a royal navy. Since the last peace, they have prosecuted this work at an annual expense of upwards of 200,000l. and expectation was so sanguine, that it was thought a year or two more would effect this arduous and important undertaking, but they have been disappointed.

In the year 1786 a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded between the two courts of London and Versailles, and this having concluded the transactions between the two kingdoms, we have now only to give an account of the late revolution.

The ambition of the French government, which made it acquainted with liberty, in assisting the insurgents in America and Holland, excited a spirit amongst the people, which could not well admit of the continuance of arbitrary power at home. The dismissal of Monsieur Necker from the direction of public affairs, and succeeding ministers being endowed neither with his integrity or abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being entirely ruined. And when the edict for registering the loan at the conclusion of 1785, which amounted to the sum of three millions three hundred and thirty thousand pounds, was presented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonstrances of that assembly, whose business it was to record it in the public registers, it encountered the greatest difficulties. On the 20th of December, the king signed to the select deputation, who were commissioned to convey to him the repetition of their respectful remonstrances, that he expected to be obeyed without farther delay. Accordingly the ceremony of registering took place on the next day; but was accompanied with a resolution, importing, that public economy was the only genuine source of abundant revenues, the only means of providing for the necessities of the state, and of restoring that credit which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin.

This proceeding being known, the king required on the 23d, the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament; on that occasion he erased from their records the resolution that had been adopted; declared himself satisfied with Monsieur de Calonne, and determined on no account to suffer groundless apprehensions to interfere with the execution of plans, calculated for the good of the state, and the case of the nation.

The difficulties that attended this transaction, induced M. de Calonne to enquire, with more anxiety than he had hitherto done, into the real state of public finances. He saw that the period for investigating the public situation could be deferred no longer. He perceived that the parliament was neither a fit instrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would submit to be a passive machine for sanctioning the plans of a minister, even if those plans were the emanations of perfect wisdom.

Under these circumstances, the only alternative that seemed to remain, was to have recourse to some other assembly, more dignified and solemn in its character, and that should consist, in a greater degree, of members from the various orders of the state, and the different provinces of the kingdom. Another assembly had occasionally been substituted in the room of this, either on account of the extraordinary expedition that was thought to be necessary, or because the monarch, jealous of his prerogatives, was unwilling to submit his measures to the censure of a popular assembly. This was the meeting of the notables, a number of persons from all parts of the kingdom, selected chiefly from the higher orders of the state, and nominated by the king himself.

The assembly of the notables was opened on the 22d of February. M. de Calonne rose, and unfolded his long expected plan. He represented the situation of the finances,
in the close of the year 1782, as distressful and alarming; he stated, that the public expenditure had for centuries past exceeded the revenues, and that at his own accession to office, there was a deficiency of 3,330,300.

To remedy this evil, M. de Calonne proposed a reformation of the land-tax, as the mode of collecting it was subject to inequalities. In one province it was levied at one rate, and under one form, and in another province under another. The clergy paid nothing. The possessors and farmers of the royal domains paid nothing. A part of the land-tax had been granted in 1782, and expired in January 1787. The king proposed to abolish the remainder, and to substitute in its place an equal land-tax from which no persons and no property should be exempted.

The great basis of M. de Calonne’s plan was the existing deficiency of the revenue. The principal circumstance that stood in opposition to this assertion, was the Compte Rendu of M. Necker, in which France was represented as possessing a clear surplus of 425,000l. This performance had been read with eagerness, and had been regarded as an era in the history of France. Among other opponents of the minister at that time the most formidable was the count de Mirabeau. He published a piece entitled, Impeachment of the Stock-jobbers, in which he detected, or pretended to have detected, many of their enormities. Irritated with the neglect to which he imagined he had been exposed, he involved the minister in the general charge. His eloquence, however, might have successfully vindicated his system against the calculation of Necker, and the invectives of Mirabeau. But it was not to be supposed, that one man, whatever might be his talents and virtues, could resist so many enemies. The notables evidently regarded every proceeding of his with an unfavourable eye, and treated every measure with indiscriminate harshness and severity. Everything was now ripe for his downfall. On the eighth of April he accordingly received his dismissal, and soon after retired to England from the storm of persecution.

The Notables having answered, as far as they could be induced to answer, the purposes of government, were dissolved by the sovereign on the 25th of May. In his speech upon this occasion, he commended their exertions, and particularly thanked them for having prepared the measure, which he so ardently desired, of producing a level between the receipt and expenditure. They had ascertained the existence and amount of the deficit, given authenticity to the proposed retrenchments and reforms, and recognised the necessity of imposing such additional taxes as the circumstances might require.

Meanwhile, the archbishop of Toulouse had been called to the administration in the room of M. de Calonne. The prominent feature of his administration was irresolution and want of system. The registering of the stamp tax was the first act of his ministry. In order to establish this tax, a bed of justice was held by the king, on the 5th of August 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend, and the edict was there registered, notwithstanding their protest to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated, were far from being subdued. They assembled the next day, and declared null and illegal the transcripts that had been made into the records of the court.

The edicts of land-tax and stamp duty, appeared from the press on the 11th of August, and the publication being taken into consideration by the parliament, they came to a resolution still more strongly expressive of their determined opposition to these measures. They declared that the publication was calculated to deceive; that the compulsory presence of the parliament in a scene to which they had brought nothing but their silent affliction and regrets, and the empty form of directing the keeper of the seals to collect the opinion of an assembly where no man gave his voice, could not give authenticity to the register, or confer upon the king a legal right of taxation. They therefore declared, what they stiled the clandestine distribution of these edicts, null and illegal, and of consequence incapable to deprive the nation of its rights, and authorise a subsidy which would be contrary to all the principles, maxims, and practices of the kingdom.

On the following day letters patent and letters de cachet were executed against the parliament of Paris and its members, translating their sittings to Troyes in Champagne,
about one hundred miles from Paris. These orders were served at the same instant, and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the transaction, the parliament were already on the road to the scene of their banishment.

But such was the weakness and imbecility of government at the present conjuncture, and such the discontent excited by this measure, that they found it necessary to recall the parliament after a month's exile. As they had declared their incapacity to register a tax, the only expedient that offered itself to the archbishop was that of a loan. In order to give this edict the authority of a law without the voluntary participation of parliament he devised the mode of a séance royale, where the edicts were at last registered. The duke of Orleans in presence of the king protested against the legality of the proceeding, for which he with four others were banished. The king at the same time sent for the journals of the parliament, and by his direction the resolution of the evening of the séance royale was erased. The banishment of the duke of Orleans and the other four members, excited great clamours, and a memorial was presented to the king by the peers demanding their recall, which was agreed to, and the prohibition of their attendance was in a short time taken off.

Meanwhile the opposition of the provincial parliaments continued without the smallest interruption. That of Bourdeaux, which as a punishment for its refractory disposition had been exiled to Libororne, discovered no inclination to retract, and one of their earliest concerns after their translation was to vote a remonstrance, the object of which was to justify their proceedings. The parliaments of Grenoble and Rennes adopted the sentiments of their brethren of Bourdeaux. In short, a daring spirit of innovation, roused and kept alive by writings of every description, which issued in great numbers from the press, had diffused itself through all ranks, and rendered them impatient of the necessary restraint of legal government; many of the officers in the army who had recently served in America were deeply tinctured with the theoretical and destructive principles which afterwards involved their country in anarchy, bloodshed, and ruin.

Under these impressions an arrêt was issued in August fixing the meeting of the States-general to the first of May the ensuing year; and every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public during the interval. New arrangements took place in the administration; and Mr Necker, who had long been the idol of the people, was again introduced into the management of the finances: the torture, which by a former edict had been restricted in part, was now entirely abolished; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law; and it was decreed, that in future, sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of three judges.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the States-general; but the moment of that assembly's meeting was far from auspicious; the minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the states, was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by the suspicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were supposed already to repent of the hasty assent that had been extorted from them. A dearness that pervaded the kingdom increased the general discontent, and the people, pressed by hunger and inflamed by resentment, were ripe for a revolt. The sovereign also, equally impatient of the obstacles he continually encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; while the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again established, and was attended with the immediate dismissal of Mr Necker, who received a letter from the king requiring him to quit the kingdom in 24 hours. That minister took the route of Brussels on the following day, when his departure was made public.

The city of Paris was thrown into deep consternation by Mr Necker's retreat. His bust and that of the duke of Orleans were dressed in mourning and carried through the streets. The Royal Allemand, a German regiment, broke in pieces the busts and dispersed the populace. The mob being joined by the French guards assaulted the military on all sides, and compelled the Germans, overpowered by numbers, and unsupported by the rest of the army, to retire.

All order was now at an end; and as night approached, an universal terror diffused
itself through the city. Bands of robbers were collecting; and from them or from the foreign soldiery a general pillage was expected.

The celebrated fortress of the Bastile was an object of much jealousy to the Parisians. At 11 o'clock in the morning, M. de la Rosiere at the head of a numerous deputation, waited upon M. de Launay the governor, who promised, along with the officers of his garrison, that they would not fire upon the city unless they should be attacked. But a report was spread through Paris, that M. de Launay had in a short time thereafter, admitted into the fortress a multitude of persons unarmed, and then treacherously massacred them. This report, propagated for the purpose of inflaming the multitude, was not only in itself highly improbable, but has been since proved utterly false and unfounded.

Its effect, however, was such as might naturally be expected; a sudden resolution was adopted of attacking the Bastile; an immense and furious multitude rushed into its outer, and soon forced their way into its inner courts, where they received and returned a severe fire for the space of an hour. After many proofs of the most daring intrepidity by those who headed the assault, the fortress was carried. Those who had the merit of the exploit saved M. de Launay from being immediately torn in pieces by the multitude who poured in from all quarters, and conducted him with danger and difficulty to the Hotel de Ville, but were unable to prevent his being massacred by the cowardly rabble which surrounded it, and who had no part in the taking of the Bastile. M. de Losme, his major, a person distinguished for his humanity to the prisoners, was at the same time a victim to the undistinguished fury of those wretches. Their thirst of blood was so great, that although the marquis de Billeport, who had been confined five years in the Bastile, rushed among them and proclaimed the humanity of M. de Losme to himself and other prisoners, he was not listened to, but insulted and wounded, and escaped not without difficulty with his life. M. de Flerselles, the Prevot de Marchands, of a character less popular, but who seems to have been guilty of nothing which candour could have thought a proof of guilt, incurred the same fate, and the heads of all three being fixed upon pikes, were carried by those savages in triumph through the streets.

Meanwhile the king was kept ignorant of these tumults, until at midnight the duke de Liancourt forced his way into his apartment, and told him of the revolt of his capital, of his army, and of the surrender of the Bastile. Early the next morning he went to the assembly, where he was received with the most profound silence; some of the deputies were no doubt affected with sentiments of humanity and compassion at the sight of fallen majesty, when their king appeared among them in a style so different from that in which they had been accustomed to view him; when without pomp, almost without attendants, and in the plainest dress, standing and uncovered, he addressed them in the most conciliatory terms, professing his sorrow for the disorders in Paris, his regard for the assembly, and assuring them that the reports of any design on their personal liberty were calumniou. He ended by declaring that he had ordered the troops, which had given so much offence to remove from the neighbourhood of the capital.

This discourse was not heard to an end without interruption. The emotion it produced was too powerful for the stern maxims of the cold philosophy the French politicians had adopted, and the hall resounded with shouts of applause. When the king withdrew, all the deputies followed, and forming a respectful ring around his person, attended him to the palace, in the balcony of which the queen appeared with the Dauphin in her arms, while the music played the pathetic air of "On peut-on être mieux qu'au sein de sa famille."

On the following day the king declared his resolution to visit the city of Paris in person. Accordingly that monarch, who never wanted personal courage, however he might want that commanding firmness which perilous times require, left Versailles on the morning of the 17th of July, with only one carriage, besides that in which he was himself. He was attended by the dukes of Villeroi and Vilquier, the marshal Beauveau, the count D'Estaing, and one or two other persons of the court. The militia of Versailles accompanied the carriages to Seve, where they were met by M. de la Fayette, at the head of a large body of national guards; a party of cavalry headed the procession from Seve, followed by the French guards with their cannon; a deputation of
the National assembly in their robes also attended, and were followed by the Parisian National Guards. The procession was slow, and to the king would be more gloomy, that he no more heard the ancient cry of Vive le Roi! whereas that of Vive la Nation! was incessantly screamed from all sides. That this did not happen by accident was evident; for men were heard admonishing the people not to cry Vive le Roi! There are many reasons for believing that the king’s journey to Paris and his reception there were planned by a few, who had influence in the committee at Paris as well as in the assembly, with a view to strike him with terror, and bend his spirit to an acquiescence in their future projects. It is not therefore surprising that he looked pale, melancholy, and with disquietude. He was met at the barrier by the mayor, who presented him with the keys of the city, informed him that they were the identical keys which had been presented to Henry IV. observing, at the same time, in language more quaint than flattering, that Henry had re-conquered his people, whereas in the present instance the people had re-conquered their king. He told the king also, what he might otherwise not have believed, that this was a very glorious day for the French monarchy, and added, what might have occurred to him without being told, that it was a day, which it was not likely his majesty would forget. Whatever the king’s thoughts were, he said nothing. Finding himself equally embarrassed to answer all the fine speeches which were addressed to him on his arrival at the Hotel de Ville, his majesty observed nearly the same silence there. M. Bailly, the mayor, having presented the national cockade to him, he appeared at the window with it attached to his hat; the populace in the square shouted; the cry of Vive le Roi! was then heard for the first time that day, and resounded through the streets as the king returned from the town-house to Versailles, where he was expected with fearful inquietude by the queen and all his family.

The members of the new administration which had been so suddenly and imprudently formed, sensible of the quick transitions to which the French populace are liable, and by no means certain that they would be satisfied with their resignation, resolved to withdraw from the kingdom. The count d’ Artois with his family, the princes of Condé and Conti, with many of the nobility, did the same. M. Foulon, who in the formation of the late ministry had been placed in the war-department as an assistant to M. de Broglie, was not so fortunate as to escape out of France. Sensible of the people’s prejudice against him, he kept himself concealed, and caused the report of his death to be spread abroad. He was discovered by the peasants, while he was under hiding at a country-house near Paris. Some of the enemies of this unhappy man had circulated the incredible story, that he had often declared, that if he should ever be minister, he would make the people live on hay. The surest way of gaining the belief of the populace is to speak to their passions. This absurd expression was repeated by every mouth, and it kindled the more resentment in the breasts of the rabble at this period, because many of them actually experienced hunger at the same time.

The cruelties which these peasants, and some of the populace at Paris, committed on M. Foulon and his son-in-law M. Berthier, in spite of all the efforts of the mayor of Paris and the commander of the national guards to prevent them, are shocking to humanity, and disgusting to narrate. They were hanged at a lamp iron by the enraged multitude, and their heads were carried round on poles. The populace were thus habituated to blood and murder; they were even taught by popular songs to glory in such actions, and particularly by the well known song of Ca ira.

The vindictive disposition and excesses of the Parisian populace were to be regretted not only on account of their effects at Paris, but also on account of the example thereby given to the lower orders, and particularly the tenants of land, and the peasantry, all over France, among whom great disorders continued after some appearance of regularity had taken place in the capital. Accounts came from all quarters, that the spirit of revolt seemed to increase, instead of diminishing, in the provinces; that to a refusal of paying taxes and rents, many instances of pillaging, robbery, and house-breaking, were added; that the nobility in particular were exposed to these depredations; that many of their family-seats had been plundered and demolished, and in some cases, their wives and children abused and insulted in the grossest manner. The measures which were taken in consequence of these disorders and tumults were very extra-
ordinary, and opened a very important scene in the French revolution. On the afternoon sitting of the 4th of August, the viscount de Noailles, after stating that the true cause of the commotions which convulsed the kingdom, existed in the misery of the people, who were driven to those excesses by the accumulation and weight of the burdens under which they laboured; and were become desperate by the exaction of taxes which they could not pay; after enlarging on the glory which the nobility would derive from sacrificing private interest and importance to the public good, concluded by moving, that those sources of tyranny and injustice should be abolished; that all public charges should be equally supported by the whole community, and all taxes levied in proportion to the income of each individual; that all feudal claims should be redeemable at a fair valuation; that corvées, and all rights of the lords to the servants of the peasantry, should be entirely abolished, and other grievances, under which the people suffered, alleviated.

The viscount de Noailles' motion was seconded by the duke d'Aiguillon, who made another tending to the same purpose, which created more surprise than the former, on account of the duke's ample estate and extensive royalties. These bright examples, joined to the thundering applause with which their proposals were heard, excited great emulation. The virtues of self-denial and patriotism became so precious in the eyes of some who had never before seemed to put any great value on them, that hardly any sacrifice was thought too dear for the purchase or even the reputation of possessing them. Some of the nobles, however, were provoked at certain sacrifices which affected themselves more than the proposers, and in revenge they moved for different sacrifices which affected the others more than themselves; and it is said, to the heat raised by this collision of emulation, patriotism and revenge, the heat and expansion produced by wine were added; so that on the whole more was obtained for the republicans at this one sitting after dinner, than the most sanguine of the party could have expected for many days.

The clergy had hitherto remained astonished and silent spectators of a scene so awful and unexpected; and a motion having been made to put an end to the meeting, the president was proceeding accordingly, when suddenly he made a pause, and reproached himself for want of attention in being about "prematurely to close the meeting before any of the venerable body of the clergy, ever sympathising with the distresses of the people, had declared their sentiments on so interesting a subject."

There was no evading this apostrophe. The bishops of Nancy and Chartres spoke in the name of their brethren. The first not only approved of a motion which had been made, that the feudal rights, and all other jurisdictions of lords of manors, established in the same manner, should be abolished; but he proposed besides, that the price of the ransom of ecclesiastical feudalities should be applied to the relief of the poorer part of the ecclesiastical body, and not to the profit of the actual incumbent. The bishop of Chartres, after insisting on the injustice of the game laws, moved the abolition of them and all the pretended rights of the chase. To close the whole, the duke de Liancourt proposed that a solemn Te Deum should be performed, that a medal should be struck in commemoration of the events of that night; and that the title of Restorer of Gallic Liberty, should be bestowed upon the reigning monarch.

Thus did the French nobility, with the most unexampled levity and folly, without reflection, without hearing and weighing the arguments which might have been advanced on the opposite side, by acclamation abolish privileges established by ancient usage, and handed down to them by a long line of ancestors. That they were not oppressive we do not mean to affirm; but surely the conduct of the national assembly in that important night, resembled rather a convocation of furious zealots than a legislative assembly of sober and rational men, met together for the purpose of deliberating on the affairs of a great nation; moreover all these laws, voted in this romantic manner, were not so likely to do real good, or to promote lasting concord between the rich and the poor, as one bill to remove one grievance, voted according to the slow forms of a British parliament, after a full discussion and a fair hearing of arguments on both sides.

Meanwhile that delicate and important question, "whether the king should possess an absolute negative or veto, a suspensive veto, or no veto at all," which was shortly af-
ter agitated, operated like a touchstone for trying the sentiments of every person, and
the assembly, consisting of 1200, was now seen to arrange itself into two violent con-
tending factions. The one party accused the other of a design to excite insurrections: and
the charge was retorted, by circulating a report that a plot for conveying the king
to Metz, was already ripe for execution. Upon the circulation of this report, the
French guards began to wish to be restored to their ancient employment of attending
his person, for the purpose of preventing an attempt of this nature. The popular party
saw the advantages they would derive from placing the assembly and the King in the
midst of that turbulent metropolis, upon the attachment of which they could most se-
curely depend. Every encouragement was therefore given by the leaders of the demo-
cratic party to the project of establishing the court at Paris. An incident soon occur-
red, which served them for a pretence to accomplish their wicked views, and which
others attempted to turn to more heinous purposes.

The count d'Estaing, who had the command of the national guards at Versailles,
having previously consulted the municipality, and represented the necessity of pro-
tecting the national assembly, and the person of the king, from any attempt against
them, required that a thousand troops of the line should be quartered at Versailles for
that purpose. The regiment of Flanders, consisting of a thousand men, were in con-
sequence ordered to Versailles. When they arrived, the officers, together with those
of the national guards, were invited to an entertainment by the Gardes du Corps. The
entertainment was given in the opera-house belonging to the palace. The guests a-
mounted to 240, and all the boxes were full of spectators. Towards the end of the en-
tertainment, the queen having seen from a window the gaiety which prevailed among
the military, requested the King, who was just returned from hunting, to visit them
along with herself and the dauphin, and several ladies and gentlemen of the court.
This unexpected visit to a company, whose hearts were already elated with gaiety and
warmed with wine, could not fail to kindle in their minds the most enthusiastic spirit of
loyalty. The health of their beloved and amiable prince, with those of all the royal
family, was drunk with acclamations of joy and with drawn swords. After walking
through the hall, the royal party bowed with politeness to the company, and retired;
the music struck up the favourite air of, O Richard, O mon roi, l'univers t'abandonne.
"O Richard, O my king, the world abandons thee." Surely they who could have
beheld with indifference this tender and affecting scene, must have been strangely har-
dened by the cold and blood-thirsty philosophy of the French politicians; in the breasts
of the present generous and loyal company, it excited the most lively sensations of at-
tachment to their sovereign, and of sympathy for his sufferings. They threw open the
gates of the hall for the grenadiers of the two corps, who having drank the healths of
the royal family, hurried with jovial enthusiasm to pass the night in dancing beneath
the windows of the palace.

These events were next day reported at Paris, exaggerated and misrepresented for
the worst of purposes, by the leaders of the democratic party, who resolved to spirit up
the people to an insurrection. By means of these misrepresentations, together with
considerable sums distributed among the agents of insurrection, of whom there were at
this time abundance in Paris, a numerous band of women, and men disguised in wo-
men's cloaths, armed with pikes and other weapons, assembled on the morning of the
5th of October, in the square of the Hotel de Ville, and were calling aloud for arms
and bread. They resolved to proceed instantly to demand bread from the king and
from the national assembly *. A deputation had just been decreed to wait upon the
king, and to request him to give a pure and simple sanction to the articles of the decla-
ration of rights and the constitution, which had been already presented to him; but be-
fore the members were appointed, the first tumultuous band that had left Paris, con-

* La Fayette opposed them in vain; for his soliers refused to act against them. Upon this, one
Stanislaus Maillard, who had distinguished himself at the taking of the bastile, offered himself as a
leader of the insurgents; he set out for Versailles about noon with as much order as could be expected
from such an assemblage. When he approached Versailles, with his tumultuous troop, he arranged
them in three divisions, and persuaded them to behave with some appearance of order.
detected by Maillard, arrived at Versailles. A detachment of the most furious of the Poissardes belonging to it marched directly to the national assembly, and were on the point of forcing the guards at the gate, when the assembly prudently decreed, that they should be admitted.

As they began their remonstrances altogether, it was a considerable time before it could be distinguished that the grievance they chiefly insisted on was want of bread. The president declared, that the assembly was just going to deliberate on the speediest means of procuring it, and added, that the ladies might withdraw. Instead of taking this hint, the ladies seated themselves without ceremony, on the benches with the deputies. Nor did they listen to the debates with silence, but took a degree of interest in them which must have been embarrassing to all, and peculiarly so to the orators whose discourse they disapproved. "Speak, deputy!" they called to one; "hold your tongue, deputy!" to another. Sometimes, instead of deputy, they addressed the speakers whom they did not relish, by appellations too vile to be mentioned.

In consequence of the decree which had passed before the arrival of the Poissardes, M. Mounier and fifteen deputies went out of the hall. They were again to address the king to give a simple assent to the articles presented to him. As soon as the Poissardes understood this, a number of them insisted on accompanying the president to the king. M. Mounier, with some difficulty, prevailed on them to limit their number to six. The deputation of the national assembly, with their new associates, walked under a heavy shower of rain between two rows of an intermingled multitude of armed men and women, from the hall of the assembly to the palace. When they arrived at the gate, a band of Poissardes who followed, instead of adhering to the treaty, insisted that twelve of their number should enter the king’s apartment with the president. This new requisition was complied with, as it must have been had they insisted upon a hundred. The president being introduced, with the deputation from the assembly, and the twelve representatives of the Poissarde army, addressed the king on the deplorable scarcity of provisions, and the confusion resulting from it in the capital. His majesty replied in the same style, lamenting the distresses of the poor in such pathetic terms as charmed the Poissardes, and they withdrew in full confidence that his majesty would do all in his power to remedy the evil of which they complained.

Meanwhile Fayette arrived with his army about 10 o’clock at night, and found the assembly in a very unpleasant situation. Their hall and galleries were crowded by the Parisian poissardes and others of the mob, who at that very instant interrupted their debates. La Fayette having waited upon the king, and informed him of the proceedings of the day, planted guards where he judged necessary; and after a scanty banquet had been prepared, he prevailed with the assembly to close their sitting for that night. In this last part of his conduct Fayette has been much censured, and probably not without reason; for it could scarcely be expected that the night would be spent in peace by the immense assemblage of turbulent characters, that were now brought together.

All was quiet till about six in the morning of the 6th of October 1789; when different groups of the rabble of both sexes, who had left Paris the preceding day, and had been spending the night in drinking, met near the palace. It was proposed by some of this united band of Russians to attack the Gardes du Corps, who were few in number. This was no sooner proposed than executed. Without meeting with any resistance from the national militia of Versailles, those wretches rushed furiously across the courts, crying, “Tuez les Gardes du Corps! point de quartier*!” Two of those gallant men were murdered, others wounded, and driven within the palace. One party of these demons, with horrid threats and imprecations, attempted to force their way into the apartments of the queen, who had lain down to indulge nature in a few hours of repose, and troubled melancholy repose. She was startled from her sleep by the voice of Mr de Moiandre, the sentinel at her door, who cried to her to save herself by flight, that this was the last proof of fidelity he could give. He opposed however the

* Kill the body guards; no quarter.
entrance of the assailants with heroic gallantry, until he fell covered with honourable wounds. A band of cruel ruffians and assassins, reeking with his blood, rushed into the chamber of the queen, and pierced with a hundred strokes of bayonets and poniards the bed, from whence this persecuted woman had but just time to fly almost naked, and through ways unknown to her murderers had escaped to seek refuge at the feet of a king and husband not secure of his own life for a moment. He on his part had at the first alarm hastened to the queen’s chamber by another passage; and some of the attendants, anxious for the life of the dauphin, had run and fetched him from the children’s apartment; and when the king returned to his own chamber, he found the young prince in the arms of his mother.

As soon as M. Mounier heard of these transactions, he hastened to the National Assembly, and made a proposal which was supported by other deputies, that the National Assembly should be immediately transferred to the grand saloon of the palace, that they might at once assist his majesty with their advice, and contribute to his protection at such an alarming crisis. But Mirabeau opposed it as “unbecoming their dignity, as even unwise to desert their post, when real or imaginary danger seem to threaten the public.” M. Mounier asserts that the joy of some members of the National Assembly was indecently apparent, M. Bailly calling this an “auspicious day.”

The king’s mind was greatly affected with the death of the guards who had fallen in his defence, and, notwithstanding all the assurances of M. La Fayette, was making continual enquiries respecting the body-guards; and his anxiety carried him so far at last, that he appeared at the balcony, assuring the crowd below, that they had been unjustly accused, and even interceding in their favour. Some of the populace called out for the queen, she appeared at the balcony with the dauphin and the princess royal at her side.

No tyrant, giddy with the plenitude of power, ever pushed the wantonness of despotism to a more disgusting length than the wretches who filled the courts below. Instead of being moved at this mark of condescension, some of the barbarians called out “No children!” No construction could be put upon such an exclamation, at such a moment, but that it was thought that the queen had brought the children as a protection to herself, and that the wretches intended to fire at her, when they were removed. It was most natural for the queen to think so, because she has been frequently told that their curses and threats had been particularly directed against her. Unmoved by this reflection, she made the children withdraw, and instantly turning to the multitude, she stood alone upright and undaunted. Struck with admiration of her majestic appearance and intrepid behaviour, the most barbarous for a moment forgot their rancour, and joined in the repeated shouts of applause that burst from all quarters, in the midst of which the queen retired. Some time after she had disappeared, those who had directed the movements of the multitude, resumed the great object of this expedition. Voices were heard exclaiming, the “king to Paris!” The voices multiplied every moment, and at last the cries of “To Paris! To Paris,” were universal. After the fatigue and agonies of such a night, the royal family were much in need of an interval of repose; but they were destined to undergo some very painful hours before they obtained it. They had, however, no choice left. It would not have been, perhaps, possible to save their lives had the king refused.

They left Versailles after one o’clock, which was announced by a volley from the troops. The company of the hundred Swiss surrounded the king’s coach; a troop of dragoons preceded, and another immediately followed it. The Parisian national guards had begun their march a short time before. Various bands of the Poissardes were intermingled with all the different corps of this strange army; some seated on waggons ornamented with green boughs, and white, red, and blue ribbons; some astride upon the cannon, many on horseback; generally two on the same horse, with the hats of the body guards on their heads, the belts across their shoulders, and armed with sabres; rending the air every instant with their savage shouts, and the choruses of their vile songs. In the middle of one band of those sanguinary hags, two men carried long pikes, on the points of which were the heads of the murdered Gardes-du-Corps. At certain distances the whole procession was made to halt, for the purpose of firing fresh
voleys, and that the soldiers might be refreshed with wine and a little rest. On these occasions the Poissardes on their carriages and on horseback descended and joined hands in horrid dances around the bloody heads that were fixed on the pikes. What rendered the scene completely shocking was the presence of the Gardes du Corps, who had been saved by the grenadiers, and were now marched in triumph, disarmed, in sight of the heads of their murdered companions. These scenes were repeated at intervals during a slow journey of twelve miles, which lasted from a little after one till seven in the evening, about which time the Royal Family arrived at Paris. The town was illuminated, and the evening spent in triumph by the vile populace of Paris.

Such were the transactions of the 6th of October, 1789, a day which "seemed to blot the sun out of heaven." Such were the horrors which surrounded the Royal Family; such the alarm, terror, and dismay, which they suffered from bands of midnight ruffians thirsting for their blood; such were the dangers which the execrable Mirabeau could call imaginary! such was this procession and triumph which some in Britain could compare to the entrance into the world of the Prince of Peace!

The national assembly, immediately after their removal to Paris, proceeded in the arduous attempt of forming a free constitution for a great empire. The abbe Sieyes presented a plan for dividing the kingdom into 83 departments, of about 324 square leagues, and of each department into several districts, and each district was subdivided into cantons of four square leagues in extent. Thus the whole of the ancient divisions of the kingdom into governments, generalities, and bailiwicks, was in an instant obliterated. At the same time another measure was brought forward, for wickedness and barbarity worthy of the instigators of the French Revolution. This was the confiscation of the whole of the lands belonging to the church, for supplying the exigencies of the state. When the terrors of this tremendous proscription hung over the clergy, they made an offer of a contribution through the archbishop of Aix, which for its extravagance ought not to have been accepted. "Why was it not accepted?" (says an elegant writer,) "The reason is plain—There was no desire that the church should be brought to serve the state. The service of the state was made a pretext to destroy the church. In their way to the destruction of the church, they would not scruple to destroy their country: and they have destroyed it." This nefarious and extensive plan of robbery was proposed by the bishop of Autun (the infamous Talleyrand) who had been promoted to the bench in a most irregular manner to serve this very purpose. The mode in which this property was to be expended was by issuing assignments (assignats) upon it, which assignments were to be received by the state for the payment of taxes, or for the purchase of church-lands, when set up for sale. On the day following that on which this plan of robbery was adopted, a decree was passed, suspending the parlements from the exercise of their functions. On the 13th of February, monastic establishments were suppressed, and their lands confiscated. All these decrees were at once cruel, unjust, and tyrannical; they reduced a great number of men from the height of opulence to the depths of poverty, and turned out those who had been accustomed to a life of retirement and seclusion, naked and destitute to the wide world.

Meanwhile the system of the rights of man had begun to operate in the West India islands. There the whites contended with those called people of colour. These again sometimes stood in opposition to the free negroes, or to the slaves; and hence it sometimes happened, that no less than three hostile assemblies were held at the same time in the same colony, and raged with inveterate fury. Each party found protectors in the national assembly of the parent state. Those who favoured or opposed the existence of distinctions at home, in general followed out the same principle with regard to the colonies.

At this time there was some appearance of a rupture between Great Britain and Spain, and the minister laid before the national assembly the preparations which the king thought expedient, and the precautions he had taken on that occasion. This information gave rise to various discussions, and at last brought on a debate on the important question, into whose hands the nation ought to entrust the power of making war or peace. One party was for placing it in the hands of the king, and the other in the hands of the national assembly. They were obliged, however, to acquiesce in a kind
of middle plan, proposed by Alexander Lameth, which was decreed in the following words: "The right of declaring war and concluding peace belongs to the nation; war cannot be decided on but by a decree of the legislative body, in consequence of a formal and necessary proposition made to them by the king, which must be afterwards sanctioned by him."

On the 19th of June a very singular farce was acted in the Assembly. A Prussian refugee, who called himself Anacharsis Clootz, on an evening sitting, introduced to the assembly a number of persons dressed in the habits of all the different countries that could be thought of. In a formal harangue he told the assembly, that he was come as the Orator of the Human Race, at the head of the representatives of all nations, to congratulate them upon their new constitution. He was answered by the president with abundance of solemnity, and retired with this motley group. This fantastical piece of folly, which by rational beings would have been treated as perfectly ridiculous and absurd, was treated by the assembly in a very serious light. Shortly afterwards Alexander Lameth proposed, that the figures of the different nations exhibited at the feet of Louis XIV. should be destroyed as an insult upon mankind. Little good can be expected from men, who, forgetting the important station which they fill, spend their time in such empty and futile declamations. Happy had it been for mankind if they had never been more insulted or injured by the French Revolution than they were by this harmless monument of tyranny.

With a view to impress the revolution on the minds of the people, a great public ceremony had been in preparation for some time. On this occasion the king, the national assembly and the people, were to take an oath to maintain the cause of liberty and the constitution, of which the chief articles were already known. The 14th of July 1790, on account of its being the anniversary of the taking of the Bastile, was fixed upon for the day of this ceremony, and the extensive plain of the Champ de Mars for the place in which it was to be celebrated. It was thought expedient to shape the ground into an amphitheatre of such prodigious extent, as should admit the multitude who were to be spectators of, or, according to the French phrase, to assist at the ceremony. The Parisians, however, fearing lest the plan might not be completed, offered their gratuitous labour to accelerate the work; and all ranks of persons, the nobles, clergy, and even ladies, with the eagerness for novelty so peculiar to that people, united their efforts.

The day of such vast expectation at length arrived: the amphitheatre was formed with the altar in the middle, the throne of the king, a magnificent pavilion and commodious seats for the queen and royal family, and the triumphal arches through which the processions were to pass, were finished only two hours before the processions began. At day break, the citizens began to flock to the amphitheatre, which it was said, was of sufficient extent to contain above three hundred thousand.

The great procession consisted of a band of music, a body of the national guards, led by M. la Fayette, and followed by the electors of the city of Paris, the principal members of the municipality, the deputies to the national assembly, the deputies from one half of the departments into which France had been divided, a deputation from the army and fleet, headed by two marshals of France, the deputies from the other half of the departments, and a body of horse and foot belonging to the national guards, with a band of music, closed the procession.

Two hundred priests, dressed in garments of white linen bound with the national-coloured ribbons, stood on the steps, which had been raised for the purpose of administering the oath, for which purpose the committee of the commune appointed the Bishop of Autun, a man whose real character with that of others, has been developed by the progress of the French revolution. When he was about to celebrate the mass, which preceded the pronunciation of the oath, the sky became obscure with clouds; a storm of wind took place and was followed by a deluge of rain. The Bishop proceeded to the celebration of the mass without any regard to the storm; after which he pronounced a benediction on the royal standard of France.

M. la Fayette as a representative of the national guards took the oath first. When he left the bottom of the throne, where he had hitherto stood, and moved towards the
altar for that purpose, the trumpets began to sound; a vast band of martial music continued to play, while he ascended the steps of the altar. In the view of the multitude who filled this immense circus around, he laid the point of his sword upon the bible, which was on the table of the altar, and raising his other hand towards the sky, the music ceased, an universal stillness ensued, while he pronounced the oath. The trumpets, beginning to sound as soon as he had finished, were drowned in the acclamation of Viva la Nation! All the members of the National Assembly then standing up, the president pronounced the oath in his own name and that of his brethren; and was in like manner followed by music and acclamation. When the king himself arose, a great body of the national guards pressed near the throne, which they surrounded with raised arms, while he repeated the oath. A signal being given that the king had taken the oath, the air resounded with alternate peals of artillery, and shouts of the people; and thus ended a ceremony, which has been justly considered as the grandest and most extensive act of perjury that heaven and earth was ever witness to.

Among those who were the most dreadful sufferers by this revolution, were the clergy, who have been persecuted with the most sanguinary fury by the republicans. It had been enacted that every beneficed clergyman should take a solemn oath to be faithful to the nation, the law, the king, and to maintain the new constitution, particularly those decrees which regarded the ecclesiastics. This regulation, however, had not been strongly enforced; but in order to have some pretence for their injustice and cruelty towards the clergy, they were universally accused of counter-revolutionary practices. It was therefore resolved that this decree should be executed with rigour all over the kingdom; and that those who refused or neglected to take the oath should be ejected from their benefices, and suffer other penalties.

This persecuting decree is evidently dictated by that spirit of impiety, that furious and fanatical malignity to the Christian religion, which has been a leading principle in the French revolution. Their hatred to the clergy is evident by this and by many other acts of odious tyranny. Not content with despoiling them of what lawfully belonged to them, they now prepare to persecute those whom they had already oppressed, and whom they had reduced from opulence to poverty.

Lewis XVI. had always been of a pious turn of mind; the constant apprehension, the troubles and dangers with which he and his family were surrounded, would naturally tend to strengthen those impressions, and make him turn his eyes to that future life where wretched man is at last freed from woe, to that land of peace where grief and trouble shall never more annoy. In this disposition of mind the persecution of the clergy would be very disagreeable to the king. It was even said that those who had refused to take the oaths decreed by the national assembly were received with greater signs of cordiality than the others. This conduct was exceedingly natural in the king. Besides those sentiments of compassion which generous minds feel for the unfortunate, he would esteem them as men who had given up all that they possessed rather than forsake their religion.

The king had formed the design of passing the Easter holidays at St Cloud. He wished to be somewhat removed from the noise and tumult of the capital, while he was engaged in the duties of religion. The monarch’s intentions were no sooner known, than rumours were spread with great assiduity, that he wished to go to St Cloud that he might have the sacrament administered by unconstitutional priests, and that he might arrange matters for withdrawing to a greater distance from the capital, and raising a civil war; or perhaps in the view of leaving the kingdom, and stirring up his brother kings to make war against France. Particular pains were taken to infuse these notions into the national guards. Great numbers of the populace crowded to the Carousel and Tuileries. The king’s carriages, however, were ordered, the national guards on duty there were under arms, and the king, the queen, and the princess Elizabeth, went into the coach at 11 o’clock; which they had no sooner done than the surrounding populace began to exclaim and make an outcry in the most insulting and threatening manner: but as they were surrounded with numerous detachments of the national guards, disregarding the insolence of the multitude, the king ordered the postillions to drive on; on which, instead of keeping off the crowd, the guards closed before the horses,
threatened the posessions if they should dare to proceed, and swore they would not permit the Royal Family to leave Paris. The king's domestics, and those immediately attached to his person, were in the mean time abused, maltreated, and dragged from the carriages, about which they had pressed to cover the Royal Family from the insults of the rabble. The gross abuse offered to the female part of the Royal Family was not confined to the lowest populace. Some citizens of superior rank joined in them. M. Bailly, the mayor, hastened to the Tuilleries to suppress the disorder; but was not listened to. M. La Fayette ordered the national guards to open to the right and left, to clear away the multitude, and allow the king's coach to pass; he was not obeyed. After having been more than three hours in the coach, exposed to the insults and derision of the multitude, and of the mutinous soldiery, the Royal Family were under the necessity of getting out of the carriage, and walking to the palace amidst the groans, hootings, and hissings, of the multitude. The king complained with much spirit of this insult to the assembly. He was answered respectfully by the president, but, instead of taking measures to punish the seditious, they immediately passed to the order of the day; and the king was obliged to give up his journey to St. Cloud.

Thus did the national assembly most shamefully sanction the outrage and insult offered by the soldiery and populace to the king; and there seems to be good reason to believe that on this as well as on former occasions the feeble efforts of the popular leaders in his defence were not intended to protect him either from disgrace or danger; in short, the situation of the Royal Family was at this time truly deplorable, surrounded with avowed enemies and treacherous friends.

Meanwhile the most violent and treasonable language was spoken in the groups of the garden of the Palais Royal. Besides the emissaries, who were dispersed to all places of public resort, to circulate calumnies against the court, there was a society at this time called Société Fraternelle, which met in the church of the Jacobins, near the famous club of Jacobins, of which this "Traternal Society" was an emanation of the most violent and inflammable portion; and from it there daily issued libels and satires without number, all calculated to irritate the people against the king's family, and ministers. The club of Cordeliers was of the same nature, and held their meetings in the church of that order. In this Pandemonium of wickedness the fiend Danton bore chief sway.

Weary and harassed with the insults he received from these wretches, the King and Royal Family were at last induced to adopt a plan for their escape. They escaped from Paris, and arrived at St. Menehould, about 170 miles from that city. Here the king, not seeing the persons whom he expected to find there ready to expedite their departure, looked out of the carriage with the utmost uneasiness, and made many enquiries concerning the road. He was recognized by a position, who immediately ran and informed the postmaster. The king's journey was not however stopped; he went on to Clermont, while the post-master of St. Menehould dispatched his son to Varennes to give notice of his majesty's approach, that measures might be taken to stop him. The son of the post-master got the start of the king by some hours. His departure from that town had been observed by one of the quarter-masters of the regiment royal, who was in the secret, and who, suspecting the young man's intentions, found means to escape the watchful observations of the populace, and of his own companions, and pursued the fellow in order to prevent his fatal design. He followed him for about a league; but being afraid to push his horse which had a great way to go, he did not overtake him, and the fellow, perceiving himself pursued, suddenly quit the high road, escaped into the woods, and through unbeaten tracks, known to himself, proceeded to Varennes. He arrived between 10 and 11 o'clock at night, and with as little noise as possible, he awakened every person he thought necessary for his project, and barricaded with carts and waggons the bridge of Varennes, which separated the ville haute from the ville basse.

In the midst of these preparations their majesties arrived at the ville haute, and stopped at the first house, in hopes of finding fresh horses ready for them. They were very uneasy on being informed, on their arrival, that there were no horses in readiness, and saw no appearance of troops they expected for their protection. To add to their
vexation, their postillions threatened to leave them. The queen alighted, and called at several houses to obtain information respecting the horses. Nobody knew her. She walked for some time in the ville haute, with the king, in expectation that some person would appear, who would give them the information they stood so much in need of; but all in vain. They were obliged to return to their carriage without the expected satisfaction; and all they could do, was to intreat the postillions to proceed with the same horses. As they passed under an arch-way near the bridge, a band of ruffians, who lay in wait, stopped the carriages, seized upon the king, and forced him and his family to alight, and they were conducted prisoners to the house of the procureur de la commune. The king expostulated against this violence with equal firmness and dignity, but to no purpose. In a moment the streets were barricaded, the stables of the hussars surrounded, the national guards drawn up under arms, and the tocsin sounded to alarm the country. The procureur not being as yet absolutely certain that his guests were actually the Royal Family, went to the house of M. de Lon a judge, who had seen the king, and begged that he would accompany him back to ascertain the point, which the judge agreed to. The procureur then ascended with M. de Lon into the chamber where the Royal Family were; the instant de Lon threw his eyes on the king, he signified, by an expressive look to the magistrate, it was unquestionably he. The unfortunate monarch, having observed this, thought that all farther dissimulation would be vain; turning then with great emotion to the procureur, he said, "Yes, I am your king. "Surrounded in the capital with the bayonets and poinards of assassins, I come to this province wishing only in the midst of my faithful subjects for that liberty and quiet which you all enjoy. In Paris I cannot remain, without being murdered, together with my family!" He concluded this affecting address by conjuring the magistrate and those around to assist him in making his escape. The queen, shocked with the idea of being dragged back to Paris, taking the dauphin in her arms, in the most pathetic terms, conjured the magistrate, and all who heard her, to save the lives of their king and his children by assisting them to escape; for that misery and ruin awaited them at the capital.

They were inflexible; their hearts were hardened against all the intrigues of this unfortunate princess; and the royal family were obliged to set out, guarded by a numerous band of national guards, and accompanied by the municipal officers of Varennes. As the sad procession moved through Paris to the Tuileries, the streets were crowded with the populace; some of whom taking off their hats as the royal family approached, the insulting order, that no person should uncover himself, was heard and obeyed. On the seat of the king's carriage, the three gardes du Corps, who had acted as couriers, were seated with their arms bound; and the carriage was followed by an open cabriolet, in which Drouet was placed, crowned with laurel. When the unfortunate family of France arrived at the Tuileries, the gardens were full. Some were present who had the feelings of men. Turning with sudden emotion from the sight of the king and queen, their eyes fell on the duke of Orleans; who, in a circle of deputies, at a small distance, seemed to be a gay spectator of the melancholy scene. As the faithful gardes-du-corps were untied from the coach-box, they were threatened with being instantly torn in pieces by the savage fury of the populace. The royal family were again lodged in the Tuileries under the responsibility of M. de Lafayette. Several tents were pitched in the garden, and all the avenues were occupied by national guards under his command.

Meanwhile, the question whether the king was subject to trial or punishment, was under discussion all over France, but particularly in the capital. The squares and public gardens were filled with groups of people, to whom certain well known orators ranged against the conduct of the National Assembly, who had decreed that the king should not be farther questioned respecting what was passed, and that the constitution should be accomplished as was first intended. Robespierre coming out of the hall found the street filled with those groups; who spreading around the patriot as soon as they,
observed him. "Alas! my friends," he was heard to say, "all is ruined; the king "is to be restored." This was repeated all over Paris, as an unanswerable proof that 
the Assembly were traitors, and the country undone. The multitude afterwards resorted 
to the Champ de Mars, with a seditious declared or petition, of which many copies 
were made, and the people invited to sign it on the altar of confederation, which still 
stood in that field. When the National Assembly heard of those proceedings, they or-
dered the municipal officers of Paris to their bar, and directed them to take measures for 
dispersing these tumultuous assemblies, and punishing their promoters.

The first measure which the municipality adopted was to issue a proclamation, im-
porting "that as it was discovered that strangers paid by the enemies of France to sow 
sedition and to promote insurrection, had drawn numbers to assemble under the pretence 
of signing a petition, but with the real intention of overawing the legislature, and ruin-
ing the nation, orders had been given to the commander of the national guards to dis-
perse all groups in the streets, or assemblies in the fields, and to seize the disobedient 
and carry them to prison." As to strangers paid by the enemies of France in order to 
excite disturbances, it was an idle and ridiculous tale. Such accusations are often pro-
claimed by those who know their falsehood, in order to render the measures against 
which the proclamation is issued the more unpopular. The proclamation had little ef-
fect. Vast numbers crowded to the Champ de Mars to sign the declaration. Two 
persons were murdered upon an unfounded report that they had contrived to blow up all 
the patriots male and female who were upon the altar. When the municipality heard 
of those murders, they gave orders that M. la Fayette should directly march at the 
head of a sufficient number of national guards, and use effectual means to seize the mur-
derers and disperse the insurgents. Martial law at the same time was formally proclaim-
ed; and a red flag was displayed from a window of the town-house. When these troops 
arrived at the Champ de Mars, they found it crowded by a furious multitude, who, in-
stead of dispersing, insulted the troops with repeated exclamations; "Down with the 
"red flag; away with the bayonets," and even by throwing stones. M. Bailly, the 
mayor, desired the troops to halt; and after the formalities which the law required, M. 
la Fayette ordered part of them to fire over the heads of the mob. When they perceiv-
ed that none were wounded, it confirmed them in an opinion which their instigators had 
inspired them with, that neither the general nor the mayor durst fire with ball. From 
this idea they became more outrageous; the soldiers and some of the national guards 
were wounded. The troops fired upon their aggressors, of whom betwixt 60 and 70 
were killed or wounded. The multitude then fled to the city, exclaiming against the 
general and the mayor for having ordered innocent persons to be massacred. The open 
and avowed exciters of this insurrection immediately disappeared. Danton, hearing that 
an order was issued for arresting him, fled to Marseilles. Camille Desmoulins followed 
his example. Others of less eminence lurked in Paris. Marat betook himself to a 
subterranean habitation which had been prepared for him by Le Gendre the butcher, 
which had served to secret him from justice on various occasions, both before and since 
the period we are now treating of. It is much to be regretted that he was not dug out 
and executed on this occasion. It would have prevented a great deal of mischief of 
which he was afterwards the cause; and he would have died with more propriety by the 
hand of the hangman, than by that of the extraordinary and most interesting woman 
who gave him the mortal blow. Her name was Marie Charlotte Cordé. She was a 
beautiful young woman of an unblemished character, distinguished for dignity of sen-
timent and benevolence of heart, but who had never given cause of suspicion of a dis-
turbed understanding, nor, until she stuck a poinard in the heart of Marat, any indica-
tion of a violent temper. This insurrection was likewise promoted by Brissot, a man of 
the most profligate principles and fully equal to any sort of determined villany.

The committee which had been employed for a considerable time in digesting and 
arranging the constitutional decrees, had now concluded its labour. The whole was 
read to the assembly on the 4th of August 1791. It was then debated article by ar-
ticle, and on the third of September presented to the king, who was at the same time 
restricted by the assembly to accept or reject the whole without exception or observa-
tion. On the 13th of the same month, being attended by a deputation of sixty mem-
bers, the king went to the assembly, and sanctioned the assent he had the day before sent in writing, by an oath to be faithful to the nation, and to employ the powers vested in him for the maintenance of the constitution; and on the 30th of September the assembly was terminated by its own spontaneous dissolution.

Thus concluded the labours of the Constituent Assembly, the first and principal actors in the French Revolution. Their merits have been variously appreciated, as men were disposed either to praise or condemn the system upon which they acted: That there were some men of rank, talents, and integrity among them, cannot be doubted; but that they were overborne by a strong and active party who had planned the destruction of every existing establishment, and became only the instruments of their absurd projects, is as certain; and whatever praise may be bestowed on this first assembly by some, who affect to separate the horrors of the revolution from the revolution itself, they ought to be considered in no other light than the destroyers of their country. Acting upon their visionary and wretched theories, they not only overwhelmed their own country with ruin, but, by their avowed intention of aiding and promoting insurrection in every nation, they spread terror and alarm through all Europe. By one mad decree they entirely abolished the ancient government, while they had nothing to substitute in its place, and thus they deprived the laws of that reverence and awe with which they ought to be viewed by the people, and at once opened a door for the introduction of universal anarchy, and all the excesses which naturally result from the licentious and ungovernable fury of the passions, when every restraint is withdrawn. Finally, all the disasters which have plunged France into an abyss of misery, rendered the country a field of blood, converted an elegant, a polished, and a civilized, people, into a horde of robbers and murderers, and furnished the historian with such a tale of woe, as exceeds all the power of language or conception adequately to display; all has sprung from the powerful energy of these mischievous principles, which gave rise to the revolution, and have ever since directed all its movements.

The second assembly met on the 1st of October 1791, composed mostly of men with no pretension to knowledge, atheistical fanatics, who were determined, if possible, to effect the total abolition of monarchy, and to eradicate every trace of religion from the minds of the people of France. The promoters of the late insurrection, instead of being pursued with vigour, and brought to trial, were allowed to appear again in the capital, and some of them were chosen members of the assembly; particularly Brissot, who in a short time became the centre of that circle, so well known under the name of Girondist. By their emissaries rumours of new plots and conspiracies, of an Austrian committee within the palace, and other tales equally false, were propagated and insinuated in the journals supposed to be under the direction of the leading men of the party. The king's character was grossly misrepresented, and new sources of calumny were opened against the queen. To that species of slander to which female beauty is most exposed, others were added of a more important nature, in which the independence and freedom of the nation were deeply concerned.

The decrees pronounced against the king's brothers had not entirely satisfied the Jacobins, who governed the majority of the assembly by their influence and threats; their rancour required another violent decree against the emigrants, and the assembly satisfied them in this point by issuing one, which not only exceeded its powers, but was even contrary to the spirit of the constitution. This was so evident, that after a minute discussion, the king's ministers unanimously advised him to refuse his sanction. But as the king had never yet employed this prerogative, the ministers were of opinion, that to prevent its having a bad effect on the public, and likewise that it might strike the assembly with some degree of awe, it would be prudent to give to this measure an unusual degree of solemnity, by ordering the refusal of the sanction, to be carried to the assembly in the form of a royal message, by all the ministers; whose presence would mark their unanimous agreement. The 12th of November being the day fixed for the message of the king, all the ministers met at the house of the Garde des Sceaux, that they might go together to the assembly, before they set out. The Garde des Sceaux called for and drank two large glasses of water; M. Bertrand minister of the marine asked him if he was ill. "No, answered he, it is only a precaution I take every time
I go to the assembly. The blood boils in my veins when I hear these fellows speak; and if I did not take something to cool myself, I should get into a passion, and be apt to tell them disagreeable truths."

"I hope? replied Bertrand, "all this water will only moderate the passions, without weakening those truths you have to tell them, be they agreeable or not."

"Fear not," replied he.

The appearance of all the ministers with a message from the king, the first the assembly had ever received, and of which the object was entirely unknown, excited a general and profound silence in the hall and in the tribunes. That of the tribunes could only be imputed to curiosity; but in the silence of the assembly there was at least as much uneasiness as surprize. The Garde des Sceaux began by laying upon the table the different decrees which the king had sanctioned, among which there were two or three which the assembly had expected with a good deal of impatience. He terminated the first part of his mission by informing the assembly, that with respect to the decree against the emigrants the king would examine it; which signified, in constitutional language, that the decree was refused. He then drew from his pocket the paper which contained the discourse. Unluckily the water operated at that moment with so much violence, that his colour forsook him, his hands trembled, and his voice failed him so much, that he could hardly read. And what was still more unlucky, the first phrase, instead of relating to the subject of the message, mentioned the refusal of the sanction. He was not permitted to proceed farther. A general murmur arose. All the deputies spoke at once. Every one insisted upon being heard, but no silence was to be obtained. They all vociferously exclaimed, "M. Le President, we cannot listen to this message." "This message is unconstitutional." "It is the motives for refusing the sanction." Call the minister of justice to order." "M. Le President, the constitution—" "M. Le President, allow me to make a motion of order." This tumult lasted seven or eight minutes. The minister waited the issue of it standing. At length the president put it to the vote, whether they should hear the message, or pass to the order of the day. The Garde des Sceaux, entirely disconcerted by this tumultuous scene, sat down with the other ministers, giving up all hopes of being heard. To prevent such an unexpected and unfortunate termination to the business, M. Bertrand asked leave to speak. He rose, and said that he now had nothing to say; but had he been heard before, the last motion was carried, he should have informed the assembly, that the object of the king's message was to acquaint them with the new measures adopted by his majesty for stopping the emigration. This renewed the tumult; one party insisting on hearing the message, and recalling the decree just pronounced; the other explaining for its execution. But the ministers remaining passive, and the Garde des Sceaux, who ought to have represented to the assembly, that they had no right, by the constitution, to refuse to hear any message from the king, being silent, the order of the day was adopted.

The legislative assembly manifested so great a disposition to put an unfavourable construction on the king's measures, that he was constantly on his guard, had the constitution always before his eyes, and seldom proposed any plan to his ministers, or adopted any one proposed by them, without previously examining whether or not it was strictly conformable to it, and if there were doubts on that head, he generally rejected the measure. This attention rendered it difficult for the king's enemies to find what they looked for, any matter of accusation founded on his having infringed the constitution. An attempt was made to put that construction on his having made use of the veto. It was peculiarly unfortunate, that at this period there should exist a misunderstanding among some of the ministry, which terminated in the entire dissolution of this administration.

When this event took place, the king was advised by M. Cahier de Gerville to form an administration of a popular nature, as the consequence of acquiring the confidence of the nation. Dumourier was appointed minister for foreign affairs, Roland was named minister for the interior, and Claviere minister of contribution. This has been generally called the Jacobin administration.

In the disordered state of the country, it is natural to imagine that war would have been an additional evil, and avoided with the utmost care. It was not, however, view-
ed in that light by the Jacobins, but rather as forwarding their favourite object; on the 20th of April, therefore, the king, compelled by this Jacobin administration, went to the assembly, and proposed that war should be declared against the king of Hungary and Bohemia. The proposal was heard with universal applause, and decreed by the assembly with unanimity. The popularity which the king acquired by this declaration of war alarmed the Jacobins so much, that they thought it necessary to revive a tale which had formerly been circulated, and had afterwards been discredited, namely, that a society of persons chosen by the queen, frequently met in the apartments of madame de Lamballe, on purpose to concert measures to assist the emperor in his invasion of France; and to send occasional instructions how to proceed. This was called the Austrian committee; and it was imagined that it would raise a greater indignation, and on that very account be more eagerly believed, now when the emperor was at war with France, than formerly. The journals, therefore, began again to be filled with the accounts of this dreadful committee; harangues were made nightly in the Jacobin club, and it became the chief theme of the orators in the Palais Royal.

In the meantime an occurrence happened, which produced an extraordinary fermentation in the minds of the people and even the deputies; of which advantage being taken by the king’s enemies, it had an effect with which it might naturally have been thought to have no connection. A large edition of the memoirs of madame de la Motte had been bought long before by the direction of government, and was locked up in a room of M. la Port’s house in the Louvre. He was at that time intendant of the civil list, and from the hurry of affairs had neglected to destroy this work until the 30th of May 1792, when he made them be carefully packed up in a couple of wagons and carried to the manufactory of Seves, where they were burned; during the execution of this, as the spectators were prevented from satisfying the curiosity which they expressed to examine what the piles of paper were, which they beheld in this mysterious manner committed to the flames, some of them concluded that they could be no other than the registers of the famous Austrian committee of which they had heard so much, but of whose existence no trace had ever been discovered before. This sagacious inference was no sooner made, than the news was spread that the records of the horrid Austrian committee had been burned at Seves; and within a few hours the street orators of Paris repeated to the groups assembled in the public places, the contents of some of those bloody records which they pretended to have learned from persons who had read them, in spite of the care taken to prevent it. Those who had ever expressed a doubt of the existence of an Austrian committee were treated as miscreants. The news was brought to the national assembly, where it excited the most violent agitation and heat; in the midst of which, a member who watched an opportunity for obtaining a decree against the constitutional troops, thought the present rage against the court would answer the purpose as well as any accusation against the troops themselves. He therefore proposed that they should be immediately reduced, and that the duke de Brissac their commander, who in all probability was a member of the Austrian committee, and possibly was privy to the burning of the records, should be sent prisoner to Orleans. The next day the most convincing evidence was given, that the papers burned at Seves were the memoirs of madame de la Motte, and that no other paper or record of any kind had been destroyed on that occasion. But these rumours had produced the effects their fabricators wished, and the effects continued after the falsehood and infamy of the authors were made manifest. The constitutional household troops were not re-established; and new sources of calumny against the king and queen were opened with more efficacy than ever.

The assembly, whose usurpations increased as the king’s powers of resistance were weakened, passed two most atrocious decrees in the beginning of June 1792. The first was for the banishment of the priests who had refused to take oath; and the second was for the formation of a camp of 20,000 men in the environs of Paris, to consist of volunteers from every department of the kingdom. It was very well known, that those volunteers would every where be chosen by the Jacobins, whose power was universally felt, and had impressed such general terror as gave them complete sway in every election; so that this army must of course have been made up of their creatures, the most
seditious and desperate villains in the kingdom. The king shewed the utmost repugnance to sanction either of their decrees, in spite of the threatening intimations he daily received from his ministers, Roland, Claviere, and Servan. At that time a quarrel subsisted betwixt these ministers and their colleagues, who, Jacobins as they were, seemed touched with the king’s misfortunes, and always behaved to him with respect. They were shocked with the conduct of Roland, Claviere, and Servan, and determined to take this opportunity to get them dismissed. Dumourier, with the approbation of his colleagues Duranthon and la Coste, undertook to propose three new ministers to the king. His majesty accepted the proposal with the joy of a person who feels himself suddenly relieved from a heavy load under which he is ready to sink.

On the rejection of their decrees, the Jacobins hastened to bring forward as insurrection which they had previously planned. On the 20th of June an immense multitude collected round the palace and garden of the Tuilleries. At four o’clock in the afternoon, the mob amounted to about 40,000, and the gates of the Tuilleries were thrown open to them. At the moment of their entrance the royal family were at dinner, and on their attempting to break open the door of the apartment where the king was, he rose to prevent the guards from making resistance, and said calmly, “I will go to them, I will prevent them from breaking the door.” On the instant that it opened, a pike which had been thrust against it to force it open, would have killed the king, but a chasseur turned the weapon aside with his hand. The cry of "Vive la Nation" resounded from all sides, and was evidently addressed to the king, upon which he loudly said that the nation had not a better friend than himself. A fellow of a sanguinary aspect, with a pike in his hand and evidently drunk, then forced his way to the king, and said rudely enough, “If you are telling the truth, prove it by putting on the bonnet “rouge.” “I consent,” replied the king, and directly the fellow, with one of his companions, advanced and put the cap on his head. It would be an unpleasing task to detail the indignities which were offered to the unfortunate monarch, and which he submitted patiently to bear. During the whole of the tumult the princess Elizabeth continued close by the side of her brother, as if she was born to be the victim of her generous affection, and to partake in all his unmerited disgraces and misfortunes. On the first breaking out of the rabble the queen fainted, and was accidentally separated from his majesty, and conveyed to the apartments of the king’s physician. As soon as she recovered, in her distraction she attempted to penetrate to the king; but was stopped in her way thither by the mob breaking into the council-chamber. The minister at war had fortunately retired to the same spot, who formed a kind of rampart of the great council-table, which he placed against the door, with a double row of national guards before it. Behind the table stood the queen and her children, the Princess de Lamballe and some other ladies. In this situation she remained the whole time, condemned to hear the most indecent reproaches, and the foulest imprecations, from the meanest and most depraved of her sex.

While the king was in this manner surrounded with bands of ruffians, and not sure of his life for a moment, the duke of Brunswick on the 25th of July issued his celebrated manifesto, which was attended with very bad consequences. It irritated the minds even of the more moderate patriots, and the reproaches cast on the king by the Jacobins gained universal belief. Regardless of the menaces contained in that manifesto, the republican party resolved upon the deposition of the king. The chiefs of this party were Vergniaud, Guadet, and Gensonné. To accomplish their purpose, they resolved upon a second insurrection. A letter signed by these three deputies was delivered to the king, in which it was declared that "the discontents of the people were ready to break out in a very terrible manner; that an insurrection, much more considerable and violent than the 20th of June was already planned and ready to burst forth at the first signal; that it would take place in a fortnight, and that the dethroning of his majesty was the mildest consequence it would have; that his only means of avoiding this catastrophe was to recall Roland, Servan, and Claviere, to the ministry at farthest; that if the king would consent, and give them his word, they would pledge their heads to prevent the insurrection from taking place.”
To avert the dreadful consequences of this conspiracy, every preparation was made for the defence of the palace. Those battalions of national guards, who were on duty there were extremely well disposed to the king. Their commanders and officers were entirely devoted to him. The Swiss guards were also of approved bravery and fidelity. Those troops were reinforced by gentlemen and royalists of every rank, whom the danger of the royal family drew in crowds to the palace. On this eventful night no person in the palace went to bed. About six o'clock in the morning of the 10th the king descended into the gardens to review the troops. He then returned to the palace, and the multitude continued to collect. Had the king remained in the palace he might have repelled the insurrection of that fatal day; but giving way to solicitations, perhaps per-fidious, unquestionably unfortunate, he sought an asylum in the hall of the national assembly, among those who were preparing a prison, chains, and death, for him and his family.

The insurgents amounted to about 20,000 men. They were drawn up in tolerable order by Westerman a Prussian, and had about 30 pieces of cannon along with them. The gentlemen within the king's palace were now dispirited and knew not what part to act. The commander of the Swiss M. Affry was absent, and the captains knew not what to do. About nine o'clock the outer gates were forced open; and the insurgents formed their line in front of the palace. A bloody combat commenced between the Marseillois and the Swiss. All of them that could be found in the palace were massacred by these brutal ruffians, even while imploring quarter on their knees. Others escaped into the city and were protected by individuals. Of this brave regiment only 200 survived; but every human being, even the lowest servants in the palace, were put to death. The Swiss taken prisoners in various quarters were conducted to the door of the assembly, and taken by a decree under the protection of the state. The suspension of the royal authority was now decreed, and the nation was invited to elect a Convention to determine the nature of its future government.

Meanwhile the combined armies of Austria and Prussia had entered France. The duke of Brunswick's army was about 50,000 strong. General Clairfait had joined him with 15,000 Austrians, and a considerable body of Hessians, along with 20,000 French emigrants; amounting in all to 90,000 men. At first their progress into France was very rapid. Longwy surrendered after a siege of fifteen hours, although strongly fortified. Verdun was next summoned; and the governor being compelled by the municipality to surrender, shot himself dead with a pistol in presence of the council, and on 2d of September the Prussians entered the town.

The news of this second capture, and of the approach of the Prussians spread an instant alarm through Paris. The common council, which was now led by Robespierre, Danton, Marat, and other sanguinary monsters, ordered the alarm guns to be fired and the populace to be summoned to meet in the Champ de Mars to enroll themselves to march against the enemy. The people assembled, and a number of the emissaries of the Jacobins exclaimed, that the domestic foes of the nation ought to be destroyed before its foreign enemies were attacked.

Parties of those bloody ruffians proceeded immediately to the prisons where the Swiss officers, non-juring clergy, and those confined since the 10th of August on account of practices against the state, were detained in custody. They took out the prisoners one by one, gave them a kind of mock trial by a jury of themselves, acquitted some few, and murdered by far the greater number. These massacres lasted for two days, and upwards of 1000 persons were put to death. Such scenes of bloodshed took place in Paris as must for ever render the tyrants of France execrable and odious. In the dungeon of La Force was confined the beautiful and accomplished princess de Lamballe, the friend and confidant of the queen. This unfortunate lady was in bed, when she was summoned to appear before a kind of tribunal in the court of the prison. The person who carried the message, however, told her that it was intended to carry her to the Abbaye. She said, since she must be kept in prison, she was as well pleased with that she was in as another; and being a little indisposed, wished to remain in bed. She was then told that she must get up directly to appear before the tribunal. She begged of those who brought this second message, who were two men in the uniform of national
guards to retire till she was dressed, and she would attend them. They did so, and within a few minutes she was conducted before those pretended judges; it is said they wished to draw from her some matter of accusation against the queen. In this they were disappointed; but as there was no positive charge against herself, she was ordered to be removed. As she was conducted out of the prison, stupefied with horror at the mangled bodies that lay around her, she received from behind a blow on the head with a bludgeon which produced instantly a violent effusion of blood; her head was then severed from her body by a sabre. The lifeless corpse was dragged, by some of the wretches who flocked around, into an adjoining court, where, after a series of indignities not to be related, it was trailed by the mob through the streets. The head being fixed on a pike, was carried to the Temple for the express purpose of shocking the queen. The degree of rancour which those wretches displayed against the queen was as violent as it was unaccountable. After murdering her friend merely because she was her friend, they are not satisfied with letting her know that the afflicting event had taken place, but must wring her heart with the most cruel of all spectacles.

The advance of the combined armies were in the mean time rapid and formidable; it was not till the 20th of September that the French were enabled to stop the progress of their victorious adversaries. On that day general Kellerman sustained an attack from the duke of Brunswick for fourteen hours, and retained his post till 10 o'clock at night, and then took another position to the right of the Prussians, who suffered him quietly to make this movement, though it was not completed till the next morning. The pass of Biesme, which general Dillon had seized, proved an insurmountable obstacle to the duke of Brunswick's penetrating by the nearest route, to Paris; and finding it impossible to dislodge the French, he determined to make the circuit of the forest of Varennes and Grand Pré, a circuit of about fifty miles. The length of this march, with the great inclemency of the season, laid the foundation of that fatal disease which afterwards proved more destructive than the sword of the French. To complete this misfortune, the rivers were so swollen, that their supplies were almost entirely stopped, and the combined army was actually without bread for four days, the want of which the soldiers endeavoured to supply by the unripe grapes of Champaigne. Such were the distresses which induced the duke of Brunswick to propose an armistice to the French general. Various conjectures have been formed as to the motives of this convention. One thing is certain, that the duke of Brunswick shortly afterwards began to retreat, and gave up every fortress he had taken. Verdun surrendered on the 12th of October, and was followed by Longwy, which capitulated on the 22d. The Prussian army immediately evacuated the territories of France, and the country was solemnly proclaimed to be no longer in danger.

The republican arms were at present victorious in every quarter. War had been declared against the king of Sardinia on the 16th of September, and about the 20th Montesquieu entered the territories of Savoy; he was received with open arms by the inhabitants, who had not yet tasted the fruits of French liberty, and in a short time he subdued the whole country. They were no less successful in the circle of the Upper Rhine, where their operations were directed by general Custine. Spires, Worms, Mentz, and Franckfort, successively surrendered to them. By the union of the Prussians with the Hessians and Austrians, however, a check was put upon his career before the end of the campaign. On the 2d of September the Prussians appeared before Franckfort, the gates of which were opened to them by some of the populace, and the French were expelled. After the surrender of the city, a smart action took place between the two armies; the French maintained their ground from one o'clock till three, when they retired to a wood, whence they were able to annoy their adversaries and keep them in check.

We must now turn to the civil transactions of France, which at this period are peculiarly interesting. One of the last acts of the legislative assembly shows a most abominable profligacy of mind. This act was to legalize adultery, or authorise a community of women. The ordinary tribunals were enabled by a law to pronounce a sentence of divorce between any married couple, not only on mutual agreement, but on the application of either party, alleging simply, as a cause, incompatibility of humour or cha-
The female children were directed by this decree to be entirely confided to the care of the mother, as well as the males, to the age of seven years, when they were again to be recommitted to the superintendence of the father.

On the 20th of September the convention met; it was composed of the refuse of the constituent assembly, Robespierre and Petion, and other blood-thirsty ruffians, being re-chosen on this occasion. The infamous Paine was invited from England to represent one department; and a Prussian of the name of Clootz, a wretched maniac, whom the humanity of this country would have charitably provided with a cell in Bethlehem, was chosen to represent another. The department of Paris was first in infamy upon this as on every other occasion. There the prostituted duke of Orleans was united with the infamous incendiary and assassin Marat, with the painter David, and with Legendre, the butcher. Actors, news-writers, and men from almost the lowest ranks and stations, were mingled with the degraded remnants of the ci-devant noblesse, and with such of the clergy as had sufficient laxity of principle to disavow their engagements with the head of their church. On the first day of their meeting Collot d’Herbois, who had formerly been on the stage, ascended the tribune, and proposed the eternal abolition of royalty in France. It was in vain that M. Bazire and other members entreated the convention to proceed with more dignity and deliberation on so important a question. The abolition of royalty was voted by acclamation, and the house adjourned. Messages were sent to all parts of France intimating the decree, and by the influence of the Jacobins they were everywhere received with applause. It was next day decreed that all public acts should be dated by the year of the French Republic, and all citizens were declared eligible to the vacant offices and places. In the course of the succeeding sittings, the convention resolved, "That the French republic no longer acknowledges princes." The rage of republicanism was carried at this period to an unexampled excess of folly. With a most contemptible puerility, the innocent titles of Monsieur and Madame were abolished, and the awkward phraseology of citizen was substituted in their stead. The sudden dissolution of the judicial boards was a most atrocious measure, and perfectly conformable to the principles upon which these anarchists acted. The convention passed new decrees against the emigrants, more cruel and sanguinary than had been formerly passed. On the 9th of October it was decreed, that all emigrants taken in arms should be put to death twenty-four hours after they had been declared guilty by a military committee; and that all foreigners who had quitted the service of France, and entered into that of the enemy, should be considered as armed emigrants." Another decree, still more bloody, was passed on the 27th, by which these unfortunate exiles, who had returned to their native country, were ordered to depart in 24 hours, and the penalty of death awarded against those who should fail instantly to obey. There was a double motive for this decree; the persecution and oppression of those who by their misfortunes, are not in a situation to resist, gratified the malignity of their sanguinary enemies, and the property of the emigrants, murdered or driven into exile, was an irresistible incentive to those needy adventurers of which the convention was composed. Another decree was passed about this time, called in their vile jargon the decree of fraternitiy, inviting all those who wished for liberty to rise in rebellion against their lawful governors, and ordering their generals to assist them; it was passed by acclamation in the following terms: "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternitiy to all those people who wish to procure liberty, and they charge the executive power to send orders to the generals, to give assistance to such people as have suffered, and are now suffering, in the cause of liberty." What sort of liberty they meant may be easily conjectured from what had already happened in France.

The allied armies, meanwhile, had continued to retire before their victorious enemies; ever since they had raised the siege of Lisle. The first resistance which Dumourier experienced, was at the village of Bossu. Here the Austrians had taken an excellent position, but were unable to withstand the impetuosity of the enemy. They lost about 156 men, and 200 were taken prisoners. From Bossu Dumourier proceeded early next morning towards Mons, and soon came in sight of the Austrians, strongly posted on the heights of Gemappe. The French passed the night within sight of their adversaries.
At seven in the morning of the sixth of November, a very heavy cannonade commenced on both sides, and continued till ten without much effect on the part of the French; at noon, therefore, the general determined on a close attack. The number of the French who formed for this purpose, amounted to about 30,000, and the Austrians are computed to have been upwards of 20,000. The redoubts were carried in a very short time. The cavalry of the Austrians, however, advancing at this crisis, with a view of flanking the French, the general dispatched a son of the duke of Orleans to repel this attack, and supported him with a detachment of chasseurs and husars. At the same time some disorder appearing in Bournonville's cavalry, general Dumourier rallied them himself, and in the mean time the left wing, which consisted chiefly of the Belgian volunteers, had obtained possession of Gemappe, and the centre carried the second line of redoubts. After a short resistance on the heights, the Austrians, at about 2 o'clock, retreated with the utmost precipitation and disorder to Mons. The loss of both parties in this engagement must have been great. That of the Austrians has been estimated at nearly 4000 men, while that of the enemy amounted, by the French accounts, to 1000, but by other accounts to 10,000. The victory of Gemappe was decisive as to the fate of the Netherlands. Mons immediately surrendered, from whence Dumourier proceeded to Brussels, which he entered on the 14th of November.

While these affairs were transacting, Tournay, Malines, Ghent, and Antwerp, opened their gates to general Labourdonnaye. Louvain and Namur, after a faint resistance by the Austrian general Beaulieu, were taken by general Valence; Ostend was entered by the French fleet on the 15th of November; the citadels of Antwerp and Namur resisted for a short time, but the former capitulated on the 28th of November to general Miranda, and the latter on the 2d of December to general Valence; in a word, the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, Luxembourg only excepted, were subjected to the victorious arms of France before the conclusion of the year.

We now return to consider the state, condition, and transactions of France; and the first event that presents itself to our attention, is among the most atrocious and disgraceful acts that have stained the annals of the world. Before we conduct the reader to the prison of the Temple, the bar of the Convention, and the fatal scaffold, it may be necessary to offer some preliminary remarks to his attention.

It was an undoubted principle with the most active party of the convention, that while Louis lived, there would be no permanent security for them; the object, therefore of all their counsels and designs, was to bring the unhappy monarch to the fate which he so soon suffered. Legendre proposed that all who had consigned their opinions on the king's conduct to writing should lay them on the table of the assembly, and that after the intervention of one day, they should pronounce sentence on the culprit, without suffering him to utter a word in his defence. Robespierre thought the whole business might be completed in 24 hours, and that the assembly should not separate till it was concluded. St. Andre declared that Louis had been judged and condemned by the people on the 10th of August, and nothing was left for them to do but to proceed to execution. Those who desired the death of the king were alarmed at the effects which might be produced by such an awful and affecting spectacle, as would be presented on such an occasion, and they employed the most abominable and profligate means to counteract the influence which these circumstances might produce in favour of the king. Inflammatory papers were dispersed among the people, inciting them to insist on his immediate execution, or to execute him themselves; and to impress an opinion that the death of the royal sufferer was necessary to the existence of the French nation.

But while they endeavoured to dispose the public mind to co-operate with them, they contrived that the object of their diabolical enmity and injustice should be placed in a situation the most disadvantageous to himself, as it might tend to unsettle and trouble his mind, at a moment when he required all his powers to support them; and when his understanding to do him service must be clear and unclouded. To effect this base and infamous purpose, the whole of the intended proceedings were carefully concealed from the king, and it was merely from the zealous curiosity of Clery, his faithful valet de
chambre, that he barely knew the intentions of the convention to call him to their bar, a few days before it happened.

A commission of twenty-four deputies, selected from various committees, having been for some weeks employed in ransacking every suspected place for criminating papers, and in collecting evidence against the deposed monarch, produced on the sixth of November, a report full of vague and unsupported accusations; and on the following day the committee of legislation presented a plan for his trial.

But while those execrable ruffians were preparing this mock-trial for their degraded and insulted monarch, the sad and adverse state of his fortune did not deprive him of every friend. Several of his former adherents offered to stand forth in support of his innocence at the hazard of their lives. M. Cazales, so distinguished in the first assembly for his opposition to the Revolution, and who was then in England, solicited a pass-port that he might appear as counsel for the king. The same request was made by M. Narbonne, ex-minister of war, and M. Lally Tollendal. The marquis de Bouillé transmitted an attestation in his favour, respecting the flight to Montmédy, and an exculpatory letter to M. Choiseul, respecting the money paid by the marquis to the king's brothers. M. Bertrand also, ex-minister of marine, manifested the most zealous solicitude to appear as an evidence for his deposed sovereign. But when the proposal made by Manuel, for assuring to all those who should speak for the impeached Louis, the protection of the laws, was suppressed by murmurs and hootings, the spirit by which the assembly was actuated was too manifest to expect honour or justice from its conduct or decisions. They decreed the arraignment of Louis. But though he was reduced to a simple and accused citizen, he seemed still to inspire the convention with apprehension. They feared that the sad spectacle of degraded majesty, and the notorious injustice of the proceedings against him, would, in spite of all their cunning and horrid manoeuvres, awaken the loyalty that slumbered, or stimulate what was still awake, to unite in saving the royal object of its former duty, affection, and veneration, from the fate that appeared to await him.

On the 11th of December, at so early an hour as five in the morning the generale was beat throughout Paris, and a considerable body of cavalry, with several pieces of artillery, were introduced into the garden of the Temple. At 11 o'clock, while the king was endeavouring to calm his spirits by giving the usual instructions to the dauphin, or amusing the young prince by some agreeable recreation, two persons of the municipality entered to inform him that they must, by order of the convention, conduct the young Louis to his mother. Of this cruel and unexpected separation, the king in vain demanded the reason; and in a short time, one of the commissioners returned to inform him, that Chambon, the mayor of Paris, was preparing to make him an official visit. At one the mayor appeared. He was accompanied by Chaumette, solicitor of the Commune, and several other municipal officers, and Santerre, commander of the national guard, with his aid de camp. The mayor informed the king that he came to conduct him to the convention, in consequence of a decree, which the secretary should read to him. When that office was performed, the king concluded some observations on the cruelty of depriving him of the society of his son, by saying, I am ready to follow you; not indeed because I am disposed to obey the convention; but because my enemies possess the power to enforce obedience. A large military escort attended him from the gate of the Temple. At length, accompanied by the mayor, two generals, one of whom was Santerre, commander of the Parisian guards, and several municipal officers, Louis XVI. in an ordinary dress, with neglected hair, and a face long unshaven, was presented at the bar of the national convention. Such was the form and appearance of the fallen monarch, that he seemed to subdue, for a moment, the horrid malignity of his enemies, and to awe the uproar of inveterate Jacobinism into something like a respectful silence. The tumult of those who occupied the seats and galleries ceased at once, and sunk into a solemn stillness, when the extraordinary spectacle of their former king was presented to them in such a state of humility and degradation. Barrere the president immediately addressed him as he stood at the bar. "Louis, the French nation accuses you. The national convention decreed, on the 3d December, that you should be tried by it. On the 6th of December it was decreed that you should
be brought to the bar; and while the charges against you are read, you are permitted to seat yourself." The king who well knew that it would be as vain to disclaim the authority as to resist the power of the convention, submitted in silence to the proceeding against him; and having availed himself of the permission to sit, heard with profound attention the several papers read, in which he was accused of crimes, which may be arranged in two distinct classes, such as were prior, and such as were subsequent to the constitution. The fallacy and injustice of the charges in the first class, were so manifest, that some even of the vilest ruffians in the convention, demanded that they should be expugned in law, and nullified by the amnesty implied in the profiler and acceptance of the constitution. But the convention, with its usual disregard to every thing but its own will, rejected both these remonstrances with a contemptuous silence. When the articles of impeachment had been read, a long list of frivolous and insidious questions, previously revised by the convention, was put to the king by the president; but all their arts to enshrine this unhappy monarch were unsuccessful; for though the questions proposed to him, were prepared by a committee for that purpose, and afterwards reconsidered by the convention; and though he was suddenly led away amidst insult and indignity, and without preparation to answer them on the instant; yet such was his conduct on this trying occasion, such the calm and majestic character of his deportment, such the readiness and sagacity of his replies, and such the predominating proofs of his innocence, that several of his most virulent enemies were filled with alarm, lest such a combination of affecting circumstances, should have at once recalled the spirit of ancient loyalty into the bosoms of his former subjects who heard and beheld him. After the examination was closed, the president addressing the king, said, "I have no other questions to propose—have you any thing more to add in your defence?" "I desire to have a copy of the accusation," replied the king, "and of the papers on which it is founded. I also desire to have a counsel of my own nomination." Barrere informed him, that his two first questions were already decreed, and that the determination respecting the other would be made known to him in due time. The king immediately withdrew.

A very violent debate now ensued in the convention; wherein, to use the expression of their president, the assembly assumed the appearance of gladiators rather than of lawgivers; it was however, decreed, after a most tumultuous sitting, that Louis should be indulged with a counsel for his defence. When he was informed of this decree, the king named Turgot and Tronchet, the former of whom declined the office, while several persons of distinguished talents and character, eagerly pressed forward to be employed in the service of their degraded sovereign, on the trying and dangerous occasion. Of these he chose M. de Lamoignon Malesherbes, who at the age of seventy-two had the courage to plead his cause. In the letter to the president of the convention, expressing this humane and noble desire, he says, "I was once called to the councils of him, who was then my master, and at a time when such a function was an universal object of ambition; I now owe him the same service, when it is an office that in the opinion of many is attended with risk and peril." Such was the multiplicity of papers to be examined in order to frame the king's defence, that his counsel found it impossible to proceed with that dispatch which the convention expected of them; they accordingly applied for permission to demand the assistance of M. de Seze; and a third counsel was accordingly granted.

On the 26th of December the king was conducted a second time to the bar of the convention, where he appeared with the same unembarrassed air as he manifested on his first examination; and when the president informed him that the convention had appointed this day for hearing his defence, he replied, with a firm voice and undaunted aspect, "My counsel (pointing to M. de Seze) is to speak for me."—The king then sat down. M. Malesherbes and M. Tronchet took their seats on each side of their august client; and M. de Seze began a most masterly and argumentative speech, which had been prepared by the united skill, labour, and talents, of these able advocates. But eloquence was lost upon those sanguinary wretches, who were determined above all things to effect the murder of this amiable prince.
FROM THE REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONERS WHO WERE APPOINTED TO DO DUTY AT THE TEMPLE, 
WE LEARN THE FOLLOWING PARTICULARS, WHICH, THOUGH MINUTE, SERVE TO ILLUSTRATE THE CHARAC-
TER OF THE KING. THE COMMISSIONERS HAVING ACCORDING TO CUSTOM DRAWN LOTS FOR THEIR 
DIFFERENT POSTS, THAT OF THE KING'S APARTMENT FALL TO A M. CUBIERES, WHO WITH ANOTHER 
COMMISSIONER, WAS INTRODUCED, THE KING BEING THEN ASLEEP. HE ROSE AS USUAL AT SEVEN, 
AND TOOK A BOOK, WHICH THEY AFTERWARDS FOUND WAS A BREVIARY; BREAKFAST WAS BROUGHT AT 
NINE, BUT THE KING REFUSED TO EAT, BECAUSE IT WAS THE FAST OF LE QUATRE TEMPS. HE 
SPENT SOME TIME IN PRAYER AND AFTERWARDS ASKED CUBIERES ABOUT THE HEALTH OF HIS QUEEN 
AND SISTER. HE WALKED MUSING THROUGH THE ROOM, AND THEN RAISING HIS EYES TO HEAVEN, 
"THIS DAY (SAID HE) MY DAUGHTER IS FOURTEEN YEARS OF AGE." THE UNHAPPY PRINCE RE-
PEATED THE SAME EXPRESSION AFTER A PAUSE, DURING WHICH THE TEARS FLOWED FROM HIS EYES 
AND HE WAS GREATLY AGITATED.

THE CONVENTION, AFTER HAVING ADJUDGED THE KING GUILTY, AND VOTED AGAINST THE APPEAL 
NOMINAL, THEREBY CONSTITUTING THEMSELVES ACCUSERS AND JUDGES, MET ON THE 16TH TO DE-
TERMINE THE PUNISHMENT. THE FATAL CEREMONY EMPLOYED THE WHOLE DAY AND ENDED IN A 
SENTENCE OF DEATH. THE SENTENCE, AFTER SUBTRACTING THOSE WHO VOTED FOR DEATH WITH 
CERTAIN RESTRICTIONS, DOES NOT APPEAR TO HAVE BEEN CARRIED BY MORE THAN FIVE VOTES. WHEN 
THE PRESIDENT HAD DECLARED THE STATE OF THE SCRUTINY, AND THAT LOUIS XVI. WAS SENTENCED 
TO SUFFER DEATH, HIS COUNCIL WERE ADMITTED TO THE BAR, AND M. DE SEZE IMMEDIATELY SPOKE 
AS FOLLOWS:

"CITIZENS REPRESENTATIVES. THE LAW AND YOUR OWN DECREES HAVE ENTRUSTED TO US THE 
SACRED OFFICE OF DEFENDING LOUIS; AND WE NOW APPROACH YOU WITH SORROW, TO PERFORM 
THE LAST DUTY OF OUR FUNCTION. LOUIS HAS EXPRESSLY CHARGED US TO READ A LETTER SIGNED BY 
HIS OWN HAND, AND THESE ARE THE CONTENTS OF IT."—"I OWE TO MY HONOUR, I OWE TO MY 
FAMILY, NOT TO SUBSCRIBE TO A SENTENCE, WHICH DECLARES ME GUILTY OF A CRIME WHICH MY 
CONSCIENCE DISDAINS. I THEREFORE APPEAL TO THE NATION AT LARGE, FROM THE SENTENCE OF ITS 
REPRESENTATIVES, AND, BY THESE PRESENTS, I EMPower MY COUNSEL, AND CHARGE THEM ON THEIR 
FIDELITY, TO MAKE THIS APPEAL KNOWN TO THE NATIONAL CONVENTION, BY ALL MEANS IN THEIR 
POWER, AND TO DEMAND THAT MENTION BE MADE OF IT IN THE MINUTES OF THEIR SITTINGS."

"SIGNED, LOUIS."

M. DE SEZE THEN IMPLIED THE NATIONAL CONVENTION TO CONSIDER BY WHAT A SMALL MA-
JORITY THE PUNISHMENT OF DEATH WAS PRONOUNCED AGAINST LOUIS. "DO NOT AFFICT FRANCE, 
said he, BY A JUDGMENT THAT WILL APPEAR TO HER TO BE TERRIBLE, WHEN IT WAS CARRIED BY NO 
MORE THAN FIVE VOTES." BY THE PREVIOUS QUESTION, HOWEVER, THE CONVENTION REJECTED THE 
APPEAL TO THE PEOPLE, AFTER A SITTING OF THIRTY-SIX HOURS; 310 VOICES WERE THEN DECLARED 
TO BE FOR A RESPITE OF THE SENTENCE, AND 380 AGAINST IT.

ALL HOPES BEING NOW OVER, AND THIS ATROCIOUS MURDER BEING DETERMINED ON, THE KING 
REQUESTED THAT THE SENTENCE MIGHT BE DELAYED FOR THREE DAYS, IN ORDER THAT HE MIGHT BE 
PRETTY PREPARED TO APPEAR IN PRESENCE OF HIS GOD, AND THAT HE MIGHT BE FREELY VISITED BY 
a PERSON, WHOM HE SHOULD NAME, WHO WOULD BE QUALIFIED TO ASSIST HIM IN THAT SOLEMN ACT 
OF PREPARATION. HE THEN NAMED M. EDEGWORTH DE FERMONT, AS THE ECCLESIASTIC WHOM 
HE WOULD WISH TO SEE, IF THAT PRIVILEGE SHOULD BE GRANTED TO HIM. AT SIX IN THE AFTERN-
NOON, GARET RETURNED TO INFORM THE KING THAT THE CONVENTION HAD DECREE HIM THE PER-
MISSION TO RECEIVE THE PERSON WHOM HE NAMED, AND WHO NOW ACCOMPANIED HIM. SIX OR 
SEVEN OF THAT COURT, CALLED CONSEIL DE LA COMMUNE SEANT AU TEMPLE, HAD ACCOMPANIED THE 
MINISTER TO THE KING'S CHAMBER. THEY BEHAVED TO M. EDEGWORTH, NOT ONLY WITHOUT 
COMPASSION, BUT THEY EVEN SHOVED A FEROCIOUS JOY. THEY RUDELY SEARCHED ALL HIS POCKETS; 
OPENED HIS SNIF-FBOX TO SEE WHETHER IT DID NOT CONTAIN POISON, EXAMINED HIS PENCIL-CASE, 
ON PRETENCE THAT IT MIGHT CONTAIN A STILETTO. THEY THEN MADE HIM ASCEND TO THE KING'S 
APARTMENT BY A LIKE NARROW STAIR, WHERE SENTINELS WERE PLACED AT SMALL INTERVALS, SOME 
OF THEM DRUNK, SWEARING AND SINGING AS IF IT HAD BEEN AN ALEHOUSE. THE MINISTER OF 
JUSTICE WAS STILL IN THE KING'S APARTMENT WITH THOSE MEMBERS OF THE COUNCIL WHO HAD ACC-
COMPANIED HIM TO HIS MAJESTY; THE SERENE DIGNITY OF WHOSE COUNTENANCE FORMED A STRIK-
ING CONTRAST WITH THE HAGGARD AND VILLAINOUS LOOKS OF THE WRETCHES WHO SURROUNDED HIM. 
AS SOON AS THE KING PERCEIVED THE ABBE EDEGWORTH, HE MADE A MOVEMENT EXPRESSIVE OF 
HIS DESIRE TO BE LEFT ALONE WITH HIM. THE OTHERS IMMEDIATELY WITHDREW. THE KING 
SHUT THE DOOR, AND TURNED TOWARDS THE ABBE, WHO SANK ON HIS KNEES, KISSED HIS MAJESTY'S

B b
hand, and bathed it with his tears. The king, equally affected, raised M. Edgeworth, saying, "None but the most unrelenting of men have been allowed to approach me of late, my eyes are accustomed to them; but the sight of a man of humanity, a faithful subject, affects my whole soul, and melts me as you see." It is impossible to do justice to the devout, sublime, and heroic sentiments expressed by the king in this interesting conference, particularly when he spoke of his own situation and that of his family; but above all—when he dwelt on the misfortunes of his country. After their conversation, he rose, saying, "I must now go and see my family for the last time. This will be the severest trial of all. When that is over, I shall fix my mind solely on what concerns my salvation."

Leaving the abbé Edgeworth in his closet, the unhappy prince went to the room where his family were already assembled, and which was separated only by a door, from that in which were two commissaries constantly on duty; this door was formed of panes of glass from top to bottom like a window; so that those two men could see and hear all that passed. In such horrible circumstances, and in this dismal room, did the king of France meet his deploring family, now rendered more dear to him than ever by his own approaching fate, and their unexampled misfortunes. "At half past eight o'clock (says M. Clery, the king's valet-de-chambre) the door was opened; the queen appeared first, holding her son in her hand; the princess-royal and madame Elizabeth followed; they all threw themselves into the arms of the king. A mournful silence reigned for some minutes, which was only interrupted by loud sobs. The queen made a motion to draw the king towards her room; "No," said the king, let us go into this hall; I am not permitted to see you in any other place." They went in, and M. Clery shut the door, which was made in part of glass. The king sat down, the queen at his left hand, madame Elizabeth at his right, the princess-royal faced him, and the young prince stood between his legs. All leaned towards him and frequently embraced him. This affecting scene lasted one hour and three quarters, during which time it was impossible to hear any thing; we saw, only, that after every expression of the king, the sobs of the princesses redoubled for some minutes, and then the king began again to speak. It was easy to know by his motions that he had himself told them of his condemnation. At a quarter past ten o'clock, the king rose, and they all followed him. M. Clery opened the door. The queen held the king by his right arm. Their majesties gave each a hand to the dauphin. The princess-royal, at the left, had her arms round the body of the king. Madame Elizabeth, on the same side, but a little farther back, had seized the left arm of her brother. They moved a few paces towards the door, at which they uttered the most terrible groans. I assure you, said the king to them, that I shall see you to-morrow morning at eight o'clock. You promise us that you will, replied they all together. Yes, I promise you it. Why not at seven o'clock, said the queen. Very good; well at seven o'clock, said the king—adieu! He pronounced this adieu in a manner so expressive, that the sobs redoubled. The princess-royal swooned away, and fell at the king's feet which she embraced: I raised her, and assisted madame Elizabeth to support her. The king, wishing to put an end to this heart-rending scene, tenderly embraced them and tore himself from their arms. Adieu! adieu! he said, and hurried into his room." He was in a state of emotion that cannot be described. "Why," said he, addressing himself to the abbé Edgeworth, after he had somewhat recovered himself, "Why do I love with such tenderness, and wherefore am I so tenderly beloved? but now the painful sacrifice is over. Let me now turn my thoughts to the care of my salvation alone." Nothing now remained for the consolation of the king but to perform the rites and receive the communion of his church; and M. Edgeworth, after some opposition from the commissaries, obtained the solicited indulgence. The king was no sooner informed of this than he immediately entered upon his confession. When that solemn duty was performed, M. Edgeworth perceiving his royal penitent to be almost exhausted with the fatigue and anguish he had suffered during the day, entreated him to go to bed and endeavour to obtain a little rest. The king complied with this request, and enjoyed a calm undisturbed repose till five the next morning, when he was awakened according to his order.
All Paris had been under arms since five o'clock, while the sound of drums, the noise of arms, the clatter of horses, the passage of cannon, were distinctly heard in the tower. At nine the bustle increased, when the doors were thrown open with violence, and Santerre appeared, attended by ten gendarmes. On his informing the king, who came from his closet, that he was come to conduct him to the scaffold, his majesty asked only a few minutes, when he re-entered, and falling on his knees before his confessor, received his last benediction. He then threw open the door, and with a firm voice said to Santerre, "Let us be gone." M. Edgeworth followed him, and entered with him into the carriage provided for the occasion. When the carriage stopped at the scaffold, the king immediately descended from it; and having thrown off his coat, was about to ascend the scaffold, when the executioner seized his hands, in order to tie them behind him. As he was not prepared for this last insult, he appeared disposed to repel it; but M. Edgeworth, sensible that resistance would be in vain, said to him, "Sire, this new humiliation is another circumstance in which your majesty's sufferings resemble those of that Saviour who will soon be your reward." This observation instantly removed all repugnance.

It was while he was mounting the scaffold, supported by the abbé Edgeworth, that this servant of God, as if by inspiration, addressed the king in this sublime expression, "Offspring of St Louis, ascend to heaven!". As soon as he came upon the scaffold, advancing with a firm step to the part which faced the palace, he desired the drums to cease, and was immediately obeyed, in spite of the orders they had received. He then in strong terms asserted his innocence of the crimes laid to his charge, and was continuing, when that most atrocious of villains, Santerre, pushed furiously towards the drummers, and forced them to beat without interruption. The executioners at the same time laid hold of their victim, and the horrid deed was completed. This cruel, unprovoked, and atrocious murder, excited among foreign nations the strongest emotions of astonishment, horror, and execration. They saw with regret that a band of robbers and murderers had usurped the government of France, and had not only overwhelmed their own country with bloodshed and anarchy, but with the most unexampled zeal laboured to reduce every other country in the world to the same dreadful situation. This dangerous disposition, which broke forth upon every occasion, the violent decrees which had been passed by the convention, holding out encouragement to traitors in every country, the ungovernable ambition and spirit of aggrandizement which they manifested, at all times dangerous, but particularly so, when connected with the propagation of their vile principles, determined the British government to remain no longer unconcerned spectators of what was transacting on the continent. M. Chauvelin was commanded to leave Britain, and another minister, to whom the French executive council gave powers, was not suffered to land. The French, whatever the intention of Britain might have been, on the 1st of February 1793, on the motion of Brissot, declared war against England. As the transactions of this war have been related in the history of England, we will not tire the reader by an unnecessary detail of the conflicts of the hostile armies in the history of France, as the internal history of that country cannot fail to be more interesting; we shall only observe that, notwithstanding the partial successes of the allies, the French were completely successful, and overrun the whole of Holland together with the Low Countries.

The convention of France had now become one continued scene of recrimination and commotion. In the month of March they established that bloody revolutionary tribunal for trying offences against the state; another decree was passed on the 29th of March by which it was declared, that all persons convicted of composing or printing writings for the restoration of monarchy in France, or the dissolution of the national representation, should be punished with death. The proposal of the financier Cannon, for a compulsory loan of 1,000,000,000 of livres from all those who were indifferent to the cause of French liberty, and who were suspected of taking an interest in the success of their enemies, produced a most disgraceful scene of tumult and uproar. Brissot and his party exclaimed against the tyranny of a forced loan, and represented, in the most violent terms, its counter-revolutionary operation. The adherents of the different parties, who occupied the galleries, took a part in the debates; such indeed was the cha-
mourn and outrage, that the president, unable to control the proceedings, resigned his office. Barrere endeavoured to divert their attention from these contests, to objects of public utility. But the people were too much inflamed and agitated by political discussion to be turned aside from these contests by any scheme of internal regulation. Though the constituted authorities had been invited to assemble and concert measures for the salvation of their country; and though repeated proclamations had exhorted the citizens to tranquility, nevertheless the city of Paris was, on the morning of the 31st, in such a state of confusion, that the tocsin was sounded, the alarm gun fired, and every other signal of extreme danger was heard. The convention assembled to inquire into the extraordinary and alarming situation of the city. The mayor of Paris appeared at the bar, and declared that the public uneasiness arose from the conduct of the commission of twelve, and that the constituted authorities were employed in restoring public tranquillity.

In the evening of the first of June the tocsin again proclaimed a state of public commotion. On the following day the hall of the convention was surrounded by a very large and tumultuous assembly of people, who vociferated the demand for a decree of accusation. The hall of the convention itself was in a state of extreme disorder; that its deliberations were no longer free seemed to be the general sense of the convention; but it was forced to submit. The insurgents maintained their purpose, and the assembly was compelled to pass a decree, which ordered the following deputies to be put in arrest, viz., Gensonné, Vergniaud, Brissot, Gaudet, Gorsas, Petion, Sellies, Cambon, Barbaroux, Rabaut, Laforce, Lesage, Louvet, Valace, Lanthenas, Dussaux, with several others, and all the members of the committee of twelve, except Fontsiéde and Saint Martin, and the ministers Claviere and Le Brun. The assembly, with the president at their head, had quitted the hall with an intention to separate; but Henriot, the commander of the Parisian guards, arranged his troops in military array, and threatened them with a discharge of musketry, if they did not return. Robespierre, Marat, and the Jacobin party, were now triumphant, and the first object of their power was to complete the constitution. The national convention, therefore, on the 23d of June, issued a declaration of the rights of man, as introductory of their new constitution, a very hasty ill digested work, but in some respects calculated to seduce the populace. It was impracticable as a system to guide, correct, and control the life of man; but whatever it had been, it would not, we believe, have avoided the fate of being lost in that tremendous and sanguinary chaos, in which all the elements of justice, and of mercy, of truth and of religion, of public honour and private virtue, were dissolved.

The convention now proceeded to frame various decrees, for civil, military, and naval regulations, for the dispatch of criminal causes, a branch of the executive government with which they appear to have been well acquainted. Among others the following decree was adopted. "Marie Antoinette shall be delivered over to the revolutionary tribunal, and shall be immediately conducted to the prison la Conciégerie: Louise Elizabeth shall remain in the temple till after the judgment of Marie Antoinette." From framing sanguinary decrees these legislators proceeded to settle and arrange such public diversions and amusements, as they deemed proper to fill up the interval of cruelty, or rather to incite the people to the commission of fresh massacres. A very extraordinary and daring scheme was, about this time, on the proposal of Barrere, adopted by the convention; it was proposed that the people of France should declare by the mouth of their representatives, that they will rise in one body, in defence of their liberty and equality. This proposition being received with loud bursts of applause, Barrere presented a plan for carrying his design into effect; and it was shortly introduced in its matured state by the committee of public welfare. That such a decree should be proposed, cannot produce the least astonishment in the minds of those who are familiar with the history of the convention, which has every hour produced something strange and monstrous; but that it should, in any degree, be received by the people, might not be altogether expected, on the avowed principles even of the French revolution. Jacobins, and the friends of Jacobins, will, without doubt, consider the consent to rise in a mass, as a proof of that ardent love of liberty which is boasted at this time to have inspired every patriot heart in France. It must indeed be confessed, that
2 very active enthusiasm prevailed among the French people; but it was not founded on a knowledge or sense of genuine freedom; it was violent, cruel, and precipitate; it was easily called forth, and set in motion; but not operating on any principle, however it might be employed, its course must be licentious, and its tendency was rather to evil than to good.

To encrease the military force of the country seems to have interested the Jacobins above every other consideration. The measures that were employed on this occasion, were at once bold and tyrannical. Revolutionary committees, domiciliary visits, the seizure of all gold and silver discoverable in the republic; the coinage of all plate, sacred or profane; the fusion of church bells into cannon; the requisition of all property for the use of the state, and the decree ordering the people to rise in a mass, were adopted, to render their schemes effective. Oppressed by these plundering decrees, some of the great maritime and commercial cities were driven into insurrection. The inhabitants of Poitou and Brittany had been long in motion, and had frequently defeated the republican troops which had been sent against them. The formidable union, likewise, which had taken place between the cities of Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon, still continued and alarmed the ruling powers. General Cartaux was accordingly dispatched against them with a considerable force; and having taken the town of Aix, the populace of Marseilles opened their gates to him, and received the plunder of the wealthy inhabitants for their reward. At the same time the inhabitants of Toulon, proposed a negotiation to the English admiral lord Hood, who then commanded a fleet in the Mediterranean, and he was suffered to take possession of the town and shipping in the name of Louis XVII. The Lyonnese did not follow the example of the Marseillais, but sustained with great bravery an active siege of two months. General Kellerman, who commanded the army of the Alps, was ordered to besiege the city, but not answering the impatience of the convention, he was removed, and general Doppef appointed to succeed him, to whom the inhabitants, who were not only unused to arms, but very ill provided with the means of defence, as well as the necessaries of life, were on the 8th of September obliged to surrender. A great part of the city had been reduced to ashes by the incessant bombardment; and the victors satiated their rage by barbarities for which language has no name. The miserable victims, who were too numerous for the individual operations of the guillotine, were driven in great numbers, with the most savage and blasphemous ceremonies, into the Rhine, or hurried in crowds to the squares, to be massacred by the more painful operation of fire arms and artillery. By a decree of the convention, it was ordered, that the walls and public buildings of this city, polluted with massacre, should be demolished, and that it should lose its former name in that of *La Ville Affranchie. What language can furnish expressions of abhorrence sufficiently strong to characterise these brutal savages? After having desolated one of the noblest and most ancient cities of France, after having robbed and massacred the wretched inhabitants by thousands, they insult them in their sufferings by telling them they are restored to liberty. Such indeed is the nature of that liberty, to which the French have erected altars; from her, social order, religion, and all those virtues which assimilate man to the divinity, fly away affrighted, and in their stead start up from hell, covered with blood, those grim fiends, Atheism, Anarchy, and Murder.

The lawless association of thieves, murderers and robbers, who enslaved France, ruling now with despotic sway, proceeded to gratify their malignity by the trial and public murder of the queen. She had already been separated from her family in the temple. In the night of the first of August, she was suddenly and in the most cruel manner, removed to the prison of the Conciergerie, a prison destined for the reception of the vilest malefactors. There she was treated with a degree of savage barbarity, of which we know not how to conceive the motive; unless it was hoped that its severity

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* The city restored to liberty.
† 70,000 of the inhabitants were murdered or driven from their homes.
might save her persecutors the form of a trial. The cell in which she was immured was only eight feet square; her bed was only an hard mattress of straw; and her food of the meanest kind; while she was never suffered the privilege of being alone, two soldiers being appointed to watch her night and day, without the intermission of a moment. After a confinement of ten weeks in this loathsome dungeon, while preparations were making for her trial, she at length appeared before the revolutionary tribunal. The act of accusation was of great length, heavily charged with the most calumniating expressions, and in which the royal object of its horrid criminations, was represented as having been the cause of every real or supposed public calamity which had happened in France, from the time of her arrival there to that moment. Of the various charges which were brought against her, not one was proved, which must appear to be somewhat extraordinary, when it is considered how easy it was to procure evidence to any charge. The trial was conducted with some appearance of formality, but the sentence was already prepared; and Marie Antoinette may be said to have been condemned to die, at the moment when she appeared before her judges. On being informed, by the president of the tribunal, that she must prepare to submit to the same fate which her august husband had already suffered, she did not discover the least emotion; and her aspect lost nothing of that dignity which it displayed in every circumstance of her misfortunes. She had probably anticipated her fate, and therefore met it with calmness and resignation. It is natural to suppose that she might consider it as the end of her trouble; and what could there be in life for her, which would not make her sigh to change for that state, where the wicked cease from troubling, and the weary are at rest. During her trial, amidst the most aggravated mortification, and wanton insult, under accusation for crimes of which she was altogether innocent, or could not commit; she submitted with a patience that became her sad condition, and answered with a spirit that marked her elevated nature. She retired from the hall, without uttering a word to the court or the people, and at four o'clock in the morning, was reconducted to her dungeon. At five the drums beats to arms in every part of the city; its whole military force was soon in a state of preparation; cannon were planted in the squares, and at the extremities of the bridges; and at ten, numerous patroles passed through the streets. At half-past eleven, the queen was brought out of prison, and like an ordinary malefactor, was conducted in a common cart to the place of execution. Her hair was entirely cut off from the back of her head, which was covered with a small white cap; she wore a white undress; her hands were tied behind her, and she sat with her back to the horses. The executioner was seated on her right; and on the left was a constitutional priest. The cart was escorted by numerous detachments of horse and foot. An immense mob of people, in which the women appeared to predominate, crowded the streets, insulted the queen, and vociferated, "Long live the republic!" She seldom cast her eyes upon the populace, and regarded with indifference, if she at all regarded, the great armed force of 30,000 men, which lined the streets in double ranks. They, who had seen her in the former part of her life, could not but observe the altered state of her countenance, and what a sad change sorrow had made in that seat of animation and beauty. Her spirit appeared to be calm, and she conversed with the priest, who was seated with her, with an air of decent submission, but without the least appearance of anguish and dejection. She ascended the scaffold with much haste and seeming impatience, and then turned her eyes with apparent emotion towards the gardens of the Tuileries, one of the many scenes of her former greatness. At half past twelve the guillotine severed her head from her body, which the executioner exhibited all streaming with blood, to an inveterate and insatiable multitude. Thus perished on the 38th year of her age, Marie Antoinette, queen of France, who had enjoyed all the good the world could give, and endured all the evil it could inflict. Of imperial origin, she was destined to share one of the most splendid thrones on the earth; there she continued till she attained her meridian height, when she was plunged to the lowest depth of human misery, to the dungeon and death of the meanest criminal.

On a first view it might appear to be a curious and strange circumstance, that amid such scenes of blood and murder, the government of France should employ itself in such a trifling and unnecessary measure as the alteration of the calendar. But the design
was of a more serious nature than superficial observers might imagine. It was intended to abolish, and if possible, to eradicate every trace of Christianity from their country. According to the new calendar the year retains its division into twelve months; consisting each of thirty days, and distinguished by names expressive of their usual produce, temperature, or appearance; while to complete the year, five supplementary days are added, and denominated sans culottes.

A principal object of this machinery was to introduce a division of each month into three decades, and to fix the day of rest on the tenth, and not on the seventh, that all reverence for the institutions contained in the sacred volume might gradually decay. After this prelude the authorities of Paris came in a few days to the convention, attended by the bishop and clergy, decorated with caps of liberty, who, to complete the ceremonial, renounced the office of Christian priests, and their appointments as Christian pastors, and their character of Christian men. They declared, that the necessity of complying with the prejudices of the people, in order to teach them the moral virtues and social duties, had alone caused their acceptance of their sacerdotal functions; that now, abjuring the trade of superstition, they were resolved, instead of Christians, to become men, to own no temple but the sanctuary of the law, no divinity but liberty, no object of worship but their country, no gospel but the constitution. These and various other declarations of a similar nature, sent from different parts, were dispatched to all the departments and municipalities, to perfect the work of the revolution; and the day of this event was mentioned in the calendar, as the day of reason. The sans culottes, who in consequence of these proceedings, considered themselves as authorised to plunder every place of worship, public and private, divided with the convention large heaps of shrines, figures, and vessels, hitherto used in the offices of religion, while commissioners from the convention aided the sacrilegious pillage. At Abbeville, and other places, the churches were shut; and many of the priests who still attempted to officiate at their altars, were arrested and thrown into dungeons. Nor can the bishop of Moulins be passed by without receiving the execution he merits. This furious and atheistical fanatic, trampling on the cross and the mitre, assumed the pike and cap of liberty, and preached the doctrine, big with horror to reflecting minds, but full of encouragement to diabolical natures, "that death is an eternal sleep."

Robespierre, however, with all his impiety, could not but perceive that, amidst all their enormities, the people still retained an attachment to their ancient faith: and that, while they were infringing the laws of religion every moment of their lives, they saw with disgust the violation of its altars. The various allegorical idols, such as liberty, equality, &c., which had been established amid the applause of the frantic atheists of the convention; the horrid act of placing a prostitute on the altar of the cathedral church of Paris, to receive adoration as a substitute for the savour of the world, gave great offence to the people at large, while the decree of the first of December, ordaining the churches to be shut up, was received with such public and universal marks of abhorrence and detestation, that it was immediately reversed, and the freedom of religious worship restored.

The death of the queen was soon followed by that of the accused deputies. They were convicted of having conspired against the unity and indivisibility of the republic, by exciting a rebellion in the departments of the south. On the 30th of October, twenty one of these deputies suffered the stroke of the guillotine. And shortly after the duke of Orleans received the punishment which his conduct deserved. He was, in the beginning of November, brought to Paris to appear as a criminal before the revolutionary tribunal, and, what was a necessary consequence, was condemned to die. In the evening of the 6th of November, he was conveyed in a cart to the place of execution, where the public detestation and abhorrence accompanied the close of his infamous career.

On the 3d of February, three deputies from the island of St Domingo were received into the convention, as representatives of that place; one of the deputies was a negro, and the other two of that description of persons who are called men of colour; on the succeeding day, the black deputies having given an account of the troubles in that is.
land, the abolition of slavery was proposed, and agreed to, the deputies were then de-
cred French citizens.
Robespierre having now attained nearly to the summit of his power, exercised it with
despotic sway. On the 25th of March, Herbert, with twenty two others, was arrested,
and ordered before the revolutionary tribunal. The charges brought against them were
many and various. The principal evidences were Louis Legendre, deputy to the na-
tional convention, and Louis Pierre Dufourni, an architect; although the charges were
very ill supported, the evidence being none of the best, one of them only was acquitted.
The wretched Anacharsis Clootz was among the condemned, and was the only man who
attempted to speak; and he appealed, but in vain, to the human race; whose orator and
ambassador he had declared himself. Herbert and his colleagues, passed their time when
orator and ambassador he had declared himself. Herbert and his colleagues, passed their time when
together, like the fallen spirits in Milton, in mutual accusation, till they were reconcil-
ed by Clootz, who fearing, lest any of them should die in religious belief, preached
atheism to them till their last sigh. They were executed amid the applauses of a vile
multitude, who, at the falling of the guillotine, rent the air with their savage shouts.

The success and popularity of Robespierre encouraged him to bring forward a new group
of traitors, and, to the astonishment of every one, Fabre d'Eglantine, and others of the
deputies, for the reviling of whom Herbert had been condemned, were among the prin-
cipal culprits. Danton took part in the convention against the accused deputies, and
in a few days after, pleased strongly for confidence in the committees of public and ge-
neral safety; unconscious that he was soon to be implicated in the fate of the persons
whom he censured, and to accompany them to the scaffold, there to receive the reward
which his manifold villanies so richly deserved. A secret rivalry and deep-rooted
enemy had subsisted between him and Robespierre. Of the progress of the quarrel be-
twixt them we are destitute of information; but a very short time before the arrest of
Danton, an interview was brought about between them by the influence of a common
friend, in the hope of effecting a reconciliation. Danton, after a long conversation,
finding it impossible to make any impression on his implacable rival, who heard him
with a look of insult and malignity, is said to have burst into tears, and to have left the
room with the prophetic exclamation: "I see that my fate is decided, but my death
will be your ruin."

Danton, Lacroix, Philippeaux, and Camille Desmoulines, were arrested on the 31st
of March; the real crime of the last was a satirical parallel between the revolutionary
government of France and the tyranny of the Roman emperors, which he published in
a periodical paper, of which he was the editor, termed the "Old Cordelier." Philippeaux,
it is said, had mortally offended, by exposing the horrors and cruelties he had
witnessed in La Vendee. Together with them, Herault Schelles, Simon, Chaumette
the procureur of the commune of Paris, and Gobet the ex-bishop, who had disgraced
himself and his profession by the public renunciation of his functions, had been arrested
a few days before, all as accomplices with Fabre d'Eglantine. On the morning of the
2d of April, they were brought before the revolutionary tribunal. They all evinced
much firmness, except Fabre d'Eglantine, who was greatly agitated. The prisoners de-
manded to be confronted with Robespierre and Barrere; this being refused, they would
not answer any interrogatories, as they insisted that the proceedings were unfair. The
public accuser immediately dispatched a letter to the convention, informing them
that the prisoners were in a state of revolt against the tribunal; and, on the motion of St
Just, a decree was passed, "that whoever insults the national justice shall not be heard,
but tried immediately." This decree was read to the deputies upon trial on the 5th,
but they still persisted in their refusal to answer interrogatories. The jury, therefore,
without hesitation, found them guilty of corrupt practices. At two o'clock on the same
day sentence was passed upon the prisoners; and at five in the afternoon, they were
conveyed in three carts from the Conciergerie to the place de la Revolution, where the
state prisoners were executed.

While the scaffold was thus streaming with blood, the convention decreed, on the
motion of Couthon, "that all aliens belonging to the countries at war with the repub-
ic, and all ex-nobles, should be ordered to depart from Paris, and from all fortresses and
FRANCE.

Several other measures of severity were adopted to prevent counter-revolutionary conspiracies.

To enter into a particular detail of the multitudes who at this period were murdered by the revolutionary tribunal, would be to incumber our narrative with a long catalogue of names only rendered interesting by the melancholy fate of the innocent sufferers. One illustrious victim it is however necessary to notice, one not less eminent for her purity and virtues than for her rank and family. On the 10th of May, Fouquier Tinsville, the public accuser, made a formal demand to the commune of Paris, that the sister of Louis XVI. should be immediately delivered up to the revolutionary tribunal. On the same day the unfortunate princess was conveyed to the Conciergerie, and on the 12th was brought before her inflexible judges. The trial was conducted in their usual summary way, and consisted only of a series of interrogatories which were put to the prisoner. Disdaining any concession, which might soften their cruelty, and despising the wrath which she knew her answer would excite, to the first interrogation of the court, What is your name? she magnanimously replied, "My name is Elizabeth of France, sister to the monarch you murdered, and aunt to your present king." When charged with having encouraged her nephew in the hopes of succeeding to his father's throne, she replied—"I have conversed familiarly with that unfortunate child, who was dear to me on more than one account; and I gave him all those consolations which appeared to me likely to reconcile him to the loss of those who had given him birth." This reply was construed into a concession that she had encouraged the child in these fallacious hopes, and without further interrogatory she was condemned. The unfortunate princess was nobly supported in the last scene by the consolations of religion. She betrayed some emotion at the sight of the guillotine, but she presently resumed a look of pious resignation, and was executed the last of 26 persons, who were carried to the scaffold the same day.

On the 30th of May, Barrere, pretending that several attempts at assassination, which his own unexampled tyranny, and that of his bloody gang had provoked, were set on foot by the English, after a great deal of foolish rant and declamation against England, proposed that all Englishmen and Hanoverians who should fall into their hands, should be put to death. This horrid proposal was, however, never put in execution; the French officers and soldiers, on the contrary, frequently behaved with singular humanity to the British soldiers. A decree was afterwards passed, that if the garrisons left by the allies in Valenciennes, Conde, and Quesnoy, did not surrender within 24 hours after being summoned, they should not be spared, but this decree was also never put in execution.

The prisons of Paris at this period were crowded with victims from all parts of the country, in consequence of a decree which ordered all of a certain class of state prisoners to be tried only by the revolutionary tribunal of Paris. At one period the prisoners amounted to between seven and eight thousand. Of the number of those who have been tried and massacred, we have no precise return, but the number must have been enormous*. To enter into a recital of particular facts would be a most irksome and melancholy task. Yet, in perusing this black and dismal catalogue, the eye of humanity will be arrested by the fate of the venerable and intrepid catalogue of the unfortunate king of France, Lamoignon Malesherbes, who died a martyr in the cause of virtue. Some were evidently put to death for their wealth, and others fell victims to private resentment. A correspondence with relations who had emigrated brought many to the scaffold; but where this plea was wanting, an imputed conspiracy in the prisons always served as a pretext for the ruin of those who were obnoxious. The judges and jurors were hardened beyond example. The viscountess de Noailles, sister to madame La Fayette,

* It is computed that in the year 1795, 2,000,000 of persons had been massacred in France during the revolution: of those 250,000 were women, 230,000 children, and 24,000 ministers of the gospel. This computation, which amounts to nearly one tenth of the whole population of France, does not include any who were killed in arms. See a work called "The Cruelties of the Jacobins," published in Paris in 1795.
maintained in her defence, that she was not in the prison where the conspiracy of which she was accused took place: "No matter," exclaimed one of these assassins, "you would have been concerned had you been there."

At this moment Robespierre had reached the summit of his popularity; and the baseless fabric of his usurped authority began to totter. The debates had been for some time before the fall of the tyrant most tumultuous and disorderly. On the 27th Billand Varennes, after a violent speech, observed, that "Men who are always speaking of their own probity and virtue, are those who trample those virtues under foot. A secretary of the committee of public safety had robbed the public of 114,000 livres. I demanded his arrest, but Robespierre screened him." (Murmurs.) "I could recount to you, citizens, a thousand other similar facts of this man; and yet it is he who dares to accuse us; we who spend our nights and days in the committee of public safety, in organizing our victories. We must not hesitate either to fall on him with our bodies, or to suffer tyrants to triumph. It was his wish to mutilate the convention, and to murder the representatives of the nation." Robespierre here darted toward the tribunal, while a number of voices exclaimed, "Down with the tyrant! down with the tyrant!"

A decree of arrest was now passed against Robespierre, in which Couthon and le Bas were likewise included, and the president ordered one of the ushers of the hall to take into custody one of the triumvirs, the elder Robespierre. In the mean time Henriot had also been arrested, but had found means to escape. With the alacrity of desperation he rallied his adherents. The convention were not, however, inactive. No sooner were they apprized that Robespierre and his companions were in a state of insurrection, than they proceeded to declare them traitors and outlaws, and a deputation of their members was appointed to lead the people against their revolters. Between 2 and 3 o'clock in the morning the deputies found themselves in sufficient force to attack the insurgents at the Hotel de Ville. At that time Bourdon de L'Oise appeared at the place de Grave, and read the proclamation of the convention. He then rushed into the hall of the commune, armed with a sabre and pistols; the insurgents were now completely deserted, and endeavoured to turn their arms against themselves. Robespierre the elder discharged a pistol in his mouth; which only wounded him in the jaw, while he received a wound from a gens d'arme in the side. The younger Robespierre threw himself out of a window, and broke a leg and an arm. Le Bas shot himself upon the spot, and Couthon stabbed himself twice with a knife. They were all conveyed before the revolutionary tribunal, and there condemned to suffer death. Couthon was executed first, and then the younger Robespierre and Henriot. Robespierre was executed the last but one. He stood two minutes on the scaffold, while the executioner removed the cloth which covered his face; but he did not utter a word.

Having now overthrown the tyranny of Robespierre, the tyrants who succeeded him began to contend with one another for the chief power. A decree was passed for enquiring into the conduct of Barrere, Billaud Varennes, Collot d'Herbois, and Vadier. They were formally tried before the convention, and condemned to be transported, some to Guiana, and others to be confined to the castle of Ham in Picardy. Two of them, however, Cambon and Thuriot, had found means to escape, and concealed themselves in the faubourg of St Antoine, and resolved to embrace the opportunity of a scarcity which existed at that time to excite an insurrection. After surrounding the convention with armed men, they awed them so much by their threats that they were obliged to temporise, and sent a deputation of ten of their members to fraternize with them. This compliance of the assembly with so much of their demands, led them to insist on sending a deputation in return, to which the convention assented; and immediately a troop was introduced with an orator at their head, who concluded his speech with "Vive la convention!" The deputation was invited to the honours of the sitting; and, to shew the perfect good disposition of the convention, the president was ordered to give the fraternal kiss to these representatives of the sovereign people. The sovereign people, however, notwithstanding the honour of the fraternal kiss, assembled next day, and the convention were obliged to call in the assistance of military force, by which the insurrection was at last quelled, and temporary tranquillity restored in Paris.
While these events took place the convention were sedulously employed in discussing a plan for a new constitution. On the 23d of August these notable constitution-makers had completed their work, and it was referred to the primary assemblies for their confirmation and acceptance. By this constitution the legislative body was composed of what they called, in their ludicrous jargon, a council of ancients and a council of five hundred. The executive power was entrusted to a Directory of five members, nominated by the legislative body*. The forty-eight sections of Paris, while they accepted their newly made constitution, as firmly rejected the law for the re-election of two thirds of the convention into the legislature, and, as usual, had recourse to the "holy right of insurrection," to enforce their reasons. They assembled at noon on the 5th October, and a desperate battle took place near the convention; the sectionaries repeatedly possessed themselves of the cannon, which were as often retaken. There fell in this engagement about 2000 men.

Whatever were the political contests of the French, they proceeded with the most astonishing rapidity in their career on the continent. They had subjected Holland, the whole of the Netherlands was in their possession except Mentz, which in a short time was completely blockaded. But they were now weakened by the vast track of country they had overrun. Jourdan was obliged to retreat; prince Charles hung on his rear, and the peasants irritated by the extortions and robberies committed by those protectors of the rights of man, took the present opportunity of revenging themselves upon their rapacious oppressors. The garrison of Mentz, likewise, being strongly reinforced, two divisions of the Austrian army crossed the river at different points, and attacked the remains of the French, who had entrenched before that place, and who had during so many months wasted their strength in vain. The Austrians, after an obstinate resistance, drove them from all their posts, destroyed their works, and took possession of all their artillery. The campaign was shortly after concluded, by common consent of the hostile generals.

As the French had now completely subdued that party of royalists, who for a long time had resisted their oppression, they were enabled to begin the succeeding campaign with renewed vigour. Such were their successes in Italy that the king of Sardinia was compelled to sue for peace, and to submit to whatever conditions were imposed upon him, and he was shortly followed by the dukes of Modena and Ferrara. The object of the army in Germany under Jourdan, was to gain possession of Mentz; that of the troops under Moreau was to effect a passage across the Rhine, and possess themselves of Kehl. By a well concerted motion of the archduke, they were compelled to retire from before Mentz with great loss; but general Moreau was successful in passing the Rhine and taking the fortress of Kehl. In Italy the enemy were still more successful; the dispersion of the Austrian army there, gave the French general leisure to carry on his various enterprises against the respective states of that country. A detachment took possession of Leghorn on the 28th of June, though belonging to a neutral power, on the pretext of dislodging the English, who were despoiled of their property by these robbers. The main army entered the territory of the pope, and without resistance took possession of the cities of Bologna, Ferrara, and Urbino. This expedition, which gave the French the command of the holy see, alarmed in so great a degree the king of Naples, that he requested an armistice, which was granted to him as well as the pope, upon such conditions as the French were pleased to dictate.

Meanwhile the emperor had sent fresh troops into Italy under the command of general Wurmser to oppose the farther progress of the French. The first operations of this army were successful, but they soon experienced a sad reverse; on the 15th of August most obstinate engagement took place, which ended in a total defeat of the Austrians; they were compelled to repass the Adige, leaving the enemy in possession of the whole country round Mantua; the siege of which place they were obliged to turn into a blockade from the loss of their heavy artillery. The successes of the French on the Rhine corresponded with those in Italy. They had possessed themselves of the country lying

* Rewbell, La Reveilliere Lepaux, Carnot, Barras, and Le Boyeuvre de la Manche, were chosen directors.
on each side of the Mein and of Franconia, and were advancing towards Ratisbon; during this period the Austrian army having received reinforcements, attacked them with such vigour that they were compelled to retreat with precipitation; the French general found it impossible to rally them, as they were more anxious to escape the vengeance of the peasantry whom they had plundered and oppressed, than incur the risk of losing their treasure together with their lives. Moreau, meanwhile, conceiving hopes that either Jourdan’s army would resume the attack, or that the advantages of his own army towards Vienna would force the archduke to return, had marched along the Danube, and had taken possession of Ulm, Donawerth, and several other towns on its banks, triumphantly entered the circle of Bavaria, and on the 27th August took quiet possession of its capital. But the defeat of Jourdan’s army was so complete that all hopes of their further resistance were relinquished, and Moreau, finding himself in imminent peril, was finally obliged to effect a retreat, and recross the Rhine at Brüssch, leaving a strong garrison in the fortress of Kehl, from whence he had commenced his irruption into Germany. This fortress was soon after attacked by prince Charles and obliged to surrender.

Meanwhile those who had usurped the government of France found themselves perplexed with those tumults and insurrections which the tyrants, whom they had displaced, might naturally be expected to excite. These, however, being quelled by military force, the directory began to turn their attention to the enacting of such laws as they deemed necessary in the present situation of the country, or such as gratified the malignity of their vitiated perverted minds. The non-juring clergymen, whose unmerited and inconceivable sufferings since the commencement of this accursed revolution might have softened the bitterest enmity into compassion, were at present the objects of Jacobinical malignity. They decreed that all non-juring priests should be banished from the republic, and this persecuting decree was sanctioned by the council of five hundred, but was rejected by the council of elders. They likewise shewed about this period their malignity against England by a law which they enacted, prohibiting the importation of English manufactures into France, and they obliged Holland and Spain to adopt the same resolution. Genoa was likewise compelled to shut up her ports against the British. This pitiful effort of malice cannot materially affect the commerce of Great Britain, which, since the passing of this law, has become more flourishing than ever.

The negotiation, which had been carrying on during the summer between the republic and Naples, was brought to a termination on the 25th of October, by a definitive treaty of peace. The conditions were such as the French were pleased to prescribe, which were not so rigorous as what had been granted to several other powers. A negotiation which the ministry in Britain entered into this season failed of success, and the English minister was ordered to depart within 24 hours. The conditions of peace which were offered to the pope about this period being incompatible with his dignity as a sovereign power, that prince determined again to have recourse to arms in defence of his crown. The army in Italy had received very considerable reinforcements that they might be able to effectuate the release of general Wurmser, who was shut up in Mantua. The command of this army was entrusted to general Alvinzi, who was entirely defeated in the dreadful battle of Arcole, after having most gallantly and obstinately disputed the field. He was compelled to retire behind the Brenta with his army, and leave Mantua to its fate. This city, though long and obstinately defended by the gallant and experienced veteran Wurmser, was at last obliged to surrender, as every attempt to relieve it had proved abortive. Discouraged by the successes of the enemy, the pope was obliged to submit to whatever conditions they thought proper to prescribe, which were sufficiently humiliating. Meanwhile the emperor had levied a fresh army which he sent to Italy in order to stop the progress of the victorious enemy. This army, however, was not able to stand before them, and their operations were a series of victories. In this perilous situation, a correspondence was commenced between the two generals, which ended at first in an armistice, and finally in adjusting preliminaries of peace between the court of Vienna and the French republic, and by the Neapolitan minister on the part of the emperor.
Meanwhile the violence of the different factions was producing new commotions in France. On the 5th of March the two councils drew the important lots, which were
to deprive a third of their members of their seats in the legislature. As the period of
the general election approached, the ardour of party zeal became everywhere apparent; and
the whole nation was in some measure agitated by the efforts of contending factions. The new third had scarcely taken their seats, before they shewed their dis-
approval of the conduct of the agents of the Directory. They proposed several re-
trenchments of expense among the civil and military agents. Their treatment of the
United States was severely reprobated, and a plan of a decree was proposed for ap-
pointing a committee to inquire into the unconstitutional resolutions of the directory on
that subject, which was adopted. The interference of the French general in the inter-
nal government of Venice was severely censured, and the disturbance which was given
by the sanction of the directory to the Genoese and Helvetic republics. The abomina-
nable laws authorising polygamy were likewise ordered to be revised. The cruel laws
against the priests and emigrants were somewhat softened, and all political meetings and
societies were abolished. The discontent excited by these measures soon reached the
armies. The directors were of necessity connected with them, and there is little doubt
but every step would be taken to fan the rising flame among the military. The army
led the way in addressing the directory in the most violent manner, and their example
was followed by the other armies of the republic. To check this spirit in the army,
Thibadeau presented the plan of two resolutions, the last of which declared every
"assemblage of soldiers for the purpose of deliberating, in other circumstances than those
determined by the law, a crime; that any communication under the title of addresses
from one armed body to another, or to the civil authorities, should be punished as a se-
ditious act." Though the opposition party were not without their preparations, their
measures were tardy, and pursued with less energy than those of their opponents. An
address from the Fauxbourg of St Antoine confirmed the directory in the violent mea-
sure it was about to adopt. On the morning of the 4th of September, at the early hour
of 3 o'clock, the majority of the directory ordered the alarm guns to be fired, and the
halls of the council to be surrounded by military force. General Augereau, who was
charged with the execution of this bold measure, entered the hall, where he found Ro-
vere, Pichegru, Willot, Bourdon de Loise, and several others. He seized Pichegru
with his own hands, and ordered about 18 others of the most conspicuous characters to
be arrested. They were committed to the temple; the halls were shut up, and the
members of both councils summoned to meet the ancients at the school of Surgery, and
the council of 500 at the Odeon, formerly the theatre in the Fauxbourg St Germain.
The minority of the directory, Carnot and Bartheleimi, were implicated in the fate of
their friends in the councils; Carnot took advantage of the tumult and fled; Barthele-
mi was put under arrest. The directory announced their victory to the public by a
proclamation, in which they exhorted the citizens to peace and harmony: promised that
life and property should be protected; and that every act of plunder and outrage should
meet with exemplary punishment. This change in the French government appears to
have been very unfavourable to a treaty with England; and shortly after they had got
possession of power, Lord Malmesbury, who was then at Lisle, was ordered to depart
from the dominions of France in 48 hours.

Having now humbled all their enemies at home, and ruling with triumphant sway,
the directory began to indulge themselves in new plans of ambition and conquest: Ita-
ly, by its weakness and the degeneracy of its inhabitants, presented a tempting object to
these rapacious oppressors. Having pretended that their ambassador at Rome was in-
sulted, they prepared to take vengeance by arms, and, far from being appeased by the
humble apologies of the sovereign Pontiff, their troops were ordered to commence their
march; they never met with the smallest opposition, and in a short time they placed
their standard with triumph on the capitol. The first use they made of their power was
to overturn the papal government, and to levy oppressive contributions. The fine sta-
tues, and all those monuments of the arts which had long adorned Rome, were trans-
ported to Paris. Many other acts of tyranny and oppression were committed by the
commanders of the French armies. Switzerland was next obliged to submit to the gal-
ling yoke of republican tyranny. After having beyond endurance insulted them, the directory at last ordered their troops to invade that country, which, after a desperate resistance, was finally subdued. For an account of which, we must refer our readers to Switzerland, where we have given a full relation of all the misfortunes which befel that unhappy country.

Against no country in the world was the malignity of the directory so apparent as against Great Britain. They demanded the expulsion of the English from Hamburgh, and seized and confiscated English merchandise, wherever they could find it, in the shops or warehouses of the French merchants, or in the ships of neutral nations. They appeared for many months to connive at a trade with England, and even to encourage it; thus their own merchants were led into a snare; when their warehouses were full, the directory seized their prey.

A more extensive plan of vengeance, however, was in agitation against England, which was at once to overturn her government, to destroy her commerce, and to reduce the people to the degrading servitude in which the directory held the people of France. To execute the proud and empty boasts of an invasion, they were to build immense rafts, or rather floating islands of wood, to transport their troops to England. This ridiculous enterprise was not however attempted, they had been probably intimidated by the ardour and alacrity of the British nation in defence of their country.

The complicated baseness, meanness, and duplicity, of the Gallic tyrants was likewise very conspicuous in their transactions with America. For the purpose of terminating all difference between America and the French republic, three envoys were appointed, to whom full powers were granted to settle all disputes between France and the United Provinces. The envoys, on their arrival, sent a letter to Talleyrand, minister for foreign affairs; to which they never received an answer. The apostate bishop did, however, send his agents to talk with them, and from them they received the following overtures, which it was proposed to them to accede to, as preliminaries to negotiation, and even to their reception.

The agents did not assign any other reason for the innumerable injuries which America had suffered, than merely the offence which the directory had taken at the president's speech at the opening of the Congress, although by far the greater part of their depredations on the American trade were committed before that time, and that very session of the congress was occasioned by nothing else. Yet for this speech some atonement was demanded, worthy the acceptance of the directory. It is astonishing that on a subject like this the envoys should condescend to talk to them a single moment. They did however. They justified the conduct of the president, insisted on his right to deliver to the congress what sentiments he pleased, and declared that they had neither authority nor inclination to offer any disavowal of them. This brought on a conversation, which led the agents to the point, and they soon found that the wrath of the directory was only to be appeased with money. They condescended to name the sums which they wanted.

I. Fifty thousand pounds was to be paid to Talleyrand, to be shared by him and certain of the directory, as the price of an interview, without any promise of its producing a reconciliation.

II. America was to purchase of them for cash and at par 32 millions of Batavian florins, which were then selling at fifty per cent. below par, and put up with the loss. And this transaction was to make an article to be kept a secret from Great Britain.

III. America was immediately to advance them a loan, double in amount to what they had been robbed of by the French already; but, in order to avoid all delay with respect to their touching the cash, and to simplify the amount by adhering to round numbers, 15 millions of dollars were to be sent over immediately; and that France would repay this loan when convenient.

The envoys stated (which is but too true) that the people of America had been warmly concerned for the liberties of France; that when all the powers of Europe united against her, America alone stood her friend; that notwithstanding the spoliations which had been committed upon their trade, the government of America had the most ardent disposition to reconcile all existing differences. To all this they replied, that
nothing could be done here without money; that Hamburg and other states had been obliged to purchase a peace, and that it would be prudent for America to imitate their example. They said that some of the directory were not so well supplied with cash as others of them. Merlin, they said, received a part of the prizes from the masters and owners of privateers; but others had no such perquisites. When an objection was stated to the demand, and its unreasonableness insisted on, “What,” said they, “you pay for your treaties with the Indians, and shall you not pay for them with us also?” Perceiving that good words had no effect, they began to threaten. They desired the envoys to look at Genoa, Holland, Geneva, and Venice; to take a timely warning from their fate, and to avoid it by the only possible mode, that of tribute and submission. England, they said, was upon the eve of her ruin; that she was just about to fall, and that, when she was overthrown, the terms to be imposed on America would be ten times more severe. “Perhaps,” said he, “you believe that, in returning and exposing the unreasonableness of the demands of this government, you will persuade your fellow citizens to resist those demands: You are mistaken—you ought to know, that the means which France possesses in your country are sufficient to enable her, with the French party in America, to throw the blame which will attend the rupture of the negotiation on the Federalists, as you term yourselves, but on the British party, as France terms you; and you may assure yourselves this will be done.”

After all this conference with the agents, Mr Gerry obtained an audience of Talleyrand; and informed him of the conversation of the persons with whom it was held, and asked him if these men really possessed his confidence; to which Talleyrand unequivocally replied, “They did.”

Such are the particulars of this infamous transaction, which, along with other infamous crimes, fix indelible infamy on the tyrannic faction which oppress France. As they are not vague reports, but are supported by the clearest evidence, as they are related officially by the American envoys to the American government, it would be vain to address any arguments to those who shut their eyes against this instance of Gallic baseness; their minds must be corrupted by the infectious poison of Jacobinical principles. We cannot refrain from transcribing the address of an American journalist to his readers, after a short summary of these dispatches.

“They speak in a language that needs neither preface nor commentary—Whoever reads must understand them, and whoever understands, must hate, detest, abhor, and execrate, the base, insolent, and peridious nation, whose projects they develope.”

“Reader, if you are an American, never lose, nor for a moment mislay, this paper. Meditate on it through the labours of the day, and let it be the first thing that revisits your mind when you awake from your nightly slumbers. Guard it as you would the apple of your eye—Preserve it amongst the hallowed gifts of your parents: and when you die, leave it as the first, most valuable, and most precious legacy, to your children. So shall they learn to shun the blindness of their fathers; so shall they learn to distinguish their friends from their foes; so shall the name of a Frenchman become a byword, a reproach and a curse amongst them, from generation to generation!”

Being disappointed by the magnanimity with which Great Britain beheld their preparations, the French directory relinquished their visionary scheme of invading England. The fleet which they had equipped, set sail from Toulon on the 19th of May, under the command of admiral Bruyès. It consisted of fifteen ships of the line and eighteen frigates. An immense number of infantry, with artillery, vast quantities of mortars, howitzers, furnaces, bombs, grape and cannister shot, with ammunition, were put on board. Men of letters, geometerians, and artists of every sort, accompanied them. Various conjectures were formed throughout all Europe concerning the destination of this fleet, which was very uncertain. The first certain account of them was, that they had taken possession of Malta, which they plundered. After collecting and sending away the booty which they found there, they set sail for Egypt, and arrived safely in Alexandria. Their subsequent transactions in that country, together with their memorable defeat by admiral Nelson, have been related in the histories of England and Egypt.
The joy which that defeat diffused through all Europe produced the happiest effects; it infused spirit into the council of Rastadt, and, instead of that timid, irresolute policy, which the emperor had invariably pursued, he began to shew some faint appearances of courage and resolution; and being assured of the assistance of Russia, he at last determined to take the field, and to make one last attempt to check the inordinate ambition of France, and to maintain his rank as a sovereign prince among the states of Europe. The most brilliant victories attended his arms. The French were driven from most of their conquests, and the Austrians entered Switzerland; while Suwarow in Italy met with the most complete success, and cleared great part of that country of the enemy.

To trace, with precision, the military operations of the Russians and Austrians, under the command of Suwarow, whose conduct in Italy fully answered the high character which Europe entertained of his talents, and the full confidence which the two emperors reposed in him, would require a much greater portion of room than our narrow limits will allow. All that military knowledge, personal courage, vigilance, activity, perseverance, and address, could effect, was achieved by this celebrated general. Before his arrival, the Austrian general Kray expelled the French from the Mantuan, and compelled them, after having sustained considerable losses, to relinquish their strong holds on the Mincio and the Adige, and to retreat to the Adda. On the banks of this river, the French general Moreau, prepared for a vigorous defence. Nothing that could give courage and confidence to his troops was neglected. Entrenchments were thrown up wherever the river was considered as passable; and a situation remarkably strong by nature, was strengthened by every means which art could supply. In this position, however, Suwarow, after having driven in all his out-posts, resolved to attack him. Accordingly, on the morning of the 27th of April, he forced the passage of the river, at different points, attacked the French in their entrenchments, and, after a most desperate action, obtained a complete victory. The French left six thousand men on the field, and upwards of five thousand prisoners, including four generals, fell into the hands of the allies, together with eighty pieces of cannon. The consequence of this action was the total expulsion of the French from the Milanese.

A dreadful battle was fought on the 19th of June, which ended in the complete defeat, and almost total dispersion, of General Macdonald's army. The engagement continued for three days, when the enemy were at last obliged to fly. They left 3000 men dead upon the field of battle, and 10,000 prisoners. The enemy were never able to make resistance against the Russians, after this memorable defeat, but continued flying before them. Turin, Alessandria, and Mantua, surrendered, with a number of other fortresses; the enraged peasants rose up everywhere against the French, and received the Austrians as their protectors and friends. In several places, all those symbols of liberty which the French had been so careful to erect, were destroyed by the enraged populace.

In Egypt they seemed to have no better success; Bonaparte was repulsed with great loss in several desperate attacks which he made on St John d'Acre, and was obliged to fall back with great loss.

In the interior of France, nothing appeared friendly to the genuine principles of liberty; while the directory possessed the same unlimited power over a ruined and distressed people, they seemed to be at variance with the councils. Matters were in this situation, when the arrival of Bonaparte from Egypt hastened them to a crisis. A blow had been long meditated by Sieyes, who resolved, whenever an opportunity should occur, to establish a more effective and apparently less objectionable government. For this purpose, it is said, he was induced to dispatch orders to Egypt for the return of Bonaparte, to whom he immediately imparted his project. Twenty others were likewise entrusted with the plan, who assembled at the house of Lemercier. It was agreed that the councils and directory should assemble, and that their sittings should be translated to St Cloud; meanwhile proper officers were charged to form plans of jacobin conspiracy, of which it is always necessary to accuse the party to be overthrown. After the most tumultuous debates, and mutual reproaches, Bonaparte and his party found it necessary to have recourse to the assistance of the military. Being harangued by
Bonaparte and his brother, they entered the hall where the deputies were deliberating, some of whom indicating a disposition to resistance, they presented their bayonets and advanced. The deputies, finding farther resistance ineffectual, withdrew, and left the military masters of the place. A debate ensued upon the same subject in the council of elders, where Boulay la Meurthe, in a long speech, detailed the plan of the reformers to clear away the constitution, and to build another on its foundations. Nothing can place the propuglisy of the French government, and their habitual disregard of the sacred obligation of an oath, in a stronger point of view, than the deliberate overthrow of this constitution, which they had sworn that very day to defend inviolate. After Boulay de la Meurthe had concluded his speech, a project was presented by another member of the commission, which was finally adopted. The project stated, that the directory existed no longer, that an executive commission should be appointed, composed of Sieyes, Ducos, and Bonaparte, who should bear the name of Consuls of the French Republic; that this commission should be invested with the plenitude of directorial power, and specially charged to organize every part of administration, to re-establish internal tranquillity, and procure a solid and honourable peace; that each council should name commissioners, composed each of twenty-five members, who, on the formal and necessary proposition of the consular commission, should decide on all urgent matters of police, legislation, and finance; and that the council of five hundred should have the initiative, and that of the elders the sanction. The three consuls entered upon their public functions the following day, at the palace of the Luxembourg. A struggle for power soon after commenced between Sieyes and Bonaparte, whom the latter found means to silence by a bribe; the other director Ducos, who submitted to be the passive implement of his colleague, was rewarded in the same manner, and Bonaparte took into his own hand the reins of government.

His first measures were evidently intended to give to his administration the character of moderation. He directed his attention to the situation of the Western Departments, and issued a proclamation, in which he promised them a perfect freedom of worship, and a full and entire amnesty. The surviving victims of the revolution of 4th of September, who were condemned to waste away their lives in the pestilential plains of Sinamary, were recalled, with the exception of Pichegru. Couriers were dispatched to the courts of London and Vienna, with overtures of peace, and Bonaparte addressed a letter to the king of Great Britain on the subject. The king replied to the note of the chief consul by lord Grenville. He informed the French minister, that on entering into the contest, "he had no other view, than that of maintaining against all aggression, the rights and happiness of his subjects; that for these he had contended against an unprovoked attack; and that for the same objects he was still obliged to contend; that he looked only to the security of his own dominions and those of his allies, and to the general safety of Europe. Whenever he shall judge that such security can in any manner be attained, as resulting either from the internal situation of that country, from whose internal danger has arisen, or from such other circumstances of whatever nature, as may produce the same end, his majesty will eagerly embrace the opportunity to concert with his allies the means of immediate and general pacification."

To this reply an answer was written by Talleyrand, in which he defended the republic against the charges contained in lord Grenville's note, and imputed the war to the unjust aggression of foreign powers. Lord Grenville in his reply informed him, that his majesty steadily adhered to the declarations he had made in his former note, and that his regard for his subjects would not suffer him to renounce that system of vigorous defence, to which, under the favour of Providence, his kingdoms owe the security of those blessings which they now enjoy." The overtures of Bonaparte were likewise rejected by the court of Vienna, and the most active preparations were made for the following campaign. Preparations equally active were made by the French republic, to strengthen their armies in Switzerland and the Rhine, and to reinforce their armies in Italy.

The attention of the republic was however distracted by the rebellion in the western departments, which had now assumed a serious aspect. Four departments were placed out of the constitution, and the most vigorous measures were adopted to quell the insubordination. The decision of the case was long delayed, and the executions were deferred, until June 26, 1793, when, as the sitting of the convention was adjourned until the 11th of July, a public meeting was held, at which several resolutions were adopted, on the subject of the laws for the protection of property; and a commission was appointed to execute the measures of the revolution. The commissioners were to be seven in number, and the votes of four of them should be sufficient to decide. The commission, however, was not authorized to proceed to the execution of any of the laws of this nature, before the convention had by its plenary authority declared the same to be necessary.
...surgeons. General Brune was appointed to command the army against them, which was said to be 30,000 strong. The vigorous measures adopted by general Brune soon deprived the insurrection of the formidable appearance it had assumed. After the submission of several of the chiefs, general Brune made every disposition to strike an immediate and decisive blow against Gorges, who possessed the greatest power of the Chouan leaders, and who was very advantageously posted in the Morbihan and Finisterre. By the rapidity of his movements, general Brune was enabled to hem in the Chouans, and to reduce them to the necessity of either hazarding a battle or submitting. Gorges chose the latter, and surrendered 20,000 muskets and 12 pieces of cannon. This event afforded the French government the means of largely reinforcing the armies of Italy and the Rhine.

As the overtures of Bonaparte were rejected by the court of Vienna, vigorous preparations were made on their side for the following campaign, which was opened on the 6th of April. Massena was attacked by general Melas, and forced to retire for safety to Savona and Vado, from thence he was obliged to fall back to Genoa with the remainder of his army, which consisted of 18,000 men. Another battle was fought at Voltri, and maintained by both parties, with the most determined obstinacy. The French were at last compelled to yield, and were defeated with great slaughter. They retired into Genoa, where general Massena expressed a determination to defend himself to the last extremity.

While the campaign in Italy was distinguished by victories so brilliant, and so important, the commencement of the campaign in Germany was more inauspicious. The French having crossed the Rhine in three divisions at Kehl, Brisach, and Basle, forced the Austrian army to fall back to the line of Stockach. A battle took place on the 4th of May, which ended in favour of the French, and which decided the fate of the campaign. The Austrians were never able after this defeat to oppose the enemy in the field; but continued retiring before them; in adversity, however, displaying the most heroic courage, and disputing every inch of ground with the greatest obstinacy.

But the attention of all Europe was more particularly drawn to the critical situation of affairs in Italy. On the 6th of May, Bonaparte set out for the army of reserve, which was destined to relieve Massena. After entering Italy, he made himself master of Milan, Parma, Lodi, Cremona, and of all the course of the Po. From the operations of general Melas, he seems not to have been apprised of the strength, designs, or advanced progress of the enemy, till it was too late to oppose an effectual barrier to their progress. Even the surrender of Genoa, which took place on the 5th of June, seemed to produce no change in the plans of the chief consul, nor to effect any favourable reverse in the affairs of the Austrians.

On the 9th General Ott was attacked by the French at Casteggio, the battle was obstinate and bloody, and victory long doubtful, but at last declared in favour of the French with a great loss on both sides; this was a prelude to the decisive battle of Marengo, a battle which was near deciding the fate of Europe, in that way which good and loyal men had long looked for, rather with earnest desire than confident hope; the advantage for six hours was greatly in favour of the Austrians, but some of these circumstances which are seen frequently to happen in all human concerns, and which prudence cannot foresee nor precaution prevent, turned the apparent certainty of a brilliant and important victory into a melancholy and ruinous defeat. Immediately after the battle, a convention was entered into by the commanders in chief of both armies, by which an armistice was agreed upon, till an answer should be received from the court of Vienna respecting a negotiation and peace, and by which Genoa was surrendered immediately to the French, together with all the strong places of Lombardy and Piedmont. Great as was the loss sustained by the Austrians by the battle of Marengo, the situation of their affairs does not seem to justify the extraordinary conduct of General Melas, in voluntarily surrendering into the hands of the enemy nearly all the fruits of a glorious and successful campaign. To the overtures of the chief consul for negotiation, the court of Vienna pleaded its being bound in honour only to negotiate in concert with Great Britain. To this the chief consul assented, and communicated the intelligence to the British government, demanding at the same time a naval armistice as a preliminary to ne-
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gociation. This demand under certain qualifications the British ministry did not reject. Upon this point the two contending powers entered into a discussion, but could not agree concerning the conditions. France insisted upon being allowed to supply the Brest fleet with stores, and Egypt with those necessaries of which the French army were in want. As this condition rendered the superiority of Britain at sea useless and nugatory, the ministers positively refused to agree to these conditions; the negotiations of course were broken off.

Meanwhile the emperor having refused to subscribe to the conditions of the preliminaries of peace signed by his plenipotentiary at Paris, the armistice was broken off, and a proclamation to that effect was published by the French general. Upon the rupture of the negotiation fresh preliminaries were sent to Vienna by Bonaparte, which were at length ratified by the emperor, who consented to surrender Ulm, Ingolstadt, and Philipsburgh, in order that a definitive treaty might be exposed to no further obstacles. After a considerable delay it was at last agreed that a congress should meet at Luneville, and count Cobenzel was appointed plenipotentiary by the court of Vienna, and Joseph Bonaparte on the part of France. While affairs on the continent thus began to wear a pacific appearance, the terms of the armistice were openly violated by the French army in Italy invading Tuscany. This violation of the armistice, together with the difficulty of adjusting several other important points, rendered it very evident that hostilities would be recommenced at no very distant period. This event took place on the 24th of November, when the French took possession of Aschaffenburg, and soon after defeated the Austrians in the fatal battle of Hohenlinden. An armistice was soon after concluded at Steyer on the 25th of November. The conditions were very disadvantageous to the Austrians, and rendered the resumption of hostilities both dangerous and difficult. This was soon after followed by an armistice in Italy, which was concluded at Treviso, and finally put an end to the war on the continent. A treaty of peace was concluded between the contending powers, by which the French gained every point for which they had taken up arms.

The evacuation of Egypt, so glorious to the British arms, and so disgraceful to those of France, and the pacification of Amiens, have already been noticed in our history of Britain.

As soon as the preliminaries of peace were signed, Bonaparte fitted out a great expedition for St Domingo, to restore, as he said, the French West India colonies to tranquillity and order. On board the fleet and transports, which accompanied them, an army of above 25,000 men, the flower of the French soldiery, and completely equipped, was embarked. The celebrated negro chief, Toussaint, a man truly worthy of our admiration, and animated by sentiments worthy of a christian hero, after making a brave defence, at length concluded a capitulation with the French generals; who afterwards treacherously seized him on false pretences, and sent him in chains to Europe, to end his days in a French prison, not without suspicion of having been assassinated. The war was carried on against the negroes of St Domingo by Le Clerc, (the first consul's brother-in-law), and after him by Rochambeau, in a manner that would have disgraced the most savage nations of antiquity; but in every respect worthy of the tyrant who commissioned them to perpetrate such nefarious deeds. The re-commencement of the war with Britain having deprived the first consul of the means of sending any reinforcements to his troops, the French have been at length entirely driven out of the island, and St Domingo has been formed into an independent negro kingdom, under the title of "The Empire of Hayti."

After the treaty of Amiens, Bonaparte seemed to consider the whole world, and Great Britain amongst the rest, as so completely humbled, that it was no longer necessary to conceal his views, or retard their execution. Before even this treaty had been signed, he had caused himself to be declared sovereign of Italy, under the title of President of the Italian Republic. Afterwards he took possession of the island of Elba,—he reserved Piedmont,—kept possession of Holland,—excited commotions in Switzerland, re-entered it with his troops, annihilated the liberty of that interesting country, and authoritatively disposed of the affairs of Germany, as if he had been sovereign of the empire. These and many other outrages, equally offensive and unjustifiable, at last caused the
spirit of the British nation, (which had been repeatedly and most grossly insulted in the French official prints), and hostilities recommenced betwixt the two nations in the month of May 1803.

During the whole of the year 1804, preparations for the invasion of England were continued, but, from being accustomed to these, without seeing any effect produced by them, the hopes of the French, and apprehensions of the English, were daily abated.

In March, the popular general Moreau was arrested and imprisoned, on the charge of having engaged in a conspiracy against the person and government of Bonaparte. The exiled Pichegru, who, after escaping from Cayenne to England, had landed clandestinely in France, and Georges, a royalist emigrant, together with several others of the same class, were declared to have been his accomplices in this plot. Both of these were arrested, and the former, having been soon after found dead in prison, attempts were made, but without success, to persuade the public that he had fallen by his own hand. Georges and Moreau were brought to trial. The former was condemned and executed; and the latter was sentenced to two years imprisonment, which, being afterwards commuted for banishment, he withdrew to Spain, and from thence to America. Eighteen others were capitally condemned, of whom a few were, with much ostentation, made objects of the Imperial clemency *. About the same period, the detection of various subordinate plots was announced, and, with a view to excite rage and resentment against England, the British ministers at Stutgard and Munich were charged with attempts to create a conspiracy against the life of Bonaparte; and with other practices, in violation of the law of nations, a charge which has been effectually refuted.

But, while breaches of the law of nations were so liberally imputed to others, Bonaparte seemed anxious to shew the world that he was exempted from its restraints, and might treat foreign states, as if they were part of his own dominions. In conformity with this principle, the duke de Enghien, grandson to the Prince of Condé, was seized by a detachment of the usurper's army, upon his own estate in the neutral territory of Haden, and sent in irons to Paris. On the 21st March, he was condemned by a military commission at Vincennes, and shot at midnight in the adjoining wood.

To this outrage against decorum, humanity, and justice, were added other less atrocious acts of iniquity, but all equally demonstrative of the vassalage to which the continent was reduced, and of the unbridled insolence in which its ruler thought himself privileged to indulge. A British messenger, bearing dispatches to Petersburgh, was stopst in the north of Germany, and robbed of his papers by French soldiers: and sir George Humbold, the English ambassador to lower Saxony, was seized near Hamburg, by order of the French minister of police, but released through the interference of Prussia.

Wearyed out at length with these multiplied insults, and ashamed of the humiliating timidity which had so long permitted them, some of the principal European powers appeared disposed to unite in another effort for recovering their independence. The issue of this unfortunate coalition forms the most important topic of history for 1805.

* In consequence of this conspiracy, the abject senate of Bonaparte, at the suggestion of his creatures, solicited him to take upon himself the imperial dignity, and declare it hereditary in his family, on pretense that the government of the republic will thus become permanently established, and secure from the attacks of her enemies. This application was made by the senate in a body on the 20th of May (1804), and the first consul was graciously pleased, for the good of his country, to comply with this request, and accordingly assumed the title of Emperor of the French, and appointed his imperial highness prince Joseph Bonaparte, grand elector, and his imperial highness prince Louis Bonaparte, constable, of the empire. His two colleagues, the second and third consuls, having proved their fidelity to him, by not interfering in the smallest degree with the affairs of government, except as directed by him, have been gratified by the high-sounding titles of arch-chancellor and arch-treasurer of the empire.

Thus has the French nation, after wading through rivers of blood, and suffering the greatest calamities for the abolition of royalty, returned to the point from whence it set out, and submitted to the same, or rather an infinitely more arbitrary form of government. It has exchanged the mild sway of a virtuous rightful monarch, for that of a foreign usurper, whose life has been a continued series of the most atrocious crimes. May its example not be lost on other nations; since it forcibly displays how certainly all endeavours to establish a visionary and impracticable liberty, lead to the opposite extreme of despotism and slavery!
Early in the summer of that year, the emperor of Russia, who had made several spirited but ineffectual remonstrances concerning the murder of the duke d’Enghien, proposed to negotiate a peace between France and England; but, while the person commissioned to this mediating office was waiting at Berlin for passports to Paris, intelligence was received of the seizure of Genoa and of its annexation to the French territory. Such a repetition, at such a moment, of those outrages to which Europe had so long been subjected, and which it was the manifest intention of Russia to prevent, seemed to indicate a disposition so ostentatiously offensive, as induced the emperor to recall his agent, and in conjunction with Austria to have immediate recourse to arms. — In the beginning of September, the archduke Charles took the command of the Austrian forces in Italy; and general Mack (whose character had been unjustly extolled), of those in Germany. All the measures of this commander were marked by precipitation, indecision, and a total want of resource on any unexpected change of circumstances. Having seized Bavaria, whose monarch had taken part with France, he advanced into Suabia; but on the approach of Bonaparte, who with unexampled speed had marshalled a powerful army across from Boulogne, Mack immediately retreated to Ulm. There he remained, while another French army, which had evacuated Hanover, forced a passage through the Prussian estates in Franconia, and took its station between Ulm and the Austrian dominions. This violation of a neutral territory, though consonant to the practice and principles of the French, Mack seems never once to have expected; and it appears to have produced the effect of paralysing all his faculties, and depriving him of the power to act. He made no effort to disengage himself from the force which was surrounding him, but on the 17th of October surrendered his army by capitulation; and when a proposal was afterwards made, that he should carry the articles into execution, some days previous to that which had been fixed (a proposal which any other officer would have thought a personal insult, requiring him to perish rather than submit to it), so completely was he unmanned, that he tamely consented. The path to Vienna was now open, as the Russians, who had reached their ground before the appointed day, finding no allies to support them, retired into Moravia. In that province the emperor Francis with a small army joined them, and Bonaparte took unresisted possession of his capital on the 13th November. There however he lost no time, but with that rapidity which distinguished all his movements, followed the allies into Moravia, and at Austerlitz, on the 2d of December, gave them a total defeat, which terminated, in less than two months from its commencement, this ill-fated and ill-conducted effort for the independence of Europe.

Next day an interview took place between the sovereigns of Austria and France, at which an armistice was agreed on. A treaty of peace was soon after dictated by the latter at Presburg, and Francis, who does not seem designed for times like the present, by the cession of his Tyrolese and Venetian dominions, and all his possessions in Suabia, ransomed the remainder. Meanwhile the archduke Charles had, with his usual generalship, made a masterly retreat before a superior army, to the neighbourhood of Vienna, which he was ready to retake, when the mortifying intelligence of the armistice prevented him. His brother Ferdinand had likewise defeated the French forces in Bohemia. Prussia, to whose timid and temporising policy, the calamities of Europe are justly chargeable, at length partook of the sufferings she had occasioned. On the violation of her neutrality, she seemed disposed to assume a hostile attitude; but when a crisis of short duration occurred, at which the vigorous impression of her arms might have restored her own dignity, and the balance of nations, she with her usual hesitation permitted it to pass, and contented herself with issuing a manifesto, and dispatching an ambassador. She suffered this negotiator to be tried with, till the battle of Austerlitz was gained, and then, instead of obtaining satisfaction, she was obliged to pay for demanding it. She was strait of her Franconian possessions by France, who transferred to her in return a ridiculous chime by conquest to the electorate of Hanover; a boon, which was necessarily accompanied by a war with Britain, and by the loss of her shipping and commerce.

Peace having now been compulsively restored round the frontiers of France, and no channel of annoyance remaining to Russia, Bonaparte was left at leisure to partition out the territories of his discomfited opponents. His first object was to aggrandize the members of
his own family, and to overbalance the disadvantage of their sordid birth, by placing them in situations of imposing authority and splendour. A small Anglo-Russian army having landed at Naples during the contest in Germany, with a view to form a diversion in favour of the allies, he was thus furnished with a pretext for deposing Ferdinand IV., and placing his brother Joseph on the Neapolitan throne. Ferdinand immediately withdrew to Sicily: but his Italian subjects did not submit to the usurper, so passively as might have been expected. The fortress of Gaeta, under the brave prince of Hesse, made an obstinate and noble resistance against the army of Massena: and the Calabrians, with the support of a few British auxiliaries, are still maintaining the cause of their lawful sovereign. In this quarter, the English forces obtained a signal victory over the army of Regnier, on the 4th of July, as has been more particularly mentioned under the head of England.

Holland was at the same time destined to form an appanage for another of the Corsican princes. Louis Bonaparte became sovereign of that degenerate republic, where every spark of its ancient virtues was extinguished; and while the enervated Italians, who had never tasted political liberty, were valiantly combating the power of France, the Dutch, whose ancestors had made the world resound with the tale of their exploits in the cause of freedom, bowed their necks without a struggle to the yoke of a foreign monarch.

The second object of Bonaparte was to display to Europe, for its future instruction, the power of reward and punishment, which he had acquired. He conferred the regal dignity on the electors of Bavaria and Wirtemburg, augmenting their dominions from the spoils of Austria and Prussia: and many inferior titles and domains were bestowed upon others of his creatures or connections. But the most important of his arrangements was not accomplished till July 1806, when he compelled a large proportion of the southern states of Germany to separate themselves entirely from the empire, and to constitute themselves into a new league, called the Confederation of the Rhine, under his own immediate headship and protection. Immediately after this arrangement had been publicly announced, the feeble Francis, either from despondency, or from the secret compulsion of Bonaparte, declared his resignation of the imperial crown of Germany, and thus completely dissolved the ancient constitution of the Germanic body.

About the same period, a treaty of peace with Russia was concluded at Paris by M. d’Oubril whom the czar had employed for this purpose, but the terms to which he acceded being contrary to his instructions, the ratification of his sovereign was refused. Russia, therefore, remains still at war with France: and Prussia, who has lost so many favourable occasions to curb the insolence of the Gallic usurper, seems at length provoked to resist it, at a moment when the chances of success appear most unpromising. As a preparation for hostilities with France, she has wisely compromised her quarrel with Britain. The maritime history of France during the present war, will be found under the head of England.

Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French, was born August 24, 1754; married April 9, 1770, to Maria-Antoinetta, arch-duchess of Austria, born November 2, 1755: succeeded his grandfather Lewis XV. May 10, 1774; crowned at Rheims, June 11, 1775; beheaded January 21, 1793.—The issue of Lewis XVI. and Maria-Antoinetta is,

1. Madame Maria-Theresa-Charlotte, born December 19, 1778, married June 10, 1799 to Lewis Antoine, duke d’Angoulême.

Brothers to his late Majesty.

1. Lewis-Stanislaus-Xavier, count de Provence, born November 171755; married, May 14, 1771, to Maria-Josepha-Louisa, daughter to the king of Sardinia, born Sep. 2, 1753.

2. Charles-Philip, count d’Artois, born October 9, 1757; married November 6, 1773, to Maria-Theresa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born January 21, 1756.

Napolean Bonaparte, who has assumed the title of Emperor of the French, was born August 15, 1769.
NETHERLANDS, or BELGIUM.

Though the provinces of the Netherlands, which were formerly subject to the house of Austria, are now become part of France, yet, as they have been so recently annexed to that country, and are still distinguished from it by the name of Belgium, as well as by the natural characteristics of the country and its inhabitants, we shall here describe them in a separate article.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 180</td>
<td>between $49^\circ 20'$ and $51^\circ 30'$ North latitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 170</td>
<td>$2^\circ 30'$ and $6^\circ 30'$ East longitude.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Containing 10,572 square miles, with 285 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] The country formerly divided into seventeen provinces and known by the name of the Netherlands, was formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium, or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of the Netherlands, or Low Countries, from their low situation with respect to Germany.

BOUNDARIES.] That part of these provinces, which is now usually called the Netherlands or Belgium, is bounded on the north by Holland; on the east by the part of Germany lately annexed to France; on the south by the French departments of the Moselle, Ardenne, and the North; and on the west by the North or English sea.

DIVISION.] The Netherlands, in the full extent of the term, anciently consisted of seventeen provinces, of which seven constituted the seven united provinces, usually known by the name of Holland. The remaining ten, till they were ceded by Austria to France, at the conclusion of the late war, were divided between the Dutch, the Austrians, and the French. Austria possessed the whole of the provinces of Antwerp, Malines, and Namur; and the French the whole of those of Artois and Cambresis. Brabant and Limburg were possessed partly by Austria, and partly by Holland; and Hainault and Luxembourg were in like manner divided between Austria and France.

The province of Flanders was shared between all these three powers, under the names of Austrian, Dutch, and French Flanders. The whole of these ten provinces, except the part of Brabant possessed by Holland, is now incorporated with France, and divided into the nine departments of the Lys, the Scheldt, Jemappe, the two Nethes, the Dyle, the Lower Meuse, Ourthe, Sambre, and Meuse, and Forests—See Table of the Departments of France.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The Netherlands are a flat country, containing no mountains, and but few hills. In the department of Jemappe is the forest of Soignes; and in that of the forests, are ample remains of the ancient forest of Ardenne, which formerly extended from the Moselle to the sea.

RIVERS, CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maese or Meuse, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Same, Rupelle, Scheldt, Lys, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are those of Brussels, Ghent, and Ostend.

METALS, MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead, and sulphur, are found in Luxembourg and Limburg, at present the departments of the forests and of Ourthe, as are some marble quarries; and in the province of Namur, or the department of the Sambre and Meuse, there are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth, proper fuel, with great plenty of fossil nitre.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the seasons more settled, during winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are:
rich, especially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. The state of agriculture in the Netherlands has received highest praise from those well qualified to judge of it; and has, indeed, been celebrated for these 600 years past. Upon the whole, the late Austrian Netherlands, by the culture commerce, and industry, of the inhabitants, was formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleasantness of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in latter times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is still a most desirable and agreeable country.

Vegetables, Animals.] Great quantities of corn, flax, and madder, are grown in the Netherlands, and the pasturage is particularly abundant. The cattle, which are purchased lean in the more northern countries, soon fatten and grow to a large size. The animals are in general the same as in the neighbouring countries of France and Holland.

Natural Curiosities.] No precipices, cataracts, nor any grand and romantic natural scenery can be expected in this flat and low country. A stone quarry, under a hill near Maestricht, which is worked into a kind of subterranean palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high, may be mentioned under this head, though it may seem rather an artificial than a natural curiosity.

Population.] The number of inhabitants in this country has usually been estimated at about two millions; but according to the enumeration published by the French government, the nine departments of Belgium contain 3,018,703 inhabitants.—See Table of the Departments of France.

National Character, Manners.] The Flemings, by which name the natives of the Low Countries were usually called, though the appellation was strictly applicable only to those of Flanders, have been generally esteemed a heavy, blunt, honest people, but their manners are somewhat indelicate. They are ignorant, and fond of religious ceremonies and exhibitions. Their diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries. In the part of the Netherlands which has been long in possession of the French, the inhabitants are become entirely French in their dress, language, and manners; but in the other parts the peasants dress like the Dutch boors, though the upper classes have long since adopted the French fashions.

Cities, Chief Towns, Edifices.] Brussels, the former residence of the governor or viceroy of the Austrian Netherlands, is an elegant city, adorned with a noble square, one side of which is occupied by a spacious town-house. The late palace of the Austrian governor, is magnificent structure. The city stands on the small river Senne, and contained in its flourishing state above 100,000 inhabitants: at present the number is 66,000.

The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner a void: the number of inhabitants, however, is still 56,000. Bruges formerly so noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconsiderable place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry and thread-lace shop, with the houses of some bankers, jewellers, and painters, adjoining. One of the first acts of the Dutch, soon after they threw off the Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by sinking vessels, loaded with stone, in the mouth of the Scheldt; thus shutting up the entrance of that river to ships of large burden. This was the more cruel as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-sufferers in the cause of liberty; but they foresaw that the prosperity of their own commerce was at stake. In 1569, when its trade is supposed to have been at its greatest height, it was computed to contain above 200,000 inhabitants: at present the number is only 61,800.

The other principal cities of the Netherlands, are Mons, containing 18,000 inhabi-
The chief manufactures of the Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that species called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

Government.] These provinces being now incorporated with France, are under the immediate government and laws of that country.

Religion.] Before the conquest of this country by the French, the established religion was the Roman-catholic; but protestants, and other sects, were not molested: at present, as making a part of France, it is subject to the regulations of the Concordat concluded between that power and the see of Rome.

The archbishopric of Malines or Mechlin was the metropolitan see; Cambray was also an archbishopric. The bishoprics were Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St Omers, Namur, and Ruremonde. In the present ecclesiastical division of France, Malines is an archbishopric, containing seven bishoprics.

Literature and the Arts.] The societies of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many eligible settlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The French historians Froissart and Philip de Comines were natives of Flanders; the learned Linus was born near Brussels.

The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Reubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. The models for heads of Fiamingo, or the Fleming, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engaged tapestry-weaving to themselves

Universities.] These are Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St Omers. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this university had the privilege of presenting to all the living in the Netherlands, except in Holland.

Language.] The vernacular language of this country is the Flemish, a dialect of the Dutch; but it is nearly superseded, except among the peasantry, by the French.

Antiquities.] Some Roman temples and other buildings, and the remains of Roman roads, are found in the Netherlands. There are also many churches and convents, venerable for their antiquity; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, in all the cities, give evidence of their former grandeur.

History.] The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, were called Gallia Belgica by the Romans. About a century before the Christian era, the Batte removed from Hesse to the marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maese. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great respect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military services. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, possessed themselves of these provinces first, as they passed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire; and afterwards being erected into small governments, the heads of which were despotic within their own dominions, Batavia and Holland became independent of Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandsons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the supreme authority was lodged in the three united powers, of a count, the nobles, and the towns. At last, they were swallowed up by the house of Burgundy, anno 1433.

The emperor Charles V., the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the house of Austria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his son Philip II., who succeeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occasioned a general insurrection, the counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing
at the head of it; and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples were forced by persecution to join the malcontents. Philip II. in consequence introduced a kind of inquisition, which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the "Council of Blood," in order to suppress them; and many thousands were put to death by that court, besides those that perished by the sword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their stadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though these revolters at first were thought so despicable as to be termed Beggars by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage were such, under the prince of Orange, and with the assistance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people, in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent state, under the title of the United Provinces.

After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained possessed of the other ten provinces, or, as they termed them, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, as general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramilies, in the year 1706; after which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI., afterwards emperor of Germany, for their sovereign; and his daughter, Maria Theresa, remained possessed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxembourg; and would have retained them from that time, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the English, in favour of the house of Austria, which continued in undisturbed possession of the part of the Netherlands secured to it by the peace of 1748, till the disputes which took place between these provinces and the emperor Joseph, in the years 1708 and 1789.

The quarrel originated, like those in other countries, concerning the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, which were more extensive than his subjects wished to allow; and the emperor making use of force to assert his claims, the territories of the United States became a refuge for the discontented Brabanders.

On the part of his imperial majesty, the insurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was issued by count Trautmannsdorff, governor of Brussels, intimating, that no quarter should be given them, and that the villages in which they concealed themselves should be set on fire. General Dalton marched with 700 men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become master of them by assault, and would put every soul he found in them to the sword.

In opposition to this sanguinary proclamation, the patriots issued a manifesto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority, by his various oppressions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, and infringing the constitution. Banishment was threatened to such as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country, though strict orders were given that no crowds or mobs should be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing so, should be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogstraten, in Brabant, October the 24th 1789. Almost every town in Austrian Flanders showed its determination to oppose the emperor, and the most enthusiastic attachment to military affairs displayed itself in all ranks of men. Even the ecclesiastics manifested their valour on this occasion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was soon raised, which, after some successful skirmishes, made themselves masters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Ostend; so that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Brussels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loss of 1000 men, besides women and children. It reflects indelible disgrace on the emperor, as well as on the commanders of his troops, that they committed the most dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. Orders were given to plunder and destroy wherever they could obtain any booty; while the merciless savages not only destroyed the men, but killed women and sucking infants. Some of them plunged their
bayonets into the bodies of children in the cradle, or pinned them against the walls of the houses. By these monstrous cruelties, they insured success to their adversaries; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders, and Malines, almost instantly declared in their favour. They published a memorial for their justification, in which they gave, as reasons for their conduct, the many oppressive edicts with which they had been harassed since the death of the empress-queen; the unwarrantable extension of the imperial prerogatives, contrary to the coronation-oath of the emperor, and which could not be done without perjury on his part; the violence committed on his subjects, by forcibly entering their houses at midnight, and sending them prisoners to Vienna, to perish in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly massacred his subjects; he had consigned towns and villages to the flames, and entered into a design of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. These things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and easily impose upon weak minds, but "the natural courage of a nation, roused by repeated injuries, and animated by despair, would rise superior to those last efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reasons they declared themselves independent, and for ever released from the house of Austria.

The emperor, now perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, published proclamations of indemnity, &c., but they were treated with the utmost contempt. The patriots made the most rapid conquests; insomuch, that, before the end of the year, they were masters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg.

Notwithstanding they thus appeared for ever separated from the house of Austria, yet the death of Joseph, happening soon after, produced such a change in the conduct of government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the situation of affairs; and the mild and pacific disposition of Leopold, who succeeded his brother, the conciliatory measures he adopted, together with the mediation of Great Britain, Prussia, and Holland, made a material alteration in the affairs of these provinces; and a convention, which was signed at Reichenbach, on the 27th of July 1790, by the above-mentioned high contracting powers, had for its object the re-establishment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his imperial majesty.

Their majesties of Great Britain and Prussia, and the states-general of Holland, became, in the most solemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his successors for the sovereignty of the Belgic provinces, now re-united under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties, within two months from the date of signing, which was executed at the Hague, on the 10th of December 1709.

The incursion of the French into these provinces, their complete conquest, the cession of them to France by the treaty of Campo Formio, and the confirmation of that cession by the peace of Luneville, have already been related in our history of the late transactions of that people.

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THE SEVEN UNITED PROVINCES,

OR HOLLAND.

Situation and Extent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Containing 9400 square miles, with 280 inhabitants to each.

NAME.] This country was a part of that inhabited by the ancient Batavi: it is usually called Holland, from the name of the chief province; which is formed from the
German words *holl* and *land*, and signifies a *hollow* or low country. Since the revolution occasioned by the incursion of the French in 1795, it has taken the name of the Batavian Republic.

**Boundaries.** It is bounded on the north and west by the German ocean, and the Zuyder sea; on the east by Germany; and on the south by the Netherlands, or Belgium.

**Divisions.** The United Provinces were, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overyssel, Zeeland, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they generally are termed the Seven United Provinces. Besides these, the Dutch republic contained the county of Drente, a kind of separate province in Overyssel, which had no share in the government; and what was called the Land of the Generality, or Dutch Brabant, Dutch Flanders, and the part of Limburg which belonged to the republic. Of these the two latter are now annexed to France, being included in the new Belgian tables.

The extent and population of these provinces are stated as follows in Boetticher's tables:

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<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lower Guelderland and county of Zutphen.</td>
<td>1840</td>
<td>980,000</td>
<td>Nimiegucn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holland</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>980,000</td>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zealand</td>
<td>490</td>
<td>85,000</td>
<td>Middleburg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utrecht</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>75,000</td>
<td>Utrecht.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friesland</td>
<td>880</td>
<td>140,000</td>
<td>Leuwarden.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overyssel</td>
<td>1792</td>
<td></td>
<td>Deventer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Groningen</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>Groeningen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Drente.</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>435,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the latter are now to be deducted about 600 square miles, with 124,000 inhabitants, for the part taken into the French Belgian departments.

Since the expulsion of the stadtholder, and the introduction of a new form of government under the influence of the French, the Batavian republic has been divided into eight departments, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ancient Provinces.</th>
<th>Departments.</th>
<th>Chief Towns.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Groeningen and Friesland</td>
<td>Ems.</td>
<td>Leuwarden.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overyssel, and part of Guelderland and Zutphen</td>
<td>Old Yssel.</td>
<td>Zwoll.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remainder of Guelderland and Zutphen, and part of Utrecht</td>
<td>Rhine.</td>
<td>Arnheim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part of Holland</td>
<td>Amstel.</td>
<td>Amsterdam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North part of Holland, and south part, to Leyden inclusive</td>
<td>Texel.</td>
<td>Alkmaar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remainder of south part of Holland, and remainder of Utrecht</td>
<td>Delft.</td>
<td>Utrecht.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern part of Dutch Brabant</td>
<td>Scheldt and Meuse.</td>
<td>Boisle Duc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western part of Dutch Brabant and Zealand</td>
<td></td>
<td>Middleburg.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each of these departments is divided into seven circles or districts.

**Face of the Country.** Holland is situate opposite to England, at the distance of 90 miles, upon the east side of the English channel; and is only a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several great rivers; and what the industry of the inhabitants have gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have...
The chief rivers of Holland are the Rhine, (one of the largest rivers in Europe), the Maese or Meuse, the Dommel, the Waal, the Issel, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many other small rivers that fall into these. The principal lake of Holland is the Sea of Haerlem; there are also some small lakes in the north of the province of Holland, and in Friesland and Groeningen. The canals of these provinces are almost innumerable. The usual way of passing from town to town is by covered boats, called trecksuits, which are dragged along the canals by horses on a slow uniform trot, so that passengers reach the different towns where they are to stop precisely at the appointed instant of time. This method of travelling, though to strangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of these canals an extensive inland commerce is not only carried on through the whole country, but, as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of every country are conveyed at a small expence into various parts of Germany and Flanders. A trecksuit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruin; the first for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is astonished when he behold the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant neat country-houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure-grounds, intermixed with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge.

Metals, minerals.] Holland produces neither metals nor minerals, except a little iron; nor any mineral waters.

Climate, soil, agriculture.] The air of the United Provinces is foggy and gross, until it is purified by the frost in winter, when the east wind usually sets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moisture of the air causes metals to rust, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reason of their perpetually rubbing and scouring, and of the brightness and cleanliness in their houses, so much taken notice of. The soil is unfavourable to vegetation; but, by the industry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for pasture, and in many places for tillage.

Vegetables, animals.] The quantity of grain produced here is not sufficient for home consumption; but, by draining the bogs and marshes, the Dutch have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of the best butter and cheese in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit, and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber used there, and, indeed, most of the comforts, and even the necessaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued: and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in any other nation in Europe. It is said that there are some wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys; but being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fish are much the same as ours; but their sea-fish are generally larger, owing perhaps to their fishing in deep water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oyster-beds about the islands of the Texel, producing very large and well-tasted oysters. Notwithstanding all the inconveniences, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (except to travellers and strangers), as can be met with in any part of Europe.

Curiosities.] Holland, like the Netherlands, presents none of the vast and grand scenery of nature. The numerous canals with which the country is intersected, may be considered as interesting to the curiosity of the traveller; and the prodigious dykes (some of which are said to be seventeen ells in thickness) mounds, and canals, con-
structed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are works equally stupendous and singular. The Stadhous of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world: it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is equally convenient and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden.

Population.} The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contained in 1785, according to a public account then given, 113 cities and towns, 1,400 villages, and 2,758,632 inhabitants; besides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands. Later estimates make the population amount at present to 2,633,070.

National character, manners, customs.] The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for so the inhabitants of the United Provinces are in general called), seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains, with which it is every where intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to the laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the sea, by their herring fisheries; for they dispose of most of their valuable fish to the English, and other nations, for the sake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldness with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for, in all other respects, they are quiet neighbours and peaceable subjects.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active, when they believe their interests at stake; witness their sea-wars with England and France. Their boors, though slow of understanding, are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are plain, blunt, but rough, surly, and an ill-natured sort of people, and appear to be insensible of public spirit and affection for each other. Their tradesmen in general are reckoned honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words. Smoking tobacco is practised by old and young, of both sexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unsociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every species of brutality. The Dutch have also been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which exhibits but few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both sexes, it is owing, in a great measure, to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler here than in most other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour: nor warm enough for love; so that the softer passions seem no natives of this country; and love itself is little better than a mechanical affection, arising from interest, convenience, or habit; it is talked of sometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of, rather than felt, and as a discourse that becomes them, rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; as, to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of expence should equal the revenue; and when this happens, they think, at least, they have lived that year to no purpose; and the report of it used to discredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so universal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance
has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewise practised by many of their fashionable ladies, and some of them discover more propensity to gallantry than was known there in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants whose lot, if not rich, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and no where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of a world of taxes and contributions, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous works of draining their country of those immense deluges of water, that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages, while, at the same time, they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and sea that surrounded them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become, in a few hours, inaccessible. From that frugality and perseverance by which they have been so much characterised, they were enabled, though labouring under the greatest difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, and the East and West Indies, at the expense of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a despicable province, a most powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments; maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not less than 150,000 men, and upwards of eighty ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality being now less universal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of the English and French; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking booths, skittle, and other grounds, and small pieces of water, which form the amusements of the middling ranks; not to mention their hand-organs, and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity.

The dress of the Dutch formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men, and the jerkins, plain mobs, short petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickness and clumsiness of their persons, gave them a very grotesque appearance. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly among the sea-faring people.

Cities, chief towns, edifices.] Amsterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 212,000 people, and to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world. It stands on the river Amstel. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description. In this and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals and walks under trees planted on their borders is admirable; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that is every where observed within doors. This city, however, labours under two great disadvantages—bad air, and the want of fresh wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain water in reservoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth; its inhabitants are computed at 49,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors and strangers of all distinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about forty thousand; it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleasure and politics. Middleburg in Zealand has a large town-hall, and was the seat of the provincial states, and of the council of Flanders. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their universities. Delhi, Dort, and Groeningen, are
likewise considerable towns, containing each about 20,000 inhabitants. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workshop where Peter the Great of Muscovy in person served his apprenticeship to ship-building, andlaboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Guelderland is subject to Prussia, and the capital city is Guelder.

Commerce, manufactures. An account of the Dutch commerce, previous to the late revolution, would have comprehended that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they did not carry on, or a state to which they did not trade. In this they are assisted by the populousness of their country, the cheapness of their labour, and, above all, by their water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces were the grand magazine of Europe; and goods might be purchased here sometimes cheaper than in the countries where they grow. The East-India Company has had the monopoly of the most valuable spices for more than a hundred years, and, till the late and present wars with England, was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is said to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Asia. Here the viceroys appear in greater splendor than the stadtholder; and some of the Dutch subjects in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependence on the mother country. They have other settlements in India; but the island of Ceylon is now in possession of the English. Not to mention their herring and whale fisheries, which they have carried off from the native proprietors, they are distinguished for their pottery, tobacco-pipes, Delft-ware, finely refined salt; their oil-mills, and starch-manufactures; their hemp and fine paper manufactures; their fine linen and table-damasks; their saw-mills for timber, either for shipping or houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather dressing; the great quantity of coin and specie, assisted by their banks, especially by that of Amsterdam; their East-India trade; and their general industry and frugality. Their commerce, however, must have greatly suffered during the late and present war, and especially since the French entered the country.

Public trading companies. Of these, the principal is the East-India Company, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immense wealth, divided forty per cent. and sometimes sixty, about the year 1660; at present the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors, on an average, one year with another, divided somewhat above twenty-four per cent. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent.; but the Dutch West-India Company the same year divided no more than two and a half per cent. This Company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amsterdam was thought to be inexhaustibly rich, and was under an excellent direction; it is said, by sir William Temple, to contain the greatest treasure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may seem a paradox, is, that this bank was so far from paying any interest, that the money in it was worth somewhat more than the current cash is in common payments. Mr Anderson supposes, that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which were kept in the vaults of the Stadthouse, amounted to thirty-six (though others say only to thirty) millions sterling.

Constitution, government, laws. Before the French entered Holland, in January 1795, the United Provinces formed a common confederacy; yet each province had an internal government or constitution independent of the others; this government was called the states of that province; and the delegates from them formed the states-general, in whom the sovereignty of the whole confederacy was vested; but though a province should send two or more delegates, yet such province had no more than one voice in every resolution; and before that resolution could have the force of a law, it must be approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality in times of great danger and emergency has been set aside. Every resolution of the states of a particular province must be carried unanimously.

The council of state consisted likewise of deputies from the several provinces; but its constitution was different from that of the states-general; it was composed of twelve persons, whereof Guelderland sent two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two;
Friesland, one; Overysse1, one; and Groeningen, one. These deputies, however, did not vote provincially, but personally. Their business was to prepare estimates, and ways and means for raising the revenue, as well as other matters that were to be laid before the states-general. The states of the provinces were styled "Noble and Mighty Lords;" but those of Holland, "Noble and Most Mighty Lords;" and the states general, "High and Mighty Lords," or "The Lords, the States-general of the United Netherlands;" or "Their High Mightinesses." Subordinate to these two bodies, was the chamber of accounts, which was likewise composed of provincial deputies, who audited all public accounts. The admiralty formed a separate board, and the executive part of it was committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zeeland, and Friesland. In Holland the people had nothing to do, either in choosing their representatives or their magistrates. In Amsterdam, which took the lead in all public deliberations, the magistracy was lodged in thirty-six senators, who were chosen for life, and every vacancy among them was filled up by the survivors. The same senate also ejected deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland.

The above particulars are mentioned, because, without a knowledge of them, it is impossible to understand the history of the United Provinces from the death of king William to the year 1747, when the stadtholdership was made hereditary in the male and female representatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner superseded the constitution already described. The stadtholder was president of the states of every province; and such was his power and influence, that he could change the deputies, magistrates, and officers, in every province and city. By this he held the moulding of the assembly of the states-general, though he had no voice in it: in short, though he had not the title, he had more real power and authority than some kings; for, besides the influence and revenue he derived from the stadtholdership, he had several principalities and large estates of his own. The late stadtholder, who was expelled by the French, was William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, son of the stadtholder William Charles, who married Anne, princess-royal of Great Britain, and died in 1751.

Though Holland under this constitution was called a republic, yet its government was far from being of the popular kind: nor did the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at first view be apprehended. It was indeed rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people were not suffered to have the least share in any part of the government, nor even in the choice of the deputies. It may also be observed, that very few persons in this state dared speak their real sentiments freely; and they were generally educated in principles so extremely cautious, that they could not relinquish them when they entered more into public life.

After the departure of the stadtholder, on the conquest of Holland by the French, in 1795, a convention was assembled to administer the government, and frame a constitution for the new Batavian republic. The first plan they presented was rejected by the people in the primary assemblies; but another was afterwards drawn up, which was accepted. This constitution was again changed in several particulars in 1798; and the Batavian republic was afterwards governed by a directory of twelve members, the president of which was changed every three months, and of which one member went out annually; and a legislative body of 35 members, which assembled twice, and if necessary oftener, in the year, and appointed a committee of twelve members to examine and report on the laws and regulations proposed by the directory.

In 1806 Bonaparte waved his magic wand,—this fabric instantly disappeared, and in its stead arose, before the wondering eyes of the Batavians, a monarchy, under the protection of that august prince Louis Bonaparte!

With respect to the administration of justice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeal lies from the petty and country courts; and it is said that justice is no where distributed with more impartiality.

[Revenue.] The late government of the United Provinces proportioned their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Those taxes consisted of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; so that the public revenue amounted annually to about three millions and a half sterling. The province of Holland paid nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the seven United Provinces contributed towards the public expence:
Of every million of ducats, the province of
Holland contributed. . . . . . . . . . . 420,000
Zealand ................................ 130,000
Friesland ................................ 170,000
Utrecht .................................. 85,000
Greoninghen ........................... 75,000
Guelderland ............................. 70,000
Overysssel ................................ 50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amsterdam furnishes upwards of 320,000. The taxes in these provinces are so heavy, and so many, that it is not without reason a certain author asserts, that the only thing which has escaped taxation there is the air they breathe. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandise are exceedingly low. The expenses occasioned by the present war, and the contributions required by their new allies the French, cannot but have considerably increased their taxes. In the year 1797, after the defeat of the Dutch fleet by admiral Duncan, a tax of eight per cent. on all income was imposed for the re-establishment of their navy. A forced loan of three per cent. on all capital and property, and a tax of 7 per cent. besides, on all income, were likewise decreed; and additional taxes of the same kind have since been imposed.

The public debt of the United Provinces is stated by Boetticher at one hundred and thirty millions sterling; but by an estimate lately published, which appears to be from authority, it amounts only to one thousand millions of florins, or about one hundred millions sterling.

Army, Navy.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces, in time of peace, commonly amounted to about forty thousand. At present, though they are at war, they have not more than twenty thousand; but their new allies, the French, oblige them to keep in their pay a numerous body of French troops, generally to the amount of twenty five or thirty thousand, who hold the country in subjection to France. The marine force of the United provinces used to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets; but their navy has for many years been neglected. Their late war with Great Britain obliged them to increase it; and they have great resources for that purpose. At present it must be in a very feeble and shattered state, in consequence of the surrender of admiral Lucas's squadron at the Cape of Good Hope, the victory gained by admiral Duncan, and especially the surrender of the fleet in the Texel to admiral Mitchel. Their naval force may, however, still amount to fifteen ships of the line, and as many frigates.

Religion.] Since the irruption of the French in Holland, the new government of the Batavian republic has declared that no religion is established or paid by the state; but prior to that event the established religion here was the Presbyterian and Calvinism; none but Presbyterians were admitted to any office or post in the government, excepting in the army; yet all religions and sects were tolerated, and had their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the Papists and Jews were very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be considered as a striking instance of the benefits arising to a nation from universal toleration. As every man is allowed to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, persons of the most opposite opinions live together in the most perfect harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reason to complain of being oppressed on account of his religious principles nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are associated together by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the state, with equal encouragement to arts and industry, and equal freedom of speculation and inquiry.

Literature.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand almost at the head of modern learning. Haarlem disputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magistrates keep two copies of a book entitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koster in 1440; and the most elegant editions of the classics
came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Lyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controversial divinity, which insinuated itself so much into the state, that, before principles of universal toleration prevailed, it had almost proved fatal to the government; witness the violent disputes about Arminianism, free-will, predestination, and the like. Besides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers in all branches of medicine. Grævius, Gronovius, father and son, and Burman, are ranked among the principal of their numerous commentators upon the classics. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments, in universities, church, or state.

Universities.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groeningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The university of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largest and most ancient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, besides a number of printed books, contains above two thousand oriental manuscripts. Here is also a physic-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The university of Utrecht was changed from a school into an university in 1636; but it has not all the privileges of the other universities, being entirely subject to the magistrates of the city. The physic-garden here is very curious; and, for the recreation of the students, on the east side of the city, just without the gate, is a beautiful mall, consisting of seven straight walks, two thousand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry from most countries in Europe, at these seminaries of literature; and as every one may live as he pleases, without being obliged to be profuse in his expences, or so much as quitting his night-gown for either weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be seen here. The force of example is strikingly exhibited at these universities; for frugality in expence, order, a composed behaviour, attention to study, and assiduity in all things, being the characteristic of the natives, strangers who continue amongst them soon adopt their manners and form of living. And though the students live as they please, and study as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their sobriety and good manners, and the assiduity and success with which they apply themselves to their studies. No oaths are imposed, nor any religious tests; so that Roman Catholic parents, and even Jews, send their children here with as little scruple as Protestants.

Language.] The language of the United Provinces is Low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of fashion speak English and French. The Lord's Prayer runs thus: Onze Vader, die in de hemel zyn, uwen naam worde gehchylicht: uween kome: uwe wille geschiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den aorden, ons dagelicks' broot geef ons huiden, ende vergeeft onze schulden gelyck ook wy vergeven onze schuldenaeren: ende enlaet ons niet in veroeckinge, maer vertast ons van der boosen. Amen.

Antiquities and Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.] The prodigious dikes, some of which are seventeen ells in thickness, mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are stupendous, and hardly to be equalled. A stone quarry near Maestricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of subterraneous palace, supported by pillars twenty feet high. The stadthouse of Amsterdam is perhaps the best building of that kind in the world; it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground, and the inside is equally convenient and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland, and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden; such as, a shirt made of the entrails of a man; two Egyptian mumies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity; all the muscles and tendons of the human body curiously set up, by professor Stalpert Vander Weil.

History.] After the Seven United Provinces had obtained their independence, they soon became distinguished as a commercial and maritime state, and by their seaways with England, under the Commonwealth, justly acquired the reputation of a for-
undable naval power. When the house of Austria, which for some ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, was become no longer formidable, and when the public jealousy was directed against that of Bourbon, who had dispossessed the Prince of Orange of the stadholdership, the spirit of the people was such, that they revived it in the person of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confedercy against Lewis XIV. king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756 has been mentioned in the history of that country, as also the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the English in the year 1780. As it was urged that they refused to fulfill the treaties which subsisted between them and Great Britain, so all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever existed. By this war their trade suffered considerably; but Negapatnam, in the East Indies, was the only place not restored to them by the peace of 1783.

To their separation from Great Britain may be attributed the differences between the States-general and the emperor Joseph II., who, from the exhausted state of several of the European powers, seemed to have a favourable opportunity of accomplishing his designs. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demolish the Dutch barrier in his dominions, for which they had contended so desperately in the time of queen Anne, and he now seemed inclined to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their respective nations was proposed to the states; but before this could take place, he committed some acts of hostility. Two small forts, St Dout, and St Paul, were seized upon, as well as some part of the marshes in the neighbourhood of Siusys. As a prelude to negotiations, he demanded that the Dutch guardship should be removed from Lillo, in acknowledgement that one of the prerogatives of his imperial majesty was the free navigation of the Scheldt. This being complied with, the negotiations were opened at Brussels, on the 24th of April 1784, when several other demands were made, the most material requisition being the town of Maestricht, and its territory. For some time the conferences were carried on in that dry and tedious manner which generally marks the proceedings of the Dutch; but the emperor urged on his demands with great vigour, and matters seemed fast tending towards an open rupture. On the 29th of August, he delivered in his ultimatum to the commissioners at Brussels, in which he offered to give up his demand on Maestricht, in consideration of having the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheldt to the sea; and, in token of his confidence of the good intentions of the states, he determined to consider the river as open from the date of that paper. Any insult on his flags, in the execution of these purposes, he would conclude to be a direct act of hostility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic. To prevent all injuries contrary to the rights of his imperial majesty, and to leave no doubts of his resolution to adhere to the propositions contained in the ultimatum, he sent to sea, from Antwerp, a ship under his flag, after having declared in what manner he should consider all violent opposition that might be made to the free passage of the said ship.

The ship was stopped in its passage, as was another, ordered to sail from Ostend up the Scheldt to Antwerp. But the Dutch offered to dismiss the vessels, if the captains would engage to return to their respective places, and not continue their voyage on the river, which they refused to do. This the emperor called insulting his flag, and declared to all foreign courts, he could not look upon this fact but as "an effective declaration of war upon the part of the republic." In answer to their conduct, by which the emperor declared them to have begun hostilities, the Dutch ministers at Brussels, in a paper delivered to that court, protested, "that as their sole aim was to support their incontrovertible right, they could not, with any appearance of justice, be considered as guilty of a hostile aggression."

Great preparations were made for immediate hostilities against the Dutch, and several hundreds of the Imperialists, with some field-pieces, advancing towards the counter-scarp of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the sluices to be opened, November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of the flat country around the forts of the Scheldt, to preserve them from an attack. Both
parties exerted themselves in case they should be called forth to open a campaign in the next spring; but France and Prussia interposed as mediators, and succeeded in bringing about a reconciliation.

During the progress of their contentions with the emperor, this country was greatly distressed by intestine animosities. The continued series of losses which they had sustained in the war with Great Britain was peculiarly disgraceful to the republic. All their settlements in the West Indies had fallen into the hands of the British, without resistance; their ships were captured, and trade ruined, while the disasters of the war excited the animosity of the two factions against each other to the highest degree. The aristocratic party attributed these defeats to the stadtholder, who had openly expressed his predilection for the English at the beginning of the American quarrel. They accused him of having advised the aggression of the English, and of contributing to their success by treachery. The evident inequality of the struggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards and arsenals of the republic, the frequent and public reiterations made by the prince and by the council of state on the subject of that deficiency, were forgotten; and the misconduct of the stadtholder was boldly alleged by the patriots as the sole cause of that miserable succession of defeat and disgrace which immediately followed the commencement of hostilities. The monarchial or Orange party, on the other hand, accused their antagonists of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

In the month of May 1786, the stadtholder gave orders to seize on Vreeswijk, a post of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its situation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland, containing also the sluices by which both these provinces might be overclosed. This brought on a skirmish between the troops of the stadtholder and the burghers of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. But while the military operations were carried on in this languid manner, a violent tumult happened at Amsterdam, in which several persons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of most of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the stadtholder; but notwithstanding this apparent advantage, and some others which afterwards took place, the disputes still continued with extreme violence, insomuch that the princess of Orange herself was seized, and detained prisoner a night by the patriots.

These turbulent commotions were settled by the king of Prussia, who for this purpose marched an army into the territories of the United Provinces, and took possession of the city of Rotterdam, and some other places, without resistance. This so much overawed both parties, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the states of Holland. By this the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guaranteed the stadtholdership, as well as the hereditary government of each province, in the House of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives settled in the years 1747 and 1748; by which all attempts to disturb the domestic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, appeared to be effectually guarded against by the close union that subsisted between those two important powers.

The revolution in Holland, in consequence of the irruption of the French, and the subsequent history of that country, are narrated in our history of France, to which we refer the reader.

---

**GERMANY.**

**Extent and Situation.**

Miles.  |
---  |
Length 610 | Degrees.  |
Breadth 520 | between  
| 45 and 50 North Lat.  |
| 6 and 19 East Long.  |

Containing 180,000 square miles, with 128 inhabitants to each.

**NAME.** Great part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, and the word Germany is of itself but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word;
the most probable is, that it is compounded of Ger or Gar, and Man, which, in the ancient Celtic, signifies a warlike man. The Germans went by various other names, such as Allemanni, Teutones; which last is said to have been their most ancient designation, and the Germans themselves call their country Teutschland.

**Boundaries.** Germany is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the east by Prussia, Gallicia, and Hungary; on the south by the Adriatic Sea, Italy, and Switzerland; and on the west by France, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Holland, and the North Sea.

**Divisions.** Germany formerly was divided into the Upper or Southern, and the Lower or Northern. The emperor Maximilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V., divided it into ten great Circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the Circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being afterwards detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Of these, three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

The Northern Circles

The Circles in the Middle

The Southern Circles

1. **Circle of Upper Saxony,**

Containing 31,200 square miles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
<th>Populat.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pomerania, subject to Prussia and Sweden.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pruss. Pomerania</td>
<td>7,200</td>
<td>540,000</td>
<td>Stettin, lat. 53, 32. N. long, 14. 55. E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Swed. Pomerania</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td>110,000</td>
<td>Stralsund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electorate of Brandenburg, subject to its elector, the k. of Prussia.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Old Mark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Berlin, lat. 52. 31. N. lon, 13. 21. E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Middle Mark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Perleberg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Priegnitz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Prentzlow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ucker Mark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Custria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New Mark</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dresden, lat. 51. 0. N. lon, 13. 50. E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meissen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Wittenberg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elec Circle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Langensalza</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thuringia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Leipsic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leipsic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Freyberg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Erzgebirge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Plauen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voigtland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Neustadt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neustadt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Merseburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Merseburg</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Naumburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Naumburg</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Querfurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Princip. of Querfurt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The electorate of Saxony comprehends 11,776 square miles, with 2,100,000 inhabitants.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
<th>Populat.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saxe Weimar and Eisenach</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>106,000</td>
<td>Weimar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saxe Gotha with part of Altenburg</td>
<td>830</td>
<td>165,000</td>
<td>Gotha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saxe Coburg Saalfeld</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>Coburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Saxe Coburg Meiningen</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>Sonnenburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hildburghausen</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>Hildburghausen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anhalt Dessau</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>115,000</td>
<td>Dessau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anhalt Bernburg</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>115,000</td>
<td>Bernburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anhalt Cothen</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>115,000</td>
<td>Cothen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Schwarzburg Sonderhausen</td>
<td>721</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>Rudolstadt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sch. Rudolstadt</td>
<td>721</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>Stolberg in the Harze</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stolberg Stolberg</td>
<td>721</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>Stolberg in the Harze</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stol. Wernigerode</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>14,000</td>
<td>Wernigerode</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reuss Greiz</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>Greiz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reuss Gera</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>Gera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reuss Schleiz</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>Schleiz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reuss Lobenstein</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>Lobenstein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>County of Reuss</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>Lobenstein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>County of Mansfeld, subject part to elector of Saxony, part to Prussia.</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>43,000</td>
<td>Eisleben</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Territory of late abbey of Quedlinburg, given as indemnity to Prussia.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>Quedlinburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Territory of late abbey of Walkenried, incorporated with part of Blankenburg, subject to duke of Brunswick Wolfenbuttle.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5,000</td>
<td>Walkenried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Late free Imperial town of Erfurt, given as indemnity to Prussia.</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>Erfurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Eichsfeld territory, subject to Prussia as indemnity late belonging to elector of Mentz.</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>Heiligenstadt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. **Circle of Lower Saxony.**

Containing 17,600 square miles.

| D. of Magdeburg | 1552 | 290,000 | Magdeburg |
| P. of Halberstadt and lordship of Derenburg | 480 | 100,000 | Halberstadt |
| P. late Bk. of Hildesheim | 640 | 90,000 | Hildesheim |

Late free cities:
- Muhlhausen 9,000
- Nordhausen 10,000
- Goslar 6,000
3. Circle of Westphalia,

Containing (after the deduction of 4,000 square miles annexed to France) 16,000 square miles.
GERMANY.

**Division**

**Territory of house of Orange-Nassau, or Nass.**
- P. of Dillenburg
- P. of Nassau Siegen
- P. of Dietz
- P. of Hadamar
- C. of Spielberg
- Town of Dortmund
- Abbey of Corvey

**Subdivisions:**
- P. of Dillenburg
- P. of Nassau Siegen
- P. of Dietz
- P. of Hadamar
- C. of Spielberg
- Town of Dortmund
- Abbey of Corvey
- C. of Lippe, subject to its counts.
  - Lippe Detmold
  - L. Schauenberg
- C. of Schauenberg, subject partly to Lippe Schauenberg, partly to Hesse Cassel
- C. of Wied.
  - Wiedrunkel
  - Sayn
  - Wied Neuwied
- Rietberg, subject to Hesse Cassel
  - Duke of Aremberg
  - Duke of Croy
  - Duke of Lors and Corswaren
  - Prince of Salm Kyburg
  - Prince of Salm Salm
- Counties of
  - Gehmen
  - Holzapfel
- Electorate of Hesse,
  - Lower Hesse with part of Upper Hesse on the Lahn
  - Lower C. of Catzenellenbogen, county of Hanau Munzenberg
- Landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt
  - Part of Upper Hesse
  - P. of late B. of Worms late free I. C. Friedberg
- Territory of
  - Nassau Uisingen
  - Nassau Wellburg
  - Principal of indemn.
  - Fulda
  - County of Waldeck
  - Solms Braunfels
  - Solms Hohenselms
  - Solms Laubach
  - Solms Rodelheim

**Populat.**
- 800 180,000
- 560 70,000
- 384 50,000
- 164 26,000
- 32 4,500
- 64 10,000
- 523 36,000
- 88 9,000
- 48 4,500
- 304 27,000

**Chief Towns.**
- Dillenburg
- Siegen
- Dietz
- Hadamar
- Coppenbrugge
- Dortmund
- Ussingenu
- Idstein
- Fulda
- Corbacher
- Brauneischl
- Laubach
- Rodelheim

**4. Circle of the Upper Rhine.**

Containing (after the deduction of 2,400 square miles annexed to France) 5,600 square miles.

- Lower Hesse with part of Upper Hesse on the Lahn
  - Lower C. of Catzenellenbogen, county of Hanau Munzenberg
- Darmstadt
- Part of Upper Hesse
- P. of late B. of Worms late free I. C. Friedberg
- Nassau Uisingen
- Nassau Wellburg
- Principal of indemn.
- Fulda
- County of Waldeck
- Solms Braunfels
- Solms Hohenselms
- Solms Laubach
- Solms Rodelheim

- Cassel
- Hanau
- Darmstadt
- Giessen
- Friedberg
- Uisingen
- Idstein
- Fulda
- Corbach
- Brauneischl
- Laubach
- Rodelheim

* The territory of the house of Orange Nassau, contains about 1,600 square miles, with 300,000 inhabitants.
* The territory of Hesse Darmstadt contains 2,440 square miles, with 400,000 inhabitants.
### Europe

**Divisions.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>County of Upper Isenburg</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
<th>Pop.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Isenburg Birstein</td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td>35,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isenburg Budingen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isenburg Wachtersdach</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isenburg Meerholz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**County of Leiningen Westerburg**

**County of Wittgenstein**

**County of Wetzlar, subject to elect. arch-chancellor**

The imperial city of Frankfort on the Maine

and its territory

---

### 5. Circle of the Lower Rhine.

Containing, (after the deduction of 2368 square miles ceded to France,) 4480 square miles.

**Divisions.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject to the elect. arch-chancellor</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
<th>Pop.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principality of Aschaffenburg</td>
<td></td>
<td>272</td>
<td>45,000</td>
<td>Aschaffenburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of elector of Baden, as indemnity</td>
<td>Part of Palatinate of the Rhine, and late bishopric of Spire</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>130,000</td>
<td>Heidelberg, Manheim, Bruchsal, Philippsburg, Brilon, Gernsheim, Lindenfels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of elector of Hesse, as indemnity</td>
<td>Part of elect of Mentz</td>
<td>1120</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>Rudesheim, Linz</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of Nassau</td>
<td>Part of late electorates of Mentz and Cologne</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of Nassau Weilburg, as indemnity</td>
<td>Part of late elector of Treves</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>36,000</td>
<td>Ehrenbreitstein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of C. of Leiningen, as indemnity</td>
<td>Part of the late electorate of Mentz</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>Amorbach, Bischofsheim, Mosbach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of P. of Wiedrunkel as indemnity</td>
<td>Part of the late electorates of Cologne and Treves</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>6,200</td>
<td>Altenwied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of P. of Salm Reiferscheid Bedburg, as indemnity</td>
<td>Part of the electorate of Mentz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Krautheim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of duke of Aremberg, as indemnity</td>
<td>County of Recklingshausen, part of the late electorate of Cologne</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>Recklingshausen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of P. of Nassau Orange, as indemnity</td>
<td>Lordship of Bielstein</td>
<td></td>
<td>Bielstein</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divided between Nassau Weilburg and Wiedrunkel</td>
<td>County of Lower Isenburg</td>
<td></td>
<td>Isenburg</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The elector arch-chancellor's territory contains 480 square miles, and 100,000 inhabitants.
6. **Circle of Franconia.**

Containing 7880 square miles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
<th>Pop.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Territory of the king of Prussia</td>
<td>Prin. of Bayreuth or Kulmbach</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>220,000</td>
<td>Bayreuth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prin. of Anspach or Onolz-Gebach</td>
<td>1120</td>
<td>275,000</td>
<td>Anspach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P. late bk. of Bamberg</td>
<td>1056</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>Bamberg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>P. late bk. of Wurzburg</td>
<td>1392</td>
<td>240,000</td>
<td>Wurzburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rothenburg</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>24,000</td>
<td>Rothenburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Schweinfurt</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>Schweinfurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weissenburg</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>Weissenburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Windsheim</td>
<td>4500</td>
<td></td>
<td>Windsheim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gochsheim</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gochsheim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sennfeld</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sennfeld</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Late free imp. towns and ter.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject partly to E. of Salzburg, and part to E. of Bavaria</td>
<td>Prince late bishoprick of Eichstadt, or Aichstadt</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>Aichstadt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of Teutonic order</td>
<td>Dist of Mergentheim</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>12,000</td>
<td>Mergentheim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject to E. and other branches of the House of Saxony</td>
<td>County of Henneberg</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hohenlohe Oeringen Neuenstein</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hohenlohe Langenburg</td>
<td>416</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hohenlohe Ingelfingen</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hohenlohe Kirchberg</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hohenlohe Bartenstein</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hohenlohe Schillingsfurst</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Wertheim</td>
<td></td>
<td>224</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>Schwarzenberg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Schwarzenberg</td>
<td></td>
<td>240</td>
<td>25,000</td>
<td>Castell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Erbach</td>
<td></td>
<td>112</td>
<td>16,000</td>
<td>Erbach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Limpurg</td>
<td></td>
<td>112</td>
<td>16,000</td>
<td>Gaidorf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Wiesentheid</td>
<td></td>
<td>386</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>Wiesentheid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Rieneck</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rieneck</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Principalities of Hohenlohe.**

| County of the Free imperial city of Nuremberg and territory. | | |

7. **Circle of Swabia.**

Containing 11,200 square miles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
<th>Pop.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elect. of Wurtemberg</td>
<td>D. of Wurtemberg</td>
<td>2740</td>
<td>650,000</td>
<td>Stuttgart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New territory given as indemnity</td>
<td>608</td>
<td>140,000</td>
<td>Ellwangen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Heilbronn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Rottweil</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EUROPE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
<th>Populat.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electo. of Baden*</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>180,000</td>
<td>Baden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of E. of Bavaria, with ind.</td>
<td>720</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>Carlsruhe.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. of Hohenzollern</td>
<td>2990</td>
<td>127,000</td>
<td>Dillingen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P. of Fursttenberg</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>80,000</td>
<td>Doneschingen,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. of Oettingen</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>Oettingen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Territ. of prin. of Tour and Taxis</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>Disingen,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T. of Counts</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>Thieneng</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free imperial city of Augsburg</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>32,000</td>
<td>Hechingen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sigmaringen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This circle likewise contains several other small baronies and secularized abbeys with their territories, given as indemnities to different princes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
<th>Pop.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Electorate of Bavaria</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duchy of Bavaria</td>
<td></td>
<td>8,320</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td>Munich, N L.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duchy of Upper Palatinate</td>
<td></td>
<td>2,080</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>48 5. E. L.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duchy of Neuburg and lordship of Ehrenfels</td>
<td></td>
<td>832</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td>11. 32.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duchy of Sulzbach</td>
<td></td>
<td>448</td>
<td>50,000</td>
<td>Ingolstadt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Haag</td>
<td></td>
<td>128</td>
<td>18,000</td>
<td>Amberg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prin. late bish. of Freysingen</td>
<td></td>
<td>238</td>
<td>30,000</td>
<td>Sulzbach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part of late bish. of Passau</td>
<td></td>
<td>64</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>Haag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Late imperial abbey of Kaisersheim</td>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>Freysingen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prin. of Ratisbon, indemnity to elector arch-chancellor</td>
<td></td>
<td>160</td>
<td>40,000</td>
<td>Passau.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Ortenburg, subject to its own count</td>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td>Kaisersheim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Sternstein, territory of P. Lobkowitz</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ratisbon, L. 48.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The electorate of Baden contains 2080 square miles, with 420,000 inhabitants.
† The electorate of Bavaria contains 13,912 square miles, with 2,517,000 inhabitants.
9. **CIRCLE OF AUSTRIA.**

Containing 44,528 square miles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions of arch-duke of Austria</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
<th>Populat.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lower Austria</td>
<td>Archduchy of Austria Proper</td>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
<td>Vienna, N. L. (48-76, E. L.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duchy of St. Trin.</td>
<td>4,592</td>
<td>900,000</td>
<td>Graz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Duchy of Carniola</td>
<td>3,344</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>Clagenfurt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Friuli, or Gorizia</td>
<td>3,424</td>
<td>450,000</td>
<td>Laybach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Territory of Trieste</td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>115,000</td>
<td>Gradisca.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Territory of arch-duke of Austria.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lower Austria</th>
<th>Archduchy of Austria Proper</th>
<th>10,000</th>
<th>2,000,000</th>
<th>Vienna, N. L. (48-76, E. L.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Margraviate of Burgau</td>
<td></td>
<td>6,960</td>
<td>650,000</td>
<td>Salzburg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Landgraviate Nellenburg</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>200,000</td>
<td>Bregenz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Hohenberg</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,520</td>
<td>400,000</td>
<td>Vienne, Stockach.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Territ. of E.**

| Princ. late bk. of Salzburg | Salzburg | 160 | 20,000 | Berchtoldsgaden. |
| Princ. late abbay of Schafffhausen | 192 | 30,000 | Hafnerzell. |

T. given as indem.

| The Breisgau | 832 | 115,000 | Freyburg. |
| The Ortenau |     |         | Old Breisach. |

**FACE OF THE COUNTRY.** The southern part of Germany is mountainous and hilly; the northern presents wide sandy plains, with scarcely the appearance of a hill. On the eastern side are the most extended plains, and the greatest chains of mountains.

**MOUNTAINS.** The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and those which separate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia, called the Erzgebirge and the Sudetes. In the north, are the mountains of the Harz, which extend about fifty miles through part of Lower and Upper Saxony. Many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

**FORESTS.** The great passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar is the reason why, perhaps, there are more woods and chases yet standing in Germany than in many other countries. The Hercynian forest, which in Caesar's time was nine days journey in length, and six in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Most of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vast number of forests of less note in every part of this country; almost every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chase or park, adorned with pleasure-houses, and well-stocked with game, viz, deer, of which there are seven or eight sorts, as roebucks, stags, &c. of all sizes and colours, and many of a vast growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound so much also with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have them, as well as venison, for their ordinary food.

**LAKES.** The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are those of Constance (called the Boden-see) and Bregenz. Besides these, are the Chiem-see, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-see, in the duchy of Carniola, whose waters often run off, and return again, in an extraordinary manner.

**RIVERS AND LAKES.** No country can boast a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube or Donau, so called from the swift-
ness of the current, and the course of which, without reckoning its windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, the length of the course of which is above 600 miles, the Elbe, Oder, Weser, and Neckar.

**MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.** Germany is said to contain more of these than all Europe besides. The Spa waters, and those of Seltzer and Pyrmont, are well known. Those of Aix-la-Chapelle are still more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath; and the springs of both are so hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they use them. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are reported to be extremely efficacious in almost all diseases. The mineral springs at the last-mentioned place are said to intoxicate as soon as wine, and therefore they are inclosed. Carlsbad and Baden baths have been described and recommended by many great physicians, and used with great success by many royal personages. It is, however, not improbable, that great part of the salutary virtues ascribed to these waters is owing to the exercises and amusements of the patients, and numbers of the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amusement and conversation.

**METALS AND MINERALS.** Germany abounds in both. Many places in the circle of Austria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, salt mines, and salt-pits, are found in Austria, Bavaria, Silesia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jasper, sapphire, agate, alabaster, several sorts of pearl, turquois stones, and the finest of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria and Tyrol, are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ocher, red lead, alum, and bitumen; besides other fossils. Several of the German circles furnish coal-pits: and the *terra sigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, has been pretended to be an antidote against poison.

**CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE.** The climate of Germany, as in all extensive countries, differs greatly, not only on account of the situation to the north, or south, or east or west, but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a great effect on the climate. The most mild and settled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal distance from the sea and the alps. In the north it is sharp; towards the south it is more temperate. The seasons vary as much as the soil: in the south and western parts they are more regular than in those that lie near the sea, or that abound in lakes and rivers.

The soil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and sterile; though in others it is extremely fertile. A greater attention, however, is now given to agriculture in this country, and many improvements have been made of late years.

**VEGETABLES.** Among the vegetable productions of Germany are grain, flax, hemp, hops, saffron, tobacco, and excellent orchard-fruits. The vine is found to flourish throughout more than the half of Germany, but the most esteemed wines are produced in the circles of Swabia and the Rhine. The wines of these countries are commonly called Rhenish and Moselle, and differ from those of other countries in a peculiar lightness, and detersive qualities, more sovereign in some diseases than any medicine.

**ANIMALS.** Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horses; but their horses, oxen, and sheep, are not comparable to those of England, probably owing to want of skill in feeding and rearing them.

The German wild boars differ in colour from our common hogs, and are four times as large. Their flesh, and the hams made of it, are preferred by many even to those of Westmoreland, for flavour and grain. The *glutton* of Germany is said to be the most voracious of all animals. Its prey is almost every thing that has life, which it can manage, especially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; which it surprises artfully and devours greedily. On these the glutton feeds so ravenously, that it falls into a kind of a torpid state, and, not being able to move, he is killed by the huntsmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine-lakes and a great variety of singing birds, which are sent to all parts of Europe.
**Curiosities, Natural and Artificial.** Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curiosities of Germany. There is a cave, near Blackenburg, in Hartz-forest, of which no person has yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for twenty miles. But the most remarkable of that kind is near Hame- len, about thirty miles from Hanover, where, at the mouth of a cave, stands a monument which commemorates the loss of 130 children, who were there swallowed up in 1394. This fact, however, though it is very strongly attested, has been disputed by some critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly representing two monks in their proper habits; and of many stones which seem to be petrifica tions of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

With respect to artificial curiosities, the Germans have always accounted as one of the principal, the tun of Heidelberg, which holds 800 hogsheads, and though now empty, was formerly full of the best Rhenish wine, from which strangers were seldom suffered to retire sober. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curiosities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its manuscripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuscripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of them is questionable, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewise many thousand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vast collection of other curiosities of art and nature.

**Population.** The population of the German empire, before the alienation of the territory on the left side of the Rhine, was generally estimated at between 26 and 27 millions. By that cession Germany loses about three millions and a half of inhabitants, transferred to France, and consequently now only contains about 23 millions. The particular population of most of the different states of the empire has already been given in the Table of the Circles.

**National Character, Manners, Customs.** The Germans in their person are tall, fair, and strong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and shape that are so bewitching in some other countries.

Both men and women affect rich dresses, which in fashion are the same as in France and England: but the better sort of men are excessively fond of gold and silver lace, especially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, and at Vienna are said to be as fond of paint as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burglers’ families in many of the German towns, dress in a very different manner, and some of them inconceivably fantastic; but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dress from what they did thirty or forty years ago. As to the peasantry and labourers, they dress as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumstances. The stoves made use of in Germany are the same with those already mentioned in our account of other northern nations, and are sometimes made portable, so that the ladies carry them to church. In Westphalia, and in many other parts of Germany, they sleep between two feather-beds, with sheets stitched to them, which by use becomes a very comfortable practice. The most unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who squeeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but, in general, the circumstances of the common people are more comfortable than those of their neighbours.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. The higher orders are ridiculously fond of titles, ancestry, and show. The Germans in general are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, they have achieved great things both against the Turks and the French; and in the late war the Austrian exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not well known; especially in watch and clock-making, jewellery, turnery,
sculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly, in consequence of the vast plenty of their country in wine and provisions of every kind; but such excesses are now less common. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink pretty freely at dinner, the repast is commonly finished by coffee, after three or four public toasts have been given. But no people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper, in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than of any other nation. All the sons of noblemen inherit their fathers' titles; which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. The German husbands are not quite so complaisant as those of some other countries to their Ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are said to be too fond of gaming. Many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high sounding title, easily enter into their armies, and those of other sovereigns. Their fondness for title is attended with many other inconveniences,—their gentlemen of property think the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, below their attention, and that they should degrade themselves by being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear-bating, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreations in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tigers, swans, scallop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers, ribbons, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night-time, servants ride before the sledges with torches; and a gentleman, standing on the sledge behind, guides the horse.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, FORTS, AND EDIFICES.] This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly so in Germany, on account of the numerous independent states it contains.

VIENNA is the capital of the circle of Austria, and, being the residence of the emperor, is generally considered as the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a strong city, and the princes of the house of Austria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent university, a bank which is in the management of its own magistrates, and a court of commerce, immediately subject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a sixth part of the town; but the suburbs are larger than the city. It would be endless to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its squares, academies, libraries; and the imperial cabinets of curiosities. Among its rich convents, is one of the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St Colman, the patron of Austria; and one of the six gates of this city is called the Scots' gate, in remembrance of some notable exploits performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the suburbs, amounted in the year 1795 to 231,105; and the encouragement given by the sovereign has rendered this city a rendezvous of foreigners.

The streets, except those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty. The houses of this city are generally of stone, five or six stories high, and flat-roofed. They have three or four cellars under one roof, with an open space in the middle of each arched roof, for the communication of air; and from the lowermost of all there is a tube to the top to let in air from the streets. The winds often blow so strong, that it is troublesome to walk the streets. A remarkable prerogative of the sovereign here is, that the second floor of every house belongs to him, and assigned to whomsoever he thinks proper: and hence there is no part of Germany where lodging is so dear as at Vienna. An odd
custom prevails here of putting iron bars to all the windows, up to the very tops of the houses, which makes them all look like so many prisons. The houses and furniture of the citizens are greatly disproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, squares, and other public buildings; but the excessive imposts laid by the house of Austria upon every commodity in its dominions, must keep the manufacturing part of its subjects poor.

Berlin, the capital of the electorate of Brandenburg, and of the dominions of the king of Prussia, is situate on the river Spree, and, besides the royal palace, has many other superb edifices; it contains fourteen Lutheran and eleven Calvinist churches, besides a Catholic one. Its streets and squares are spacious, and built in a very regular manner; but the houses, though neat without, are ill finished, and ill furnished within, and very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-house is also a beautiful structure: and the arsenal, which is handsomely built, in the form of a square, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are sundry manufactures in Berlin, and several schools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Busching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garrison. In the same year, and according to the sameauthor, there were no fewer than 443 silk looms, 149 of half silks, 2858 for woollen stuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace work, 39 frames for silk stockings, and 310 for worsted ones. In the year 1803, the number of inhabitants was 153,128, exclusive of the soldiers of the garrison, and their wives and children. They have here manufactures of tapestry, gold and silver lace, and mirrors.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, stands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. It contains about twelve hundred houses, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on some manufactures; and in its neighbourhood are the palace and elegant gardens of Herrenhausen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about seven hundred and fifty thousand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and sixty market-towns, besides villages. The city and suburbs of Bremen, which duchy belongs, by purchase, to the said elector, contain about fifty thousand inhabitants, who have a considerable trade by the Weser. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures: but, in general, it must be remarked, that the electorate has suffered greatly by the accession of the Hanover family to the crown of Great Britain. It may be proper to mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the secularised bishopric of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Weser and Ems. The chief city, Osnaburg, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the best Westphalia hams. The whole revenue of the bishopric amounted to about 30,000l.

Dresden, the capital of the elector of Saxony, is remarkable for its fortifications, palaces, public building, churches, and charitable foundations; it is beautifully situated on both sides the Elbe, and is the school of Germany for statuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dresden, by the latest accounts, are computed to amount to about 60,000.

The electorate of Saxony is by nature the richest country in Germany, if not in Europe; it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the latest accounts of the Germans themselves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and the revenue, estimating each six-dollar at four shilling and six-pence, amounts to 1,350,000l. This sum is so moderate, when compared to the richness of the soil (which, if we are to believe Dr Busching, produces even diamonds, and almost all the precious stones to be found in the East-Indies and elsewhere) and the variety of splendid manufactures, that the Saxon princes appear to have been the most moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

The city of Leipzig in Upper Saxony, 46 miles distant from Dresden, is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Pleisse, and the inhabitants are said to amount to about 30,000. There are also large and well-built suburbs, with handsome gardens. Between these suburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompasses the city. Mulberry-trees are also planted in the town-ditches; but the fortifications seem rather calculated for the use of the inhabitants to
walk on, than for defence. The streets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with seven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchant houses, and 192 manufactories of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipzig has long been distinguished for the liberty of conscience allowed here to persons of different sentiments in religion. Here is an university, which is still very considerable, with six churches for the Lutherans (theirs being the established religion), one for the Calvinists, and a chapel in the castle for those of the Romish church. The university-library consists of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is also a library for the magistrates, which consists of about 36,000 volumes and near 2000 manuscripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curiosities of art and nature. The exchange is an elegant building.

Ratisbon, or Regensburg, where the diet of the empire assembles, is of considerable size, but of a dark and dull appearance, and contains 22,000 inhabitants. It is remarkable for an ancient bridge of fifteen arches over the Danube, in length 350 yards. It was lately a free imperial city, but is now the capital of the principality of Ratisbon, part of the territory of the new elector arch-chancellor.

Munich, the capital of the electorate of Bavaria, is a very populous and beautiful city, situate on the Iser. The houses are high, and the streets spacious, with canals in several of them. It is esteemed the most elegant city in Germany, and contains about 2,3000 houses and 40,000 inhabitants. The electoral palace is a very sumptuous edifice; besides which there are two other electoral palaces at a little distance from the city; that of Nymphenburg, admired for its gardens, and that of Schlesheim.

Augsburg is still a free imperial city, and the largest and most ancient in Swabia. It is situate between the rivers Lech and Wertaeh, which unite in its environs, and flow to the Danube. It was once a place of considerable trade, and is said to be nine miles in circuit; at present it contains only about 36,000 inhabitants.

Frankfort on the Maine, so called to distinguish it from another of the same name on the Oder, is situate in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country, on the river just mentioned, by which it is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhausen. The former of these, being the largest, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thousand houses. The fortifications, which are both regular and solid, form a decagon, or figure consisting of ten bastions, faced with hewn stone; the ditches are deep, and filled with fresh water; and all the out-works are placed before the gates. Frankfort is the usual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is also a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form without any suburbs; but the streets are generally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of timber and plaster, and covered with slate; though there are some handsome private structures, of a kind of a red marble, that deserve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compestel and Fronhof, the Triershof, the Cullenhof, the German-house, an August edifice, situated near the bridge over the Maine, the Hesse Darmstadtthof, the palace of the prince de la Tour, and the houses of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schonborn. There are likewise three principal squares.

The imperial city of Hamburg is situate on the Elbe at the conflux of the rivers Alster and Bille. The houses are in general high; the streets irregular and narrow. There are many canals which run through the city, and there are 84 bridges over them. The fortifications are strong, in the old Dutch style, with great ditches, and walls of such thickness, that several carriages can drive abreast on the ramparts, which are planted with rows of trees. Though the city is nearly 70 miles from the sea, the Elbe is here between four and five miles broad. Hamburg contains above 120,000 inhabitants. It has long been the most commercial city in Germany, and its trade has greatly increased during the late and present wars between England, and France and Holland.

Commerce and Manufactures.] Germany has vast advantages in point of commerce, from its situation in the heart of Europe, and being intersected, as it were, with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce, besides mines and minerals, are hemp, hops, flax, anise, cumin, tobacco, saffron, madder, truffles, a variety of excellent roots and herbs, and fine fruits, equal to those of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries, corn, tobacco, horses, lean cattle, butter, cheese, honey, wax, wines, linen and
woollen yarn, ribbands, silk and cotton stuffs, toys, turnery-wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-skins, wool, timber both for ship-building and houses, cannon and bullets, bombs and bomb-shells, iron plates and stoves, tinned plates, steel-work, copper, brass, wire, porcelain, the finest upon earth, earthen-ware, glasses, mirrors, hogs' bristles, mum, beer, tartar, small, zaffer Prussian blue, printers' ink, and many other articles.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes by Lewis XIV., which obliged the French protestants to settle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite service to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, silks, stuffs of all kinds, fine and coarse linen and thread, and every thing necessary for wear, in great perfection. The porcelain of Meissen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, have been long in great repute.

**Constitution, Government, and Laws.**] Almost every prince in Germany (and there are nearly 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own estates; but, the whole of them form a great confederacy*, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, whose power in the collective body, or diet, is not directory, but executive: but even that gives him vast influence. The supreme power in Germany is the diet, which is composed of the emperor, or, in his absence, of his commissary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The first of these is the electoral college; the second is the college of princes; and the third, the college of imperial towns.

The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but, after that, became elective; and in the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V. the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239, the number of electors was reduced to seven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692. In consequence of the late secularizations, and other alterations made in the constitution of the empire, under the influence of France and Russia, they are now ten in number, viz. one ecclesiastical and nine secular electors.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for some centuries belonged to the house of Austria, as being the most powerful of the German princes; but, by French management, upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather, by the mother's side, to the emperor Joseph II. the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as it is supposed, heart-broken, after a short uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he signs at his election; and the person who in his lifetime is chosen king of the Romans succeeds, without a new election, to the empire. He can confer titles and enfranchisements upon cities and towns; but, as emperor, he can levy no taxes, nor make war or peace, without the consent of the diet. When that consent is obtained, every prince must contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though, perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may espouse a different side from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German constitution; for George II. of England, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furnish his quota against the house of Austria, and also against the king of Prussia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedence for his ambassadors in all Christian courts.

The ten electors of the empire, who have the sole election of the emperor, are in order as follow:

- The elector of Ratisbon (or Aschaffenbourg), arch-chancellor of the empire.
- The elector and king of Bohemia (the present emperor), who is grand cup-bearer.
- The elector of Bavaria, who is grand sewer, or officer who serves out the feasts.
- The elector of Saxony, who is great marshal of the empire.
- The elector of Brandenburg (king of Prussia), who is arch-chamberlain.
- The elector of Brunswick Luneburg (Hanover—the king of Great Britain), who is arch-treasurer.
- The elector of Salzburg (late grand duke of Tuscany).
- The elector of Wurtemberg, who is arch-pantler.
- The elector of Baden; and the elector of Hesse.

* In 1806, this celebrated Confederacy was dissolved, by the fiat of Bonaparte,—the constitution of the empire completely changed—and the emperor of Germany obliged to divest himself of the titles and powers he enjoyed, as head of the Or-phant body,— retaining only his lately assumed dignity of Emperor of Austria.
It is necessary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of those members; and, during the vacancy of the imperial throne, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdiction, the former over the northem, and the latter over the southern circles.

The diet is composed of the electoral college, the college of princes, and the college of imperial towns.

The electoral college consists of the ten electors above enumerated, each of whom has a personal vote, termed by the German lawyers *votum virile*. The college of princes is divided into two classes—the proper princes of the empire, as dukes, margravines, landgraves, princes and princely counts, who have each a personal vote; and the counts and lords of the empire, who are arranged in four colleges or benches, viz. the Wetter-avian, Swabian, Franconian, and Westphalian, each of which has but one vote, styled *votum curiatum*. In this college Austria and Salzburg have the directory by turns. The college of imperial cities consists of deputies from the Hans towns, Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubeck, and the imperial cities, Frankfort on the Main, Nuremberg, and Augsburg. The imperial cities are free republics under no particular sovereign, but immediately under the emperor and the empire.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic council, are the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members. The imperial council consists of fifty judges or assessors. The president, and four of them, are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chooses one, and the other princes and states the rest. This court is at present held at Wetzlar, but formerly resided at Spire: and causes may be brought before it by appeal. The Aulic council was originally only a revenue court of the dominions of the house of Austria. As that family's power increased, the jurisdiction of the Aulic council was extended upon the powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It consists of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a number of Aulic councillors, of whom six are protestants, besides other officers; but the emperor, in fact, is master of the court. These courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law.

Besides these courts of justice, each of the nine circles has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. This director is in general one of the most powerful princes of the circle.

In case of great public offences, after the votes of the diet are collected, and sentence pronounced, the emperor, by his prerogative, commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princes, whose troops live at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent, and he is obliged to make good all expenses.

Every state which acts directly or indirectly against the fundamental laws of the empire, is subject to the punishment of the ban, or proscription of the empire. The ban is of two kinds: the one is privatory, the other provisional. The first consists in depriving a prince or state of the empire of all their rights, privileges, dignities, &c.: the second consists in taking away the actual government of the states, and committing them to the care of some other, until it be otherwise ordered. But this sentence of proscription is difficult to obtain, because it is difficult to unite all the orders of the empire in the same measure. The execution of it belongs to the director of the circle where the prince resides, and every feudal state of the empire is subject to it.

The constitution of the Germanic body is a study of no small difficulty. However plausibly invented the several checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the house of Austria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been saved by France. The house of Austria, indeed, met with a powerful opposition from the house of Brandenburg, in consequence of the activity and abilities of the king of Prussia. It may here be proper to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which frequently appears in the German history—that of the Pragmatic Sanction. This is no other than a provision made by the emperor Charles VI., for preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next descendant of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision has been often disputed by
other branches of the house of Austria, who have been occasionally supported by
France from political views, though the pragmatic sanction is strongly guaranteed by al-
most all the powers of Europe. The emperor Charles VII., elector of Bavaria, and
Augustus, king of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, as being descended from the
daukters of the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewise been re-
peatedly opposed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are so large as to be assigned to vice-
roys, to be oppressed and fleeced at pleasure; nor are they entirely without redress
when they suffer any grievance; as they may appeal to the general diet, or great council
of the empire, for relief. The subjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally
the most unhappy; for these princes, affecting the grandeur and splendour of the more
powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domestics, in their palaces,
gardens, pictures, curiosities, guards, bands of music, tables, dress, and furniture, are
obliged to support all this vain pomp and parade at the expense of their vassals and de-
pendants. With respect to the burgers and peasants of Germany, the former in many
places enjoy great privileges; the latter also, in some parts, as in Franconia, Syabia,
and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain services to their
superiors, and pay the taxes; whereas, in the marquisate of Brandenburg, Pomerania,
Lusatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Austria, &c. their condition is various, indeed, but uni-
versally very servile.

The judicial courts throughout Germany follow in their decisions the Roman or civil
law, except where that law is altered or superseded by the statutes of the several states,
which are very various, as the states themselves are extremely numerous.

REVENUES AND MILITARY FORCE.] Both the military force and revenue of the
emperor, merely as the head of the Germanic league or Roman empire, are very incon-
siderable. He has only an annual income of about 5000l or 6000l. sterling, arising from
some considerable fiefs in the Black Forest, and some trifling contributions from the
imperial cities, of which, it is said, scarcely 2000l. come into the imperial treasury.
The extraordinary revenues levied on the different states are called Roman months,
because they were formerly raised by monthly assessments, for the maintenance of the
troops who escort the emperor to Rome, when that was the place of his coronation.
A Roman month is about 5000l.; and a certain number of these sums is paid by each
state, according to the proportions for the different princes and states registered in what
is called the matriculation-book, kept by the arch-chancellor of the empire.

In the same book are registered the contingents or number of troops to be raised by
each state, when war is decreed by the diet. These together would compose an army
of about 30,000 men; but the whole force of the empire, were it exerted in one effort,
would amount, exclusive of those countries which, though subject to German princes,
are not a part of Germany, to 400,000 men; and the revenues of the different princes
and states of the empire, with the same limitation, have been estimated at above 15
millions sterling.

The revenues of the electorates and principal states of the empire, and the military
force usually maintained by them, according to the latest and most authentic account,
are as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Princes</th>
<th>Revenue</th>
<th>Military Force</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elector of Saxony</td>
<td>L. 1,250,000</td>
<td>32,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elector of Bavaria</td>
<td>L. 1,200,000</td>
<td>28,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elector of Hanover</td>
<td>960,000</td>
<td>18,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elector of Wurtemberg</td>
<td>600,000</td>
<td>7,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elector of Baden</td>
<td>400,000</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elector of Hesse</td>
<td>500,000</td>
<td>14,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elector of Salzburg</td>
<td>300,000</td>
<td>2,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elector arch-chancellor</td>
<td>100,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duke of Brunswick-Wolfe</td>
<td>280,000</td>
<td>3,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dukes of the house of Saxony</td>
<td>277,000</td>
<td>1,300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dukes of Mecklenburg</td>
<td>230,000</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Princes of Hohenlohe</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The electors of Brandenburg and Bohemia (the king of Prussia and head of the house of Austria) are not included in this list, as their revenues and armies are raised from the whole of the Prussian and Austrian dominions.

**Imperial, Royal, and other titles, arms, and orders.** The emperor of Germany pretends to be successor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedence on all public occasions among the powers of Europe. Austria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that house, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and, like, with which he is vested as archduke; and he has lately, by a patent bearing date the 10th of August 1804, assumed the title of hereditary emperor of Austria. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads hovering with expanded wings in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is seen the imperial crown. On the breast of the eagle is an escutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jerusalem, Arragon, Anjou, Guelders, Brabant, and Béz. It would be as useless as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armoirial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of instituting orders, but the emperors pretend that they are not admissible unless confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as descended from the house of Burgundy. The empress-dowager Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late empress-queen instituted the order of St Theresa.

The "Order of the Golden Fleece" was instituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January 1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his third wife. It is supposed that he chose the badge, as being the chief of the staple manufactures of his country. It at first consisted of thirty knights, including the sovereign, who were of the first families in the Low Countries; and it still continues to be classed with the most illustrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At present there are two branches of it; of the one the emperor is sovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all must prove their noble descent from the twelfth century. The motto of the order is "Pretium non vile laborum." The "Teutonic Order" owed its origin to some religious Germans in Jerusalem during the crusades, who assumed the title of "Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hospital of our Lady of the Germans at Jerusalem." Conrad, duke of Swabia, invited them into Prussia, about the year 1230; soon after they conquered Prussia for themselves, and became one of the most powerful orders in Europe. By their internal quarrels, they afterwards lost their power and possessions: and Albert, marquis of Brandenburg, grand-master of the order, on his abjuring popery, abdicated the grand-mastership, subdued Prussia, and expelled all the papists who would not follow his example. The order is now divided into two branches: the protestant branch, which had a house at Utrecht; and that for papists, which has a house at Mergentheim, in Germany, and of which the members must take the oath of celibacy. The ensign distinguishing this branch is worn round the neck, pendant to a gold chain.

The time of the institution of the "Order of the Red Eagle" is uncertain. The marquisate of Bareith is sovereign of it, and it is generally bestowed on military officers. In the year 1620, John-George, elector of Saxony, and Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, on terminating their disputes, established the "Order of Sincerity," as a confirmation and security hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a brancchet of gold; on one side are the names of the two princes, with this device, "Amicité sincère;" on the other side are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two swords, with two palm-branches crossed, with this motto, "Unis pour jamais."

John-George, duke of Saxe-Weissenfels, instituted the "Order of the Noble Passion," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the sovereign. Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed soldiers in the service of the sovereign. In the year 1709, Louise-Elizabeth, widow of Philip duke of Saxe-Merseburg, revived the "Order of the Death's Head," first instituted in 1652 by her father, the duke of Wurtemberg. A princess of that house alone can be sovereign of it, and
none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amusements, and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, surmounted with a cross patté; black; above the cross patee, another cross, composed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black ribbon edged with white, and on the ribbon these words, "Memento mori," worn at the breast.

The great order of Wurttemberg is that "of the Chase," instituted in the year 1702 by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. On the left side of the coat is a silver star embroidered, of the same figure as the badge, in the middle of a green circle, with the motto "Amicitiae Virtutisque Fideus." The festival of this order is on St Hubert's day, he being the patron of sportsmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "Order of St Hubert," first instituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St Hubert's day, in 1447. All the knights have either military employments or pensions. The archbishop of Salzburg, in 1701, instituted the "Order of St Rupert," in honour of the founder and patron of the see he held, and as the apostle of his country. As the archbishop was the richest and most powerful prince of Bavaria, next to the elector, his order is in good esteem. In the year 1729, Albert, elector of Bavaria, instituted the "Order of St George, the Defender of the Immaculate Conception," the knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations.

The "Order of the Golden Lion," instituted by the late landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, is equally a military and civil order, but mostly conferred on general officers. The landgrave also instituted the military "Order of Merit," the badge of which is a gold cross, of eight points, enamelled white, and in the centre this motto, "Pro Virtute et Fidelitate," it is worn at the coat or button-hole, pendent to a blue ribbon edged with silver.

Religion.] Before the reformation introduced by Luther, the German bishops were possessed (as indeed many of them continued to be till the late secularisations) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as of the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their superstition. The Bohemians were the first who had an idea of reformation, and made so glorious a stand, for many years, against the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the sacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romish church. This was in a great measure owing to the celebrated Englishman John Wickliffe, who went much further in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himself, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliffe was seconded by John Huss and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithstanding the emperor's safe-conduct, were infamously burnt at the council of Constance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther*, of which we have spoken in the Introduction, though it struck at the chief abuses in the church of Rome, was thought in some points (particularly that of consubstantiation, by which the real body of Christ, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is supposed to be taken in the sacrament) to be imperfect. Calvinism†, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practised in the church of Scotland), was introduced into Germany, and is the religion professed in the territories of the king of Prussia, and landgrave of Hesse, and some other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some even assert, that the numbers of protestants and papists in the empire are now almost equal. Germany, particularly Moravia and the Palatinate, as also Bohemia, is over-run with sectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At present, the modes of worship and forms of church govern-

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483; began to dispute the doctrines of the Romish church 1517; and died 1546, in the 63rd year of his age.
† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that king he, settled at Geneva, in 1539, where he established a new form of church discipline, which was soon after embraced by several nations and states, who are now denominated Presbyterians, and from their doctrinal articles, Calvinists. He died at Geneva in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.
ment are, by the protestant German princes, considered in a civil rather than a religious light.

The elector archchancellor (the late elector and archbishop of Mentz) is primate and metropolitan of all Germany; and the see of Mentz has been transferred to Ratisbon. Germany formerly contained six archbishoprics and thirty-eight bishoprics. At present the hierarchy appears to be thrown into some confusion by the late secularisations; and a concordat is expected to be shortly concluded between the pope and the empire, to restore it to order.

Literature.] No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taste for reading, especially in the protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; almost every man of letters is an author: they multiply books without number in every department of literature; and thousands of theses and disquisitions are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in their universities who has not published one disputation at least.

Many of the Germans have greatly distinguished themselves in various branches of learning and science. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Stork, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed greatly to the improvement of physic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heister, of anatomy and surgery; and Neumann, Zimmermann, Pott, and Margraff, of chemistry. In astronomy, Kepler deservedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the first writers on the law of nature and nations, and has also merit as an historian. But at the end of the last century, and the beginning of the present, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious sects, was so much involved in disputes about systematic theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language also, and the style of writing in German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; which, though they were not understood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of superiority to the writers, and therefore much affected: for an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet divested themselves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberless quotations from all sorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true test of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantic, and were in consequence disregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730 that the prospects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibniz and Wolff opened the way to a better philosophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottsched, an author and professor at Leipsic, who was greatly honoured by Frederic II. king of Prussia, introduced a better taste of writing, by publishing a German grammar, and by instituting a literary society for polishing and restoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the study of the belles-lettres. We may consider this as the epocha from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language upon learned subjects, and to free themselves, in a considerable degree, from that verbosity and pedantry by which they had been characterised. About this time, several young men in the university of Leipsic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publishing some periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of persons of literary taste. Some of these gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high estimation.

The style of preaching among the German divines also now underwent a considerable change. They began to translate the best English and French sermons, particularly those of Tillotson, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by these models; and Mosheim, Spalding, Zollitkofcr, and others, have published sermons which would do credit to any country; although they still retain too much of that prolixity for which German divines and commentators have been so much censured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are still too much distinguished by vulgar language, absurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reason and good sense.

Some of the English periodical writings, such as the Spectator, Tatler, and Guardian, being translated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers
of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the first and best was published at Hamburg, under the title of "The Patriot;" in which Dr Thomas, the late bishop of Salisbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the British factory at Hamburg, and a considerable master of the German language. The late professor Gillert, who is one of the most elegant of the German authors, and one of the most esteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taste. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inspire sentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verse, his letters, and his moral romances, are so much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them all by heart. His comedies are also very popular; though they are rather too sentimental, and better adapted for the closet than for the stage.

Haller the famous physician, Hagedorn, Uz, Croneigh, Lessing, Gleim, Gerstenberger, Kleist, Klopopstock, Ramler, Zacarie, Weiland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Croneigh, Lessing, Wieland, Wiese, Schiller, and Kotzebue, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his satirical works, immortalised his name among the Germans; though some of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German customs, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleasure by persons of other nations. Gesner, whose Idylls and death of Abel have been translated into the English language, and favourably received, is better known to an English reader.

In chemistry and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very conspicuous; and Reimarup, Zimmermann, Abt, Kästner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philosophical writings. Busch is an excellent geographical writer; and Masen, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, Gebaur, and Schmidt, have excelled in historical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Most of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or else very dry and uninteresting; which perhaps is owing to education, to false delicacy, or to a certain taste of knight-errantry which is still predominant among some of their novel-writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klop, and Lessing, are familiar with those who are skilled in this branch of literature. In ecclesiastical, philosophical, and literary history, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Mosheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphaelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous in sacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiske, Ernesti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne, have published some of the best editions of Greek and Latin classics.

With respect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themselves very well. Germany has produced some good painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the first inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if first invented in Holland, was soon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to have been the first inventors of great guns, as also of gunpowder, in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewise produced some excellent musicians,—Handel, Bach, Hasse, and Haydn, of whom Handel stands at the head, having arrived at the sublime of music.

It is an unfavourable circumstance for German literature, that the French language should be so fashionable in the German courts instead of the German, and that so many of their princes should give it so decided a preference. Frederic II., king of Prussia, had ordered the Philosophical Transactions of his royal society at Berlin, from the beginning of its institution, to be published in the French tongue; by which, some of the Germans think his majesty cast a very undeserved reproach upon his native language.

Universities.] There are at present in Germany thirty-one universities, of which fourteen, viz. those of Leipzig, Rostock, Greifswald, Wittenberg, Tbingen, Iena, Helmstadt, Giessen, Juenteln, Altorf, Kiel, Halle, Göttingen, and Erlangen, are Lutheran; three, viz. Frankfort on the Oder, Marburg, and Duisburg, of the reformed or Calvinistic religion; twelve, viz. Prague, Vienna, Wurzburg, Freiburg, Landshut, Dillingen, Ollmutz, Gratz, Paderborn, Salzburg, Fulda, and Bamberg, catholic; and two, Heidelberg and Erfurt, mixed, or both catholic and protestant. There are also a
number of colleges, gymnasias, pedagogies, and Latin schools. There are also many academies and societies for promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles-lettres, antiquities, painting, sculpture, architecture, &c., as the Imperial Leopoldine Academy of the Nature Curiosi: the Academy of Sciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Goettingen, at Erfurt, at Leipsic, at Duisburg, at Giesen, and at Hamburg. At Dresden and Nuremberg are academies for painting: at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augsburg is the Imperial Franciscan Academy of Fine Arts; to which we may add the Latin Society at Iena. Of the public libraries the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Goettingen, Weimar, and Leipsic.

LANGUAGE.] The German language is derived from the old Teutonic and Gothic. It varies considerably in its dialects as spoken in different parts of the country, and is purest in Saxony and Hanover, and in the southern and eastern provinces most corrupt and uncouth. Latin and French are the most useful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.


ANTIQUITIES.] A few remains of Roman edifices and other antiquities are found in Germany. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and, above all, town-houses, in Germany, are very curious, and impress the beholder with their rude magnificence: many castles have the same appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally consist of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and bastions.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well described by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman historian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and peculiarly distinguished by their love of liberty and arms. They opposed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and still continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occasionally connected by a military union for defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberties of them all. At length, the Roman power, supported by art and policy, prevailed over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was shattered by the northern barbarians, Germany was overrun by the Franks, about the year 480, and a considerable part of it long remained in subjection to earls and marquises of that nation. In this situation Germany continued, notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains or princes to reduce the rest into subjection, until the beginning of the ninth century; then it was that Charlemagne, one of those eccentric and superior geniuses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the death of Lewis III., in the year 911; at which time the different princes, assuming their original independence, rejected the Carolingian line, and placed Conrad, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their interest and arms, have mounted the throne. Of these, the most considerable, until the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of these emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the popes. From these, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to disquiet the empire for several ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks; and sometimes the German princes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the succession. But what more deserves the attention of a judicious reader than all those noisy but uninteresting disputes, is the progress of government in Germany, which was, in some measure, opposite to that of the other king-
between the empire raised by Charlemagne fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed the right of election; and those now distinguished by the name of electors had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne; they were only the officers of the king's household, his secretary, his steward, chaplain, marshal, or master of his horse, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's person, and, like all other princes, had independent territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III., of the house of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor.* Thus, while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally alodial or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain—in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raised upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the jurisdiction of the people. Otho I. having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy, that he and his successors should have the power of nominating the pope, and of granting investitures to bishops. Henry V., a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122 surrendered up the right of investiture and other powers, to the disgrace of the imperial dignity; but pope Benedict XII. refusing absolution to Louis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared, in the diet of the empire, that the majority of suffrages of the electoral college should confer the empire without the consent of the pope, and that he had no superiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert III., archduke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his successors, Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V., grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards; and in his reign happened the Reformation of religion in several parts of Germany; which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1649, by the treaty of Westphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually disturbed by his wars with the German princes, and the French king, Francis I. Though successful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune toward the conclusion of it began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I., who in 1558 succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the address to procure his son, Maximilian, to be declared king of the Romans, in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that, if either his own male-issue or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her issue.

This destination is noticed, as it gave rise to the opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction in favour of the late empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father, Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed with internal commotions, and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. To him succeeded in the empire, Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went by the names of Lutherans and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias at last reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commissaries out of a window at Prague. This gave rise to a ruinous war, which lasted thirty years. Matthias

* Wighefort says, that nothing was settled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV., who was chosen emperor in 1347, and made that famous constitution for the election of emperors called the Golden Bull.
thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the Evangelic League, which was counterbalanced by a Catholic League.

Matthias dying in 1618 was succeeded by his cousin, Ferdinand II.; but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic, the elector-palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic majesty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he lost it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague: and he was also deprived of his own electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria.

The protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with great firmness and intrepidity: among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach, Christian duke of Brunswic, and count Mansfield; the last was one of the ablest generals of the age. Christian IV., king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French minister, did not wish to see the house of Austria aggrandised. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian, having put himself at the head of the evangelical league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialist of great reputation in war. Ferdinand so grossly abused the advantages obtained over the protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipsic, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. His victories and progress, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen in 1632, have already been related. But the protestant cause did not die with him. He had brought up a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torsentson, Banier, and others, who shook the Austrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munster, in the year 1648; which forms the basis of the present political system of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III., who died in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a severe, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one side, and the Turks on the other; and was a loser in his war with both. France took from him Alsace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms, about the year 1697; and, being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary; and by the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withstood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against the French power, the consequences of which have been already described. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died, in 1705.

He was succeeded by his son Joseph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire: but being very ill served by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very splendid victories, had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the German liberties; and it was evident, by his conduct, that he expected England should take the principal part in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The English were disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and, leaving no male issue, was succeeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI., whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place, in 1713, Charles at first made a show as if he would continue the war; but found himself unable, now that he was forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France, at Baden, in 1714, that he might oppose the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another, of equal importance, from the same general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell
into the hands of the imperialists; and the following year the peace of Passarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles was continually employed in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the house of Hanover; an event which gave him a very decisive weight in Europe, by the connexions of George I. and II. with the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and carried matters with so high a hand, that, about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I.; and so unsteady was the system of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the principal powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones, contrary to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandisement, was the main object of the British court; as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empress-queen, he having no male issue. Mutual concessions upon those great points restored a good understanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony, being prevailed upon by the prospect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished the claims he had upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very ill success in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to supply his place. The system of France, under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific; and she obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reason to expect. Charles, to pacify the German and other European powers, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, Maria Theresa, in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave than all he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked on all sides. The young King of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered and conquered Silesia, which he said had been wrongfully dismembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction; and in this they were joined by France, though all those powers had solemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a considerable vacancy, was filled by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742.

The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia, by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and sufferings, and the noble fortitude with which she bore them, touched the heart of the Hungarians, under whose protection she threw herself and her infant son; and though they had always been remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia, and George II., at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time distressed on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions (as had been his ancestor in queen Anne's reign, for siding with France) and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but she haughtily and impolitely rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by his Britannic majesty, her best and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave a colour for the king of Prussia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity; but though he took Prague, and subdued the greatest part of the kingdom, he was not supported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conquests, and retired to Silesia. This event confirmed the obstinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that she might recover Silesia. Soon after, his imperial majesty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorraine, then grand duke of Tuscany, consort to her Hungarian majesty, after surmounting some difficulties, was chosen emperor, by the title of Francis I.
The bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empress-queen against his Prussian majesty. The latter defeated the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorraine, who had before driven the Prussians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empress-queen was such, that his Britannic majesty thought proper to guarantee to him the possession of Silesia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Prussian majesty pretended that he had discovered a secret convention which had been entered into between the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to strip him of his dominions, and to divide them among themselves. Upon this he suddenly attacked the king of Poland, drove him out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden, which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majesty, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine, now become great duke of Tuscany, for emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the disadvantage, but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in April 1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen, and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire in the year 1756. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles, all former differences between these monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000l. to his Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now re-kindled with more fury than ever.

His Prussian majesty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the imperial general Brown at the battle of Lovositz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impregnably fortified at Pirna; and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this his Prussian majesty was put to the ban of the empire, and the French poured by one quarter their armies, as the Russians did by another, into Germany. The conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is scarcely to be paralleled in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Austrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marshal Schwerin was on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a most tremendous artillery; but, just as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colín, by the Austrian general Daun, obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eisenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The imperialists, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops; but they were beaten at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aspect of the war, and the cautious, yet enterprising genius of count Daun, laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding all his great victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorf; but an attack made upon his army in the night-time, by count Daun, at Hochkirchen, had nearly proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony, for the safety of Silesia; and it has been observed, that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did: six sieges were raised almost at the same time; that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipsic, by the duke of Deux Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by count Daun; and those of Neiss, Cosci, and Torgan, also by the Austrians.

Many important events which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies, must be omitted, on account of the brevity necessary to be observed in this compendium. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though the war was extremely bloody and burdensome to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty and his
allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken possession of the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians, but he soon found them by far the most formidable enemies he had to encounter. They advanced, under count Sollikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair, but was at last totally defeated by the Russians, with the loss of 20,000 of his best troops, in a battle near Frankfort on the Oder. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were shut up. He had lost, since the first of October 1756, the brave marshal Keith, and forty brave generals, besides those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landschut the imperial general Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Austrians an easy passage into Silesia. None but Frederic II. would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he received seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not, perhaps, very easy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealousy which the imperial generals entertained of their Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions, but towards the end of the campaign he defeated the imperialists in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the best fought action the king of Prussia had ever been engaged in, but it cost him 10,000 of his best troops, and was attended with no great consequences in his favour. New reinforcements, which arrived every day from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, seemed almost to have completed his ruin, when his most formidable enemy, the empress of Russia, died, January 5. 1762. George II. had died on the 25th of October 1760.

The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by great consequences. The British ministry of George III. were solicitous to put an end to the war, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. His Prussian majesty was, notwithstanding, so very much reduced by his losses, that the empress-queen probably would have completed his destruction, had it not been for the prudent reluctance of the other German princes to annihilate the house of Brandenburg. At first the empress-queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The visible unwillingness of her generals to execute her orders, and the successes obtained by his Prussian majesty, at last prevailed on her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsberg, February 15. 1763, which again secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia.

Upon the death of the emperor, the husband of Maria Theresa, in 1765, her son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded him in the empire. Soon after his accession he discovered great activity and ambition. He joined in the dismemberment of Poland with Russia and Prussia. He paid a visit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy, and had a personal interview with his Prussian majesty, though this did not prevent hostilities from being commenced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. The Austrian claims on this occasion were very unjust; but, in the support of them, whilst the contest continued, the emperor displayed great military skill. Though vast armies were brought into the field on both sides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. The emperor afterwards demanded of the Dutch the free navigation of the Scheldt, but in this he likewise failed. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happiness of his subjects; granted a most liberal religious toleration, and suppressed most of the religious orders of both sexes, as being utterly useless, and even pernicious to society; and in 1783, by an edict, abolished the remains of servitude and villanage, and fixed also the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a pension in lieu. He also abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peasants and common people laboured. He was a prince who mixed with his subjects with an exact and affability which are very uncommon in persons of his
rank. He loved the conversation of ingenious men, and appeared solicitous to cultivate knowledge.

Peter-Leopold, grand duke of Tuscany, succeeded his brother Joseph II., and engaged the public praise by repeated instances of moderation and solid principles. His former management of his Italian sovereignty, which was prudent and beneficent, showed that he aspired to more just reputation than can be acquired by the mere splendors of royalty. One of the bishops of Hungary having refused his license to a catholic subject to marry a protestant woman, the emperor dismissed him from his see; but pardoned him afterwards, upon concession, and desired the bishop to exhort his brethren to comply with the imperial ordinances, else no favour should be shown.

The French revolution now attracted the attention of the powers of Europe. A conference was held at Pilnitz, between the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony, at which the plan of attacking France was proposed and discussed. Leopold for some time was very irresolute, but at last seemed to be resolved on war, when he died of a pleuritic fever, on the 1st of March 1792, after an illness of four days.

His son Francis was raised to the imperial throne in the middle of July following. He embarked with zeal in the confederacy formed against France. For the disastrous consequences of this war to the house of Austria, till its termination by the peace of Lunéville, and the subsequent history of the empire, we refer our readers to our history of France.

Francis II., emperor of Germany, was born February 3, 1768; married, January 6, 1788, Elizabeth, princess of Wurtemberg, who died in 1790. He married, 2dly, September 1790, Maria-Theresa of Naples, his cousin.

On the death of his father Peter-Leopold, late emperor, March 1, 1792, he succeeded to the crown of Hungary and Bohemia; and July 15, 1792, was elected emperor of Germany.

He had no issue by his first marriage. By the latter he has
Maria Louisa, born December 12, 1791.
Ferdinand-Charles, born April 19, 1793.
Leopoldina-Carolina-Josepha, born January 22, 1797.
Maria-Clementina-Frances-Josepha, born March 1, 1798.
Joseph-Francis-Leopold, born April 9, 1799.
Caroline-Ferdinanda-Josepha-Demetria, born April 8, 1801.

Brothers and Sisters of the Emperor.
Ferdinand-Joseph, elector of Salzburg, (late grand duke of Tuscany), born May 6th 1769; married, September 19, 1790, Louisa-Amelia-Theresa, daughter of Ferdinand IV. king of Naples.

Charles-Lewis, born September 5, 1771.
Joseph-Antony, born March 9, 1776, palatine of Hungary.
Regnier-Joseph, born September 30, 1783.
Louis-Joseph, born December 14, 1784.
Maria-Theresa-Josepha-Charlotta, born January 14, 1767; married October 18th 1787, to Antony, brother to the elector of Saxony.
Maria-Anna-Ferdinanda, born April 21, 1770, elected princess abbess of the chapter of Prague 1791.

Elections of the Empire.

Charles-Theodore, elector of Ratisbon, archchancellor of the holy Roman empire, primate and metropolitan of Germany, born February 8, 1744, elected coadjutor of the archbishopric of Mentz June 5, 1787, succeeded to the archbishopric July 26th 1802, elector of Ratisbon 1802.

Frederic-Augustus IV. elector and duke of Saxony, born December 23, 1750, succeeded his father December 1763; married, January 29, 1769, to the princess Amelia-Augusta of Deux-Ponts.

Frederic-William III., king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, born August 3d 1770.

George III., king of Great Britain, elector of Brunswick-Luneburg, born June 4th 1738.

Ferdinand-Joseph, (late grand duke of Tuscany), elector of Salzburg, born May 6th 1769.

Frederic II., duke and elector of Wurttemberg, born November 6, 1754; married, in second marriage, to the princess-royal of England, Charlotte-Augusta-Matilda, May 18, 1797, succeeded his father, duke Frederic-Eugene, December 23, 1797, elector 1802.

Charles-Frederic, elector of Baden, born November 22, 1728, succeeded the margrave, his grandfather, May 12, 1738, and to the estates of the branch of Baden-Baden, October 21, 1771; married, in second marriage, November 24, 1787, to Louisa-Caroline, countess of Hochberg, elector 1802.

William IX., elector of Hesse, born June 3, 1743, married, September 1, 1764, to Wilhelmina-Caroline, daughter of Frederic V., king of Denmark, succeeded his father as landgrave of Hesse-Cassel October 31, 1785, elector 1802.

AUSTRIA.

The monarchy of Austria is composed of the following provinces, which form the hereditary dominions of the present emperor of Germany, who has assumed the hereditary title of Emperor of Austria.

Provinces and Countries.  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Archduchy of Austria Proper</td>
<td>10,080</td>
<td>1,820,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Stiria</td>
<td>6,592</td>
<td>800,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duchies of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carinthia</td>
<td>3,100</td>
<td>300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carniola</td>
<td>3,424</td>
<td>400,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Territory of Triest</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>County of Tyrol</td>
<td>6,960</td>
<td>610,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principality of Swabia</td>
<td>1,600</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kingdom of Bohemia</td>
<td>14,400</td>
<td>2,810,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marquise of Moravia</td>
<td>6,400</td>
<td>1,260,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austrian Silesia</td>
<td>1,296</td>
<td>250,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria</td>
<td>37,000</td>
<td>3,900,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kingdom of Hungary</td>
<td>59,500</td>
<td>6,300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transylvania</td>
<td>16,400</td>
<td>1,500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Bukowine</td>
<td>2,900</td>
<td>130,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illyria, or Sclavonia and Croatia</td>
<td>12,800</td>
<td>900,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungarian and Venetian Dalmatia</td>
<td>4,640</td>
<td>300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Venetian Territory</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td>2,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>193,212</td>
<td>23,920,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are situate between 45 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and between 12 and 27 degrees of east longitude. Their length, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the utmost limits of Transylvania, may be estimated about 760 miles; and their breadth, from the river Bug, which forms a boundary between Austria and Prussian Poland, to
the Save, which divides Austria from Turkey, at about 520. The number of inhabitants to the square mile is, as appears from the preceding table of the extent and population of the countries of which they are composed, nearly 110.

Austria Proper exceeds all the other provinces of Germany in the fertility of its soil, the abundance of its pastures, and the salubrity of the air. It is divided by the river Enns into Upper and Lower; the capital of the former is Vienna, already described: besides which it contains 35 cities and 256 market-towns. The capital of the latter is Lintz, a strong town, containing about 15,000 inhabitants; besides which, it has 13 other cities, and 83 market-towns.

The name of Austria is formed by the Italian and French pronunciation of the German words Oster Reich, the eastern kingdom, which name this territory received on account of its situation with respect to the western empire of Charlemagne.

Stiria, situate to the south of the archduchy of Austria, with Hungary on the east, and Carniola to the south, is about 125 miles long, and 17 broad. Though a mountainous country, it is well cultivated, and produces every kind of grain. It contains mines of silver, lead, copper, and particularly iron. The latter have been worked above 1000 years, yet still continue extremely productive; and the Stirian steel is in great estimation. In the whole duchy there are nearly 120 towns, and 500 citadels, many of the latter built on the summits of rocks. The capital is Grazt, situate on the Muehr, a regularly fortified city, with a strong citadel. It has an university, and contains about 30,000 inhabitants.

Carinthia, situate to the south-west of Stiria, is likewise a mountainous and woody country, and contains mines of iron and lead. It contains 31 towns, the principal of which is Clagenfurt, on the river Glan, and 10,000 inhabitants.

Carniola, to the south of Stiria, is 120 miles long and 100 broad. It is in general mountainous; but many parts yield not only good pasturage, but excellent corn, hemp, flax, and millet. In the mountains are mines of iron, lead, and copper. The quicksilver mines of Idria, in this duchy, may be considered as a natural curiosity. They were discovered in 1499, and yield annually 200,000 pounds weight of mercury. The descent into them is by stone stairs and ladders, and the length of the galleries is computed at 1580 feet. The principal rivers are the Sace, the Laybach, the Gurk, and the Culpa. Various kinds of fruits, as chestnuts, walnuts, olives, oranges, citrons, lemons, pomegranates, almonds, and figs, abound here; and black cattle and horses are bred in great numbers. This duchy is estimated to contain 56 towns, 200 citadels, and 4000 villages. The capital is Laybach, containing about 20,000 inhabitants.

AUSTRIAN FRIULI is situate between Carinthia, Carniola, the duchy of Venice, and the territory of Triest. It is divided into the two counties of Gorz, or Goritz, and Gradisca. It is mountainous, but has large valleys, which produce corn, fruits, wine, and silk. The chief town is Gorz, or Goritz, containing 10,000 inhabitants.

TRIEST, situate between Carniola, Friuli, and the Adriatic Sea, produces wine, excellent fruits, and sea salt. The capital, Triest, stands on the Adriatic: it is a free port, with a considerable and increasing trade—from six to eight thousand ships annually arriving there from the different countries of Europe. It is likewise a bishop's see; contains a cathedral and 30,900 inhabitants.

The duchies of Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola, and the territories of Friuli and Triest, are comprehended under the denomination of Inner Austria, and, together with the county of Tyrol, are included as a part of Germany, in the circle of Austria.

TYROL, situate to the east of Carinthia, is 150 miles long and 120 broad. It is extremely mountainous, the chain of the Noric or Raetian Alps running through its whole length, and rivalling the Alps of Switzerland in numerous glaciers. It contains mines of silver, copper and lead, and produces corn and wine, very fine flax and silk. The wild animals are bears, wolves, and foxes; and the domestic, horses, black cattle, and sheep. Great numbers of canary-birds are bred here, and carried, for sale, to almost every part of Europe. The manufactures are those of silk, velvet, and leather, as also of iron and steel. The principal town is Innspruck, containing 12,000 inhabitants. Tyrol likewise comprehends the bishoprics of Trent and Brixen, formerly subject to their respective bishops, but lately given as indemnities to the house of Austria. The
former of these cities, celebrated by the great council of Trent, held here from 1545 to 1563, contains about 8000 inhabitants, and the latter about 400.

The religion of all these provinces is the Roman-Catholic.

The language, in general, is the German, but in some parts the Wendish is spoken by the common people; and in the southern provinces, the Italian, at least a dialect of that language, prevails.

REVENUE.] The revenues of the Austrian monarchy are estimated at about 10 millions sterling, of which Austria contributes one third. The revenue formerly exceeded the expenses; but the different wars in which the house of Austria has engaged in modern times, especially in the late arduous struggle with France, have accumulated a debt, which is now estimated at above 70 millions sterling.

ARMY.] The army of Austria, on the peace-establishment, in the year 1801, was stated, from official returns, at 328,600 men; and though all these might not be effective troops, in case of war, this monarchy, notwithstanding what it may have suffered in the late contests with France, may still be able to bring into the field an army even exceeding that number.

TITLE.] The title of the sovereign of Austria, is as follows:—Francis II., by the grace of God, elected Emperor of the Romans, always august, hereditary emperor of Austria, king of Germany, Hungary, Bohemia, &c., archduke of Austria, duke of Lorraine, Venice, Salzburg, &c.

BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF BOHEMIA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 210</td>
<td>12. and 16. 30. east long.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 175</td>
<td>48. 30. and 51. north latitude.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Containing 14,400 square miles, with 195 inhabitants to each.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF MORAVIA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 140</td>
<td>15. 20. and 18. 30. east longitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 90</td>
<td>48. 40. and 50. north latitude.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Containing 6400 square miles, with 196 inhabitants to each.

NAMES.] Bohemia, or Bojenheim, signifies the residence of the Boi, a Celtic nation, who removed into that country from Gaul, before the expedition of Julius Caesar. The inhabitants call themselves Czechy, or, as the Germans generally write the name, Tschechs. Tschech is the name of one of their ancient chiefs.

Moravia derives its name from the river Morava.

BOUNDARIES.] Bohemia is bounded on the north by Misnia and Lusatia, in upper Saxony; on the east by Silesia and Moravia; on the south by Austria; and on the west by Franconia, and Bavaria.

Moravia is bounded on the north by Silesia; on the east by Hungary; on the south by Austria; and on the west by Bohemia.

DIVISIONS.] Bohemia is divided into the sixteen circles of Bunzlau, Konigingratz, Chrudim, Kautzim, Beranu, Rakonitz, Sas, Leutmeritz, Biczow, Czaslau, Tabor, Budweis, Prachin, Klattau, Pilsen, and Elbogen. Prague is not included in either of these circles, but forms a kind of district of itself.

Moravia is divided into the six circles of Olmutz, Brun, Znaim, Iglau, Hradisch, and Prerau; which are the names of their chief towns.

FORESTS AND MOUNTAINS.] Bohemia is surrounded with mountains and woods.
On the north-west it is bounded by the Erzgebirge, and on the east by the Sudetic chain and the giant mountain; on the south-east and south by the Moravian mountains; and on the west it has for its boundary the Fichtel mountains and the Bohemian forest.

Lakes and rivers.] The chief rivers of Bohemia are the Elbe, the Mulda, and the Egra; those of Moravia are the Morava, and the Oder, which rises in the circle of Olmutz, and falls into the Baltic at Stettin. In Bohemia are a few lakes, but which have nothing to merit notice.

Minerals and metals.] Bohemia contains rich mines of silver, quicksilver, iron, copper, lead, and especially tin; and also sulphur and saltpetre. Above a hundred towns and places might be named where mine works are established. Various species of marble and almost every kind of precious stones are found here; but, in general, deficient in hardness. In Moravia, in the circle of Brunn, are iron-mines, and quarries of marble; and in the circle of Znaim there are mines of iron, vitriol, sulphur, and saltpetre.

Climate, soil, and produce.] The climate of both countries is warm, pleasant, and wholesome; the soil is in general rich, but in some places sandy. Bohemia is most cultivated. It is fertile in corn, considerable quantities of which are exported, as also in pasturage, garden and orchard-fruits, and excellent hops.

Population, national character, and manners.] The population of Bohemia is estimated by Hoekck at 2,806,560; and that of Moravia at 1,256,240. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits, manners, and amusements, resemble the Germans. There is among them no middle state of people; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. But the emperor Joseph II. generously discharged the Bohemian peasants, on the imperial demesnes, from the state of villanage in which they have been so long and so unjustly retained; and it will be happy if his example should be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and they be thereby induced no longer to deprive their vassals of the rights of human nature. Although the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid assertors of religious and civil liberty in Europe; witness the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power; and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay, as no means were left unemployed by their despotick masters for breaking their spirit; though it is certain their internal jealousies and dissensions contributed to their subjection.

Animals.] The wild animals of Bohemia are bears, lynxes, wolves, foxes, martens, badgers, beavers; the tame, black cattle, sheep, and an excellent breed of horses. The woods abound in game and wild fowl. In Moravia is found a species of leopards, of the size of dogs, but thicker, called, by the inhabitants, rysove.

Chief towns.] The capital of Bohemia is Prague, situate almost in the centre of the kingdom, on both sides of the river Mulda. It is three German, or more than twelve English miles in circumference; contains 80,000 inhabitants, of whom about 30,000 are Jews. There is a noble bridge of eighteen arches over the Mulda, which separates the old-town from the new. It is a place of almost no trade; and, therefore, the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews carry on a large commerce in jewels.

Reichenberg, in Bunzlau, is the next city to Prague for importance and population, containing about 10,000 inhabitants, and having considerable linen manufactures.

Olmutz, an ancient and strongly fortified city, was formerly the capital of Moravia; but Brunn is now considered as such, being the seat of the administration of the Austrian government. Brunn is likewise a strong city, containing about 16,000 inhabitants, and having manufactures of cloth and velvets.

Commerce, manufactures.] The manufactures of Bohemia are numerous and flourishing. The linen manufacture it computed employs above 300,000 persons, the woollen 60,000, and the cotton 30,000. Bohemia is likewise celebrated for beautiful glass and paper. The manufactures of Moravia are nearly the same. The exports of these are considerable from both countries.

Revenue.] Bohemia contributes to the revenue of Austria about 8,900,000l. per annum.
dollars (or nearly 1,400,000l. sterling), and Moravia about 2,660,000l. or 440,000l. sterling.

Religion.] The established religion of both countries is the Roman-catholic, yet there are many protestants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exercise of their religion. Some of the Moravians have embraced a visionary Protestantism, which they have propagated by their missionaries in several parts of the globe. They have a meeting-house in London, an establishment at Bedford, and are found in various of the American states.

Prague is an archbishopric, and Königgratz and Olmutz are bishoprics.

Constitution and Government.] The forms only of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist. The government under the emperor is despotic. The states are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns. Their sovereigns of late have not been fond of provoking them by ill usage, as they have a general aversion towards the Austrians. The king of Bohemia is the first secular elector of the empire, and their kings have been for many years elected emperors of Germany.

The government of Moravia, which since the year 1526 has been subject to the house of Austria, is administered by a council and president appointed by the emperor. The states, however, which are similar to those of Bohemia, meet annually as a matter of form.

Universities.] The only universities in Bohemia is that of Prague, founded in 1347; it once could boast of 30,000 students, but now has not more than 200. In Moravia is the university of Olmutz, founded in 1567.

Language.] The language is a dialect of the Slavonic; but German is very commonly spoken in both countries.

Arms.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and passant in saltier, crowned, langued, and armed, Or. The arms of Moravia are a crowned eagle in a field azure.

History.] The Boi were driven out of Bohemia by the Marcomanni. It became afterwards a province of the Ostrogoths, Lombards, Thuringians, and Franks, till in 534 it was overrun by the Slavi. Charlemagne and some of his successors made these new inhabitants tributary; but they soon regained their independence, though they preserved a certain connexion with the German empire. The Bohemian nobility, however, elected their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Austria received three crowns: Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414, John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Zisca, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the imperialists out of the kingdom. The divisions of the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperor to regain and keep possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing in 1618 a protestant king in the person of the prince-palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being stripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a subsistence. Since the war of thirty years, which desolated the empire, the Bohemians have remained subject to the house of Austria.

Moravia was anciently inhabited by the Quadi, who were driven out by the Slavi. From the beginning of the eighth to the end of the ninth century, it was a powerful independent kingdom; in the eleventh it was subdued by the German emperors; and in the twelfth made a margravate; in the fifteenth century it came into the possession of the house of Austria, to which it has ever since remained subject.

Ffs
GALLICIA AND LODOMERIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.  Length 320  Breach 290
Degrees. between 48 and 52 North latitude.
                 18 and 26 East longitude.

Containing 37,000 square miles, with 185 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries.] GALLICIA is bounded on the north and east by Prussian and
Russian Poland; on the south by Hungary, Transylvania, and Silesia; and on the west
by Silesia.

Divisions. This country, which is composed entirely of the provinces of dismem-
bered Poland, is divided into East and West, the former consisting of the territory as-
signed to Austria, in the first division of Poland in 1772; and the latter of the part ad-
ded on the final division and extinction of that kingdom in 1795.

East Gallicia is divided into eighteen circles; viz. those of Mislowitz, Ducla, Rzes-
zow, Sanok, Sambor, Lemberg, Tomaschow, Zamors, Belz, Brody, Zloczow, Mariam-
pol, Stanislaw, Zalesziz, Lublin, Chelm, Bial, and Siedlitz.

West Gallicia is divided into the following twelve circles: Boclinia, Sandez, Prze-
mislaw, Tornow, Cracow, Kielz, Konsk, Olkussh, Radomir, Ingul, Radom, and
Lanow.

Face of the Country, Mountains, Forests.] Gallicia is a level country, ex-
cept towards the south, on which side it is separated from Hungary by the Carpathian
mountains. In some parts there are wide sandy plains, and extensive forests and
morasses.

Climate, Soil, Produce.] Gallicia is that part of the late kingdom of Poland,
which is situated in the mildest climate, and of which the soil is most productive. Ex-
cept a few sandy tracts, it is extremely fertile both in corn and pasturage. It produces,
plentifully, grain of every kind, as also hemp, flax, and tobacco, and would be better
cultivated, were there sufficient means of disposing of its produce. Honey and wax
are obtained here in great abundance. The manna of this and the other parts of Pol-
land is produced by a herb that grows in the meadows and marshy grounds: in the
months of June and July the inhabitants gather it by sweeping it into sieves, with the
dew. It is esteemed a great delicacy by the Poles, who dress it in a variety of ways.
The woods abound in oak, beech, pine, and fir trees.

Minerals, Metals.] This country contains mines of iron, lead, and copper, and
quarries of marble. Near Olkussh are mines of silver and lead. The salt-mines of
Wieliczka near Cracow are the richest and most productive in Europe, affording an an-
nual revenue of 100,000L sterling; though their produce has considerably declined
since they became subject to Austria. Out of some mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-
east of Cracow, are dug several kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the
potter's use, and supply all the country with earthen-ware.

Rivers.] The principal rivers are the Vistula, which rising in the Carpathian
mountains traverses the country, and falls into the Baltic sea near Danzick after a
course of 450 miles; the Bug, which divides Gallicia from Russian and Prussian Po-
land; the Dniester, and the Pruth.

Animals.] The forests in the northern parts of Gallicia, and those of Warsovia
in Prussian Poland, contain great numbers of uri, or buffaloes, whose flesh the Poles
powder, and esteem it an excellent dish. Wolves, bears, lynx, and deer, all of them
wild, are common in the Polish forests; there are also wild horses and asses, and oxen.
A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on 'his belly and legs, is found here, and
affords the best fur in the country. The flesh of the Polish elk forms the most delici-
ous part of their greatest feasts. His body is of the deer make, but thicker and longer; the legs high, and the feet broad, like a wild goat's. Naturalists have observed, that, upon dissecting an elk, there are frequently found in his head some large flies, and the brain almost eaten away; and it is an observation sufficiently attested, that, in the large woods and wildernesses of the north, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter, by a larger sort of flies, that, through its ears, attempt to take up their winter-quarters in its head. This persecution affects the elk with the falling sickness, by which means it is frequently taken more easily than it would be otherwise.

Poland produces a creature called bobac, which seems to be of the beaver kind. They dig holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, till April: and have separate apartments for their provisions, lodgings, and their dead; and live together by ten or twelve in a herd. In the northern parts of this country, and in Lithuania, are found vultures and eagles. The quails have green legs, and their flesh is reckoned unwholesome. The remiz, a species of titmouse, is frequently found in these parts: it is remarkable for the wondrous structure of its pendent nest.

The domestic animals are numerous; black cattle, horses of a good breed, and sheep, the wool of which is very fine.

Natural curiosities.] The salt-mines of Wieliczka, consist of wonderful caverns, several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings. Out of these are dug four different kinds of salts; one extremely hard, like crystal; another softer, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; these are all brackish, but the fourth is somewhat fresher. These four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one side of them is a stream of salt-water, and on the other one of fresh. The descent into these mines is by pits of great depth; and the chambers are of immense size, commonly supported by timber, or by pillars of salt, out of which material even subterraneous chapels are formed: but the splendour and extent of these saline apartments have been exaggerated by travellers.

The virtues of a spring in the vicinity of Cracow, which increases and decreases with the moon, are said to be wonderful for the preservation of life; and it is reported that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and some of them to 150 years of age. This spring is inflammable, and, by applying a torch to it, it flames like the subtlest spirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the surface without heating the water: and if neglected to be extinguished, which it may easily be, it communicates itself, by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about seventy years ago the flames lasted for three years before they could be entirely extinguished.

Population, national character, and customs.] The number of inhabitants in Eastern Galicia is estimated by Hocq at 2,797,119, and in Western Galicia at 1,106,178, amounting together to 3,903,297. The population of the whole of Poland, before its first dismemberment in 1772, was estimated at 13,404,000.

The Poles, in their persons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their shapes well proportioned. They are brave, and hospitable; and their women sprightly, modest, and submissive. Their mode of salute is to incline their heads, and to strike their breasts with one of their hands, while they stretch the other towards the ground; but when a common person meets a superior, he bows his head near to the earth, and with his head touches the leg near to the heel of the person to whom he pays obeisance. Their diversions are vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horse, hunting, skating, bull and bear-beating. A Polish gentleman will not travel a stone's-throw without his horse; and they are so hardy, that they will sleep upon the ground, without any covering, in frost and snow. The Poles never live above stairs, and their apartments are not united: the kitchen is on one side, the stable on another, the dwelling-house on the third, and the gate in the front. They content themselves with a few small beds; and if any lodge at their houses, they must carry their bedding with them. When they sit down to dinner or supper, they have trumpets and other music playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all serving with the most profound respect; for the nobles who are poor, frequently find themselves under
the necessity of serving those that are rich: but their patron usually treats them with
civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at table, with his cap off; and every
one of them has his peasant-boy to wait on him, maintained by the master of the family.
At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor spoons, but every guest
brings them with him; and they no sooner sit down to table, than all the doors are
shut, and not opened till the company return home. It is usual for a nobleman to
give his servant part of his meat, which he eats as he stands behind him, and to let
him drink out of the same cup with himself; but this is the less extraordinary, if it be
considered that these servants are esteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in fashion,
both here and in Russia; nor will they easily excuse any person from pledging them.
It would exceed the bounds of this work to describe the grandeur and equipages of the
Polish nobility; and the reader must figure to himself an idea of all that is fastidious, cere-
monious, expensive, and showy in life, to have any conception of their way of living.
They carry the pomp of their attendance, when they appear abroad, even to ridicule;
for it is not unusual to see the lady of a Polish grandee, besides a coach and six, with a
great number of servants, attended by an old gentleman-usher, an old gentlewoman for
her gouvernante, and a dwarf of each sex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her
coach is surrounded by a great number of flambeaux.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens or burgheis, and peasants: the
peasants are of two sorts—those of the crown, and those belonging to individuals.
Though Poland had its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility
were naturally on a level, except the difference that arose from the public posts they
enjoyed. Hence all who were of noble birth called one another brothers. They did not
value titles of honour, but thought a gentleman of Poland the highest appellation they
could enjoy. They had many considerable privileges; and, indeed, the boasted Polish
liberty was properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings,
but more generally from ancient custom and prescription. Under their ancient consti-
tution, before the last partition of the country, they had a power of life and death over
their tenants and vassals; paid no taxes; were subject to none but the king; might
choose whom they would for their king; and none but they, and the burgheis of some
particular towns, could purchase lands. In short, they were almost entirely indepen-
dent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated state;
but if they engaged in trade, they forfeited their nobility. These great privileges
made the Polish gentry powerful; many of them had large territories, with a despotic
power over their tenants, whom they called their subjects, and transferred or assigned
over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Casimir the Great, the lord could
put his peasant to death with impunity; and, when the latter had no children, consi-
dered himself as the heir, and seized all his effects. In 1347, Casimir prescribed a
fine for the murder of a peasant; and enacted that, in case of his decease without issue,
his next heir should inherit. But these and other regulations proved ineffectual against
the power and tyranny of the nobles, and were either abrogated or eluded. Some of
them had estates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and were also hereditary sove-
igns of cities, with which the king had no concern. One of their nobles sometimes
possessed above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them could raise 8 or 10,000
men. The house of a nobleman was a secure asylum for persons who had committed
any crime; for none might presume to take them from thence by force. They had
their horse and foot guards, which were upon duty day and night before their palaces
and in their anti-chambers, and marched before them when they went abroad. They
made an extraordinary figure when they came to the diet, some of them having 5000
guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate were often determined by the
sword. When great men had suits at law, the diet or other tribunal decided them;
yet the execution of the sentence must be left to the longest sword; for the justice of
the kingdom was commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they would raise
6000 men of a side, plunder and burn one another's cities, and besiege castles and
forts; for they thought it below them to submit to the sentence of judges, without a
field-battle. As to the peasants, they were born slaves, and had no idea of liberty. If
one lord killed the peasant of another, he was not capitaly convicted, but only obliged to make reparation by another peasant equal in value.

The peasants were at the absolute disposal of their master, and all their acquisitions served only to enrich him. They were indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permission of their lords: and they were exposed to the dismal and frequently fatal effects of the caprice and barbarity of their masters. In modern times, indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understandings ventured to give liberty to their vassals. The first who granted this freedom was Zemboiski, formerly great chancellor, who in 1760 enfranchised six villages in the palatinate of Masovia, and afterwards on all his estates. The event showed the project to be no less judicious than humane, equally conducive to the interests of the nobles and the happiness of the peasants; for it appeared that, in the districts in which the new arrangements had been introduced, the population of the villages considerably increased, and the revenues of their estates were augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Stanislaus, nephew of the late king of Poland, likewise enfranchised four villages near Warsaw; and not only emancipated his peasants from slavery, but condescended to direct their affairs.

Whether the same liberal policy will be adopted by the governments which have seized and divided Poland, time must show; but in their dominions, especially in Russia, many of the peasants do not appear to be in a much better condition.

Torture was abolished in Poland in 1776 by an edict of the diet, under the influence of the king. Atrocious crimes, such as murder, &c. are punished by beheading or hanging; lesser delinquencies by whipping, imprisonment, and hard labour: the nobles never suffer any corporal punishment, but are liable only to imprisonment and death.

The inns in this country are long stables, built with boards, and covered with straw, without furniture or windows; there are chambers at one end; but none can lodge there, because of flies and other vermin; so that strangers generally choose rather to lodge among the horses. Travellers are obliged to carry provisions with them; and when foreigners want a supply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with necessaries.

Dress.] The dress of the Poles is rather singular. They shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown, and men of all ranks generally wear large whiskers. They wear a vest which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and girded with a sash; but the sleeves fit as close to their arms as a waistcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their stockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their shirts are without collar or wristbands, and they wear neither stock nor neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like a half moon. They carry a pole-axe, and a sabre, or cutlass, by their sides. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the best quality wear sables, and others the skins of tigers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty suits of clothes, all as rich as possible, and which descend from father to son. Were it not for our own partiality to short dresses, we must acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majestic. Charles II. of England thought of introducing the Polish dress into his court, and, after his restoration, wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of the English broadcloth; but discontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women very much resembles that of the men; a simple Polonaise, or long robe edged with fur; but some people of fashion, of both sexes, affect the French or English modes. As to the peasants, in winter they wear a sheep's-skin with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs; with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet.

Government.—Ancient Constitution of Poland.] Galicia, as making a part of the Austrian dominions, is now necessarily under an absolute monarchical government. The old constitution of Poland differed little from aristocracy; hence it has been
called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king was head of the republic, and was elected on horseback by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warsaw. In case there should be a refractory minority, the majority had no control over them but to cut them in pieces with their sabres; but if the minority were sufficiently strong, a civil war ensued. Immediately after his election, he signed the pacta conventa of the kingdom, by which he engaged that the crown should be elective—that his successor should be appointed during his life—that the diets should be assembled every two years—that every noble or gentleman in the realm should have a vote in the diet of election—and that, in case the king should infringe the laws and privileges of the nation, his subjects should be absolved from their allegiance.—In fact, the king was no more than president of the senate, which was composed of the primate, the archbishop of Lemberg, fifteen bishops, and 130 laymen, consisting of the great officers of state, the palatines, and castellans. The palatines were the governors of the provinces, who held their offices for life.—The offices of the castellans in time of peace were almost nominal; but when the military or feudal services were required, they were the lieutenants of the palatines, and commanded the troops of their several districts.

The diets of Poland were ordinary and extraordinary: the former met once in two, and sometimes three years; the latter was summoned by the king, upon critical emergency, and continued no longer than a fortnight; but one dissenting voice rendered all their deliberations ineffectual. Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which could sit but six weeks, there were dietines, or provincial diets, held in different districts. The king, with the advice of the permanent council, sent them letters, containing the heads of the business that was to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate might sit in the dietine, and choose nuncios or deputies to carry their resolutions to the grand diet. The great diet consisted of the king, senators, and deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and 70 for Prussia: it met twice at Warsaw, and once at Grodno, by turns, for the convenience of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland; but in the late reign they were always summoned to Warsaw.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] The manufactures of Galicia are confined to articles of immediate necessity. They are however greatly favoured by the Austrian government, and are increasing and improving. The commerce of this country is principally carried on by the Jews. Salt is the most important article of the exports, which consist besides of corn, tobacco, cattle, wool, tallow, bristles, honey, and wax.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Lemberg, or Leopol, is the capital of Galicia, and the seat of the Austrian government of East Galicia. It is a large and opulent city, situate on the Peltew, which soon after falls into the Bug. It is the see of a Roman-catholic archbishop, and also of a Greek bishop, and an Armenian bishop. It is defended by two castles, has a cathedral, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants. Brody is a commercial town, with a fortified castle, and nearly 20,000 inhabitants, one third of whom are Jews. Lublin carries on a considerable trade in cloth, corn, and Hungarian wines. Three annual fairs are held here, which are frequented by Russian, Turkish, Greek, and Armenian merchants.

Cracow is the seat of the Austrian government of West Galicia; and was anciently the capital of the kingdom of Poland. The city and suburbs are of great extent, but do not now contain more than 24,000 inhabitants. It is the see of a bishop, and a university. Here is a magnificent cathedral, in which the kings of Poland were crowned, and an ancient and strongly fortified castle, which was the residence of those sovereigns before they removed their court to Warsaw. Sandomir, situate on an eminence near the Vistula, is another considerable town of West Galicia. It is well fortified both by nature and art, and its delightful situation rendered it the favourite residence of Casimir the Great, and other kings of Poland.

Warsaw, the late capital of Poland, will be described in our account of Prussia, to which monarchy it now appertains.

RELIGION.] The established religion of this country is the Roman-catholic: but Lutherans, Calvinists, and Greeks, are tolerated; and the Jews, who are very numerous, enjoy considerable privileges, as they do in the rest of the Austrian states.
The principles of Socinianism made a very early and considerable progress in Poland. A translation of the bible into the Polish language was published in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the same persons, the catechism, or confession of the Unitarians, was published at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socinus greatly contributed to the extensive propagation of his opinions; but though the Socians in Poland have been very numerous, they have at different times been greatly persecuted. At present a more liberal toleration prevails.

Lemberg, as mentioned above, is an archbishopric; the bishoprics are Cracow, Chełm, and Luckow.

In the late kingdom of Poland were two archbishoprics, Gnesa and Lemberg. The archbishop of the former was primate, and always a cardinal. During an interregnum he acted as regent of the kingdom. Gnesa is now in the territory of Prussia.

Revenue.] Austria derives from Gallicia a revenue of from ten to twelve millions of florins, or about 1,200,000l. sterling. The whole revenue of the late kingdom of Poland was estimated at only 440,000l. sterling.

Polish orders of knighthood.] The "Order of the White Eagle" was first instituted by Uladislaus, in the year 1325, but revived by Augustus I. in the year 1705, to attach to him some of the Polish nobles, who, he feared, were inclined to Stanislaus, his competitor: it was conferred also on the czar, Peter the Great, of Russia. Its ensign is a cross of gold enamelled with red, and appendant to a blue ribbon: the motto, Pro fide, rege, et lege. The late king instituted the "Order of St Stanislaus," soon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold cross enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion, with the image of St Stanislaus, enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendant to a red ribbon edged with white. The star of the order is silver, and in the centre is a cypher of S. A. R. (Stanislaus Augustus Rex), incircled with the motto "Premiando incitat."

Language.] The native language of this country is the Polish: the German, however, is understood in many parts of it; and, as above observed, an impure and incorrect Latin is also in use. The Polish language is a dialect of the Slavonic; it is harsh and unharmonious, from the great number of consonants it employs.

The Lord's prayer in Polish is as follows:

Ojczyzna naszą króla, na niebieskich isestes; niech sie świata imię twoie; niech przyjazdje ono królestwo twoie, niech sie staną ona swola twoia iako u niebie tak y na ziemi. Chleba naszego onego pokowalnego day nam daisia, y odpue nam nasie winij, iako my od pussezymy wino waycom naszym; y nie u wodë nas u pokussenie; ale wyrwi nas od onego słęgo; iz twoie jest królestwo, y mor, y chwala na wieki. Amen.

Universities.] The university of Cracow was founded in 1364. It consists of eleven colleges, and had the superintendence of 14 grammar schools dispersed through the city. The number of students in 1778 amounted to 600. Of the other two universities of Poland, Wilna, and Posna or Posen, the former has become subject to Russia, and the latter to Prussia.

Literature.] Though Copernicus, the great restorer of the true astronomical system, Vorstius, and some other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet many circumstances in this country are far from being favourable to learning. Latin is spoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in some parts. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever shown for learning; the servitude of the lower people; and the universal superstition among all ranks of them, have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithstanding the liberal efforts of his late majesty, still continue to retard, the progress of letters in this kingdom. However, of late, a taste for science has spread itself among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accomplishment.

History.] As this country was a part of the late kingdom of Poland, its history will necessarily be included in the history of that country, a summary of which we shall here give.

Poland, in ancient times, was possessed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Russ and Tartars. It was divided into many small states or principalities, each almost independent of the other, though they generally had some prince who
was paramount over the rest. In the year 700, the people, through the oppression of
their petty chiefs, gave the supreme command, under the title of duke, to Cracus, the
founder of the city of Cracow. His posterity failing, in the year 830, a peasant, named
Piastus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years; and his
reign was so long and auspicious, that every native Pole who has since been elected
king is called a Piast. From this period till the accession of Misciusius II. in 964, we
have no very certain records of the history of Poland. The title of duke was retained
till the year 999, when Boleslaus assumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia,
Prussia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleslaus II. added Red
Russia to Poland, by marrying the heiress of that duchy, anno 1059. Jagello, who in
1384 mounted the throne, was grand duke of Lithuania, and a pagan; but on his being
elected king of Poland, he not only became a Christian, but used every endeavour to
bring over his subjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to those
of Poland; which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the Poles, that
the crown was preserved in his family, until the male line became extinct in Sigismund
Augustus, in 1572, who admitted the reformed, with Greeks and all other sects, to a
seat in the diet, and to all the honours and privileges before confined to the catholics.
He gave such evident marks of favour to the protestant confession, that he was suspect-
of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors ap-
peared for the crown of Poland: these were, Henry duke of Anjou, brother to Charles
IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Austria. The French interest prevailed, by
private bribes to the nobles, and a stipulation to pay an annual pension to the republic
from the revenues of France; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of
Poland when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he
governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had espoused the interest of
Maximilian, endeavoured once more to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the
Poles being desirous to choose a prince who might reside among them, made choice of
Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania, who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting
with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish
himself on the throne, by marrying Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, and of the
royal house of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs
of the Poles, by establishing a new militia, composed of Cossacs, a rough and barbarous
race of men, on whom he bestowed the Ukraine, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon
his death, in 1586, the Poles chose Sigismund, son of John, king of Sweden, by Catha-
rine, sister of Sigismund II., for their king.

Sigismund was crowned king of Sweden after his father’s death; but being expelled,
as we have seen in the history of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war ensued between
them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigismund being secured
in the throne of Poland, aspired to that of Russia as well as Sweden; but after long wars
he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unsuccess-
ful wars with the Turks and Swedes. At last a truce was concluded under the media-
tion of France and England; but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes
should keep Elbing, Memel, Braunsberg, and Pillau, together with all they had taken
in Livonia. In 1623, Sigismund died, and Uladislaus, his son, succeeded. This prince
was successful both against the Turks and the Russians, and obliged the Swedes to re-
store all the Polish dominions they had taken in Prussia. His reign, however, was un-
fortunate, by his being instigated, through the avarice of his nobles and generals, to en-
croach upon the privileges of the Cossacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed
was carried on against the Cossacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Cossacs,
naturally a brave people, became desperate; and, on the succession of John II., brother
to Uladislaus, the Cossac general Schmielinski defeated the Poles in two great battles,
and forced them to a dishonourable peace. It appears that, during the course of this
war, the Polish nobility behaved as the worst of ruffians, and their conduct was highly
condemned by John; while his nobility disapproved of the peace he had concluded with
them. As the jealousy hereby occasioned continued, the Russians came to a rupture
with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Cossacs, they in 1654 took Smolen-
sko. This was followed by the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed most horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year Charles X. of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Polish Prussia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzig. The resistance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-assemble; and their king, John Casimir, who had fled into Silesia, was joined by the Tartars as well as the Poles; so that the Swedes, who were dispersed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the same time, disowned the allegiance they had been forced to yield to Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition that the Dutch and English protected Dantzig, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the sovereignty of Ducal Prussia, which had submitted to Charles. Thus the latter lost Poland, of which he had made an almost complete conquest. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Prussia was restored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretensions to Livonia, and to cede Smolensko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Russians.

During these transactions, the Polish nobility grew dissatisfied with the concessions their king had made to the Cossacks, many of whom had thrown off the Polish yoke; others charged him with want of capacity; and some, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Casimir, who very possibly had no such intentions, and was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabals and factions increased every day, and that he himself might fall a sacrifice to the public discontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germain in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

The most remote descendants of the ancient kings ending in John Casimir, many foreign candidates presented themselves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles chose for their king a private gentleman, of little interest and less capacity, one Michael Wiesnowiski, because he was descended from a Piast. His reign was disgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of Cossacks had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminieck, till then thought impenetrable. The greatest part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the Sultan. Notwithstanding those disgraceful events, the credit of the Polish arms was in some measure maintained by John Sobieski, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks several defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieski was chosen king; and in 1676 he was so successful against the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had imposed upon Poland; but they kept possession of Kaminieck. In 1683, Sobieski, though he had not been well treated by the house of Austria, was so public-spirited as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Christendom against the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raise the siege of Vienna, and making a terrible slaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious services, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieski returning to Poland continued the war against the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the senate, who suspected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

After the death of Sobieski, Poland fell into great distractions. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties seemed inclined to exclude the Sobieski family. In the mean time Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and the crown in a manner put up to sale. The Prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the most liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almost sure, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favour of her younger son, prince Alexander Sobieski, for which she was driven from Warsaw to Dantzig. Suddenly Augustus, elector of Saxony, started up as a candidate; and after a sham election, being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city in 1697. The prince of Conti made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, and pretended that he had been actually chosen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the
The manner in which the latter was driven from the throne, by Charles XII., of Sweden (who procured the advancement of Stanislaus), and afterwards restored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the history of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712 that Augustus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Stanislaus, and were perpetually forming conspiracies and plots against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural son, prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was chosen duke of Courland; but Augustus was not able to maintain him in that dignity against the power of Russia and the jealousy of the Poles. Augustus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could to insure the succession of Poland to his son Augustus II. (or, as he is called by some, III.) This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law, Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a considerable party, of which the prince-primate was the head. But Augustus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat to Dantzic, whence he escaped with great difficulty into France. In the history of Germany, the war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and Frederic II. king of Prussia, has been already noticed. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild and moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts; and all he obtained from them was merely shelter, when the king of Prussia drove him from his capital and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus; though it is said that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empress of Russia. He was a man of abilities and address; but, from various concurring causes, he had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity. In 1766 a petition was presented to the king, in the name of all the protestant nobility, and in behalf also of the members of the Greek church, conjointly called the dissidents, in which they demanded to be re-instated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the same footing in every respect as the Roman-catholic subjects of the kingdom. The king gave no answer to the petition of the dissidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held the following year, when the ministers of the courts of Russia, London, Berlin, and Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet appeared to receive the complaints of the dissidents with great moderation, as to the free exercise of their worship; which gave some flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Prussia appear to have prevented this: for, though he openly professed to be a zealous defender of the cause of the dissidents, it was manifest, from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Russians in the affairs of Poland also gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation ran into confederacies formed in distinct provinces; the popish clergy were active in opposing the cause of the dissidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars, partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confusion, devastation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almost destroyed; many of the principal popish families retired into foreign states with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Russian troops, which acted as guards to the king at Warsaw, that city had likewise exhibited a scene of plunder and massacre. To those complicated evils were added, in the year 1770, that most dreadful scourge the pestilence, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhynia, and the Ukraine; and in these provinces, it is said, swept off 250,000 people. Meanwhile some of the Polish confederates interceded with the Turks to assist them against their powerful oppressors; and a war ensued between the Russians and the Turks on account of Poland. The conduct of the grand seignior,
and of the Ottoman Porte, towards the distressed Poles, was just and honourable, and the very reverse of that of their Christian, Catholic, and Apostolic neighbours.*

In the year 1772, it appeared that the king of Prussia, the emperor and empress-queen, and empress of Russia, had entered into an alliance to divide and dismember the kingdom of Poland; though Prussia was formerly in a state of vassalage to Poland, and the title of the king of Prussia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Russia also, in the beginning of the 17th century, saw its capital and throne possessed by the Poles; while Austria, in 1683, was indebted to a king of Poland for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence. These three allied powers, acting in concert, set up their formal pretensions to the respective districts which they had allotted for and guaranteed to each other;—Polish or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south-east parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the empress-queen of Hungary and Bohemia; and a large district of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empress of Russia. But though each of these powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them respectively, and published manifestoes in justification of the measures which they had taken, yet as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the ceding of those provinces to them respectively, the whole kingdom should be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered state. In this extremity of distress, several of the Polish nobility protested against this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign states, choosing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiscated, than to be instruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king, under the threatening of deposition and imprisonment, was prevailed upon to sign this act, and his example was followed by many of his subjects.

The conduct of the king of Prussia in Poland was the most tyrannical that can be conceived. In the year 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and carried off from that province and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the same year, he published an edict, commanding every person, under the severest penalties, and even corporeal punishment, to take in payment, for forage, provisions, corn, horses, &c. the money offered by his troops and commissaries. This money was either silver, bearing the impression of Poland, and exactly worth one-third of its nominal value, or ducats struck in imitation of Dutch ducats, seventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this base money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchase...

* In 1764, the empress of Russia transmitted to the court of Warsaw an act of renunciation, signed with her own hand, and sealed with the seal of the empire; in which she declares, "That she did by no means arrogate either to herself, her heirs and successors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the districts or territories which were actually in possession, or subject to the authority, of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her said majesty, would guarantee to the said kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania all the immunities, lands, territories, and districts, which the said kingdoms and duchy ought by right to possess, or did now actually possess; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, against the attempts of all and every one who should, at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to dispose of them of the same."—In the same year did the king of Prussia sign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, "That he had no claims, formed no pretensions on Poland, or any part thereof: that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the same instrument he guarantees, in the most solemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland against every power whatever.—The empress queen of Hungary, so late as the month of January 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which she gave him the strongest assurances, "That her friendship for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motions of her troops ought not to alarm him; that she had never entertained a thought of seizing any part of his dominions, nor would even suffer any other power to do it." From which, according to the political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a state, means to annihilate those liberties, seize upon those rights, and appropriate those revenues to their own use.—Such is the faith of princes!
corn for their daily subsistence, at an advanced price, and with good money, his commis-
saries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. At the lowest calculation, he
obtained by this honest manoeuvre seven millions of dollars. Having stripped the country
of money and provisions, his next attempt was to thin it still more of its inhabitants. To
people his own dominions at the expence of Poland had been his great aim; for this pur-
pose, he devised a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furnish a
considerable number of marriageable girls; the parents to give, as a portion, a feather-bed,
four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and
foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeyes, convents, cathedrals,
and nobles, were so heavy, and exceeded at last their abilities so much, that the priests
abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions continued with
unabated rigour, from the year 1771 to the time the treaty of partition was declared,
and possession taken of the provinces usurped. From these proceedings, it would appear
that his Prussian majesty knew of no rights but his own; no pretensions but those of the
house of Brandenburg; no other rule of justice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent dismemberment and partition of Poland has justly been considered as the
first great breach in the modern political system of Europe. The surprise of a town,
the invasion of an insignificant province, or the election of a prince, who had neither
abilities to be feared, nor virtues to be loved, would some years ago have armed one
half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the destruction of
a great kingdom, with the consequent disarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce,
has been beheld by the other nations of Europe with the most astonishing indifference
and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remon-
strated against the usurpations, but that was all. Poland was forced to submit, and the
partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers.
In the senate there was a majority of six, but in the lower house, or assembly of nuncios,
there was but one in favour of the measure, 54 against 53. This is a very alarming cir-
cumstance, and shews that a most important, though not happy change, has taken place
in that general system of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had
been for some ages an object of unremitting attention with most of the states of Europe.
Our ancestors might, perhaps, on some occasions, discover rather more anxiety about
preserving the balance of power in Europe than was necessary; but it has been well re-
marked, that the idea of considering Europe as a vast commonwealth, of the several parts
being distinct and separate, though politically and commercially united, of keeping them
independent, though unequal in power, and of preventing any one, by any means, from
becoming too powerful for the rest, was great and liberal, and, though the result of bar-
barism, was founded upon the most enlarged principles of the wisest policy. It appears
indeed to be owing to this system, that this small part of the western world has acquired so
astonishing a superiority over the rest of the globe. The fortune and glory of Greece
proceeded from a similar system of policy, though formed upon a smaller scale. Both
her fortune and glory expired with that system.

The revolution, which happened in this country on the 3d of May 1791, deservedly
engaged much of the public attention, as it established a free and apparently well ba-
lanced constitution in Poland, founded upon the genuine principles of liberty. The
evils of elective monarchy were indeed the chief cause that Poland had almost ceased to
be considered as a nation. The dynasty of future kings of Poland was to commence in
Frederic Augustus elector of Saxony, with the right of inheritance to his male descend-
ants; in case the present elector should have no male issue, a husband chosen by him
for his daughter, with the consent of the Polish representatives, shall begin the dynasty.
But after this boasted change, Poland would only have advanced to that degree of civili-
zation which other European countries enjoyed in the 13th century. Here hundreds
of citizens would have been free, here millions of peasants slaves; at the utmost, not
above five hundred thousand out of fifteen millions would have been free.

After a short and unequal struggle with Russia, this unhappy country has been forced
to abandon the new constitution. Although the king had joined most cordially in its
support as it seemed calculated to promote the happiness of his people, he had neglected
every means of defending the newly settled government. Neither the standing forces
of Poland was properly organized, nor the militia embodied. Not a magazine was
erected, not an entrenchment thrown up to oppose the entrance of the enemy. It was all a dead calm, and the Austrians appeared upon their frontiers before the diet had re-
covered from its surprise at the first hostile declaration of the empress. It was on the 21st of April that they received the first notification from the king, of the inimical and unjust intentions of Russia. The diet and nation rose as one man to maintain their in-
dependence. All private animosities were obliterated, all private interests were sacri-
ficed. On the 15th of May, the Russian ambassador delivered his declaration, which was immediately followed by the appearance of the Russian troops on the frontiers. Many obstinate engagements were fought, and the Poles bravely resisted the progress of the enemy. Notwithstanding their exertions, however, they were obliged gradually to retire before a more numerous and better disciplined army. Niesuz, Wilna, Minsk, and several other places of less consequence, fell into their hands one after an-
other.

The unequal contest was, however, prematurely terminated. The king, instead of putting himself, according to his first resolve, at the head of his army, surrendered at discretion. On the 24 of August a confederation was formed at Warsaw, whose acts were evidently the despotic dictates of Russia, and were calculated to restore ancient abuses, and to place the country under the aggravated oppression of a foreign yoke.

Meanwhile the king of Prussia, observing with how much facility the empress had seized part of the dominions of Poland, determined to join in the robbery. On the 6th of January he published a declaration, which was in a short time followed up by a body of troops. Thorn and Dantzick were in a very short time completely subjected to the Prussians, and a garrison of 1700 men was quartered upon the inhabitants. The further partition of this unfortunate country was now rapidly approaching. It was pre-
ceded by manifestoes from the combined potentates, all attempting to justify their pro-
ceedings. The Poles were now, however, driven almost to desperation by oppression. The peasants were compelled to lodge and board the Russian soldiers, and transport them from place to place, without receiving the least remuneration. Roused into ac-
tion by these excesses, general Kosciusko, early in February, appeared at the head of a considerable body of insurgents, attacked the Prussians, who had taken possession of their country, forced them to retreat, and pursued them to a considerable distance. During the summer a number of battles were fought with various success. Early in September the Russian grand army arrived in Poland, and on the 10th of October a dreadful engagement took place between the Russians under general Ferfen, and the troops under Kosciusko. The Russians advanced twice to the attack, but were repul-
sed by the Poles, who, not contented with the advantages they had gained, abandoned their favourable position on the heights, and pressed on to the attack in their turn. This movement threw the troops into confusion, and the Russians forming themselves anew, the rout soon became general. The battle, which began at seven in the morning, did not end till noon. Kosciusko flew from rank to rank, and was continually in the hot-
test part of the engagement, in the course of which he had three horses killed under him. At length he fell; and a Cossack, who did not know him in the peasant's dress, which he constantly wore, wounded him from behind with a lance. He recovered, and advanced a few steps, but was again knocked down by another Cossack, who was pre-
paring to give him a mortal blow, when his arm was stopped by a Russian officer, who is said to have been general Chronozaw, to whose wife Kosciusko had a short time be-
fore politely given leave of departure from Warsaw to join her husband. The unfor-
tunate Kosciusko implored the officer, if he wished to render him a service, to allow the soldier to put an end to his existence; but the latter chose rather to make him a prisoner. The Polish infantry defended themselves with bravery proportioned to that of their general, and fought with a degree of valour almost approaching to fury.

The Russians soon afterwards summoned Warsaw to surrender, and, on being refused, they proceeded on the 4th of November to attack the suburb of Prague. Suwarrow commanded his soldiers to mount to the assault in the same manner they had done at Ismael, over the dead bodies of their comrades and enemies. His further orders were, that they should fight only with the sabre and the bayonet. The Russians sprung to
the charge with almost inconceivable impetuosity. They eagerly began to climb the works, and the six Russian columns presented themselves at the same moment before the lines at Prague. Thus surrounded, the Polish generals found themselves unable to oppose with 10,000 soldiers, which was the whole of their force, the united attack of 50,000 men; and, to add to their distress, the fire which they immediately commenced, from the darkness of the night, was so ill directed as to pass over the heads of the assailants.

The cry raised by the successful columns penetrated to the entrenchments on the other side of the Vistula, and added to the consternation of the Poles engaged with the other part of the Russian force; and they endeavoured to find safety by retiring into Warsaw, over a bridge. In their retreat they were met by another body of Russians, and a dreadful carnage ensued, in which a great part of the garrison of Prague was miserably slaughtered. After a severe conflict of eight hours, the resistance on the part of the Poles ceased. Five thousand Poles were computed to have been slain in the assault, the remainder were either imprisoned or dispersed. The citizens were compelled to lay down their arms, and their houses were plundered by the merciless Russians, who, after the battle had ceased nearly ten hours, about nine o'clock at night set fire to the town, and again began to massacre the inhabitants. In this exigence count Potocki, the chief of the insurrection, proposed to treat with the Russians, and repaired to their head-quarters with propositions of peace, in the name of the republic. He was received with extreme haughtiness by Suwarrow, who intimated, that he should not treat with any insurgent, but only with such as, invested with legitimate authority, should come to speak in the name, and on the part of, his Polish majesty. Deputies were then dispatched from the magistracy of Warsaw to the Russian commander, who returned, after having been constrained to surrender the city at discretion, under the single condition of securing to the inhabitants their lives and property. The general insolently observed, that there was another article which without doubt they had forgotten to ask, but which he would accede to them, which was pardonne the past.

In consequence of this arrangement, the firing which had been kept up in the suburb of Prague ceased, and all the inhabitants of Warsaw were requested to surrender their arms. This was refused by the soldiers in the city, and their chief Wawrzecki, with many others of the supreme council, refused to take part in the capitulation. This impeded the close of the negotiation; but the military, who refused to lay down their arms, were allowed to leave Warsaw, not however without a declaration from Suwarrow that they might be sure of not escaping, and that, when taken, no quarter would be granted. On the morning of the 7th the supreme council, with the generallissimo Wawrzecki, remitted into the hands of the king the authority they had exercised. On the 9th the Russian general made his triumphal entry into Warsaw, in which the streets were lined with his troops, and the inhabitants, shut up in their houses, observed a melancholy silence. The chief magistrate delivered him the keys at the bridge of Prague, after which he received the compliments of the king, and on the 10th went with much pomp to the castle, to pay his respects to his majesty.

In the mean time the utmost attention was paid to the recovery of Kosciusko. He was afterwards sent to Petersburg, under a very powerful military escort, and was confined there till the death of Catharine II., when the late emperor, who on several occasions showed great liberality towards the persecuted Poles, set him at liberty, assigned him a pension, and allowed him his choice, either to return to his own country, or go to America. Kosciusko preferred the latter, and arrived safely in the asylum which he had chosen. On his way thither he passed through England, and was received with the warmest welcome and congratulation by all the friends of freedom.

On the 20th of December 1794, a courier arrived from the empress, demanding the arrestation of count Ignatius Potocki, and several of the other patriots, whom she ordered to be sent to Petersburg. The same messenger brought a command from the empress to the unhappy monarch of Poland to repair to Grodno, who, in obedience to the summons, set off from his capital on the 7th of January 1795.
The king was afterwards removed to Petersburg, where he had a palace and a suitable pension assigned him, and where he died February 11, 1793. With him ended the kingdom of Poland.

**HUNGARY.**

**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
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<tr>
<td>Length 320</td>
<td>between 16° and 35° East longitude.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Breadth 210</td>
<td>46° and 49° 30 North latitude.</td>
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Containing 59,500 square miles, with 105 inhabitants to each.

**NAME.** The name of Hungary has been usually derived from the Huns, who anciently possessed this country; but Mr. Gibbon finds its origin in that of the Ugri, or Ugurs, a Tartarian tribe, who migrated from the confines of China, and, after over-running almost the whole of Germany, established themselves in this country in the tenth century.

**BOUNDARIES.** Hungary Proper (for it formerly included Transylvania, Slavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries) is bounded on the north by Galicia; on the east by the Buckowine and Transylvania; on the south by Slavonia; and on the west by the circle of Austria and Moravia.

**DIVISIONS.** Hungary is divided into Upper and Lower Hungary, situate on opposite sides of the Danube. These are again each divided into two circles, which are sub-divided into 52 counties. Presburg is the metropolis of Lower, and Caschau of Upper Hungary.

The province of Temeswar has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has several times been in possession of the Turks; but the Austrians gaining possession of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1775. The province of Temeswar is 94 miles long, and 67 broad, containing about 3850 square miles. It has been divided into four districts, Csanad, Temeswar, Warschau, and Lugos. Temeswar, the principal town, is situate in E. lon. 22° 15', N. lat. 45° 54'.

**MOUNTAINS.** The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the principal, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their sides grow the richest grapes in the world.

**RIVERS.** These are the Danube, the Drave, the Sau, or Save, the Theisse, the Raab, and the Waag.

**LAKES, AND MINERAL WATERS.** Hungary contains several lakes, particularly the Platten, or the Platten Sea, about forty-six miles long and eight broad, and abounding with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed the most sovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raised by the Turks, when in possession of the country, particularly those of Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

**METALS AND MINERALS.** Hungary contains mines of gold, silver, copper, very rich antimony, coal, salt, and alum. The gold mines are at Creemnitz, about 40 miles to the south of the Carpathian mountains, and the silver at Shemnitz, about 20 miles further to the south. Several kinds of precious stones are found in Hungary, particularly that beautiful gem the opal, which has hitherto been discovered in no other country in the world.

**AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.** The climate of the southern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnant waters, and marshes.
but the northern parts being mountainous and barren, the air is sweet and wholesome. No country in the world can boast a richer soil, than that plain which extends 300 miles from Presburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, grass, esculent plants, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chestnuts, and wood: corn is in such plenty, that it sells for one sixth part of its price in England.

**Vegetable and Animal Productions.** Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horses, generally mouse-coloured, and highly esteemed by military officers, so that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams, in the neighbourhood of Presburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to those of any other country in Europe.

**Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, and Diversions.** It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary; and some of the descendants of their legionary forces are still to be distinguished in the inland parts, by their speaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got possession of Constantinople, we have reason to think that Hungary was one of the most populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe: and if the house of Austria should give the proper encouragement in the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become so again in about a century hence. Both Hungarians, at present, exclusive of Transylvania and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themselves. They pique themselves on being descended from those heroes, who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived as to buckle under the arm, so that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. The men shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms are a broad sword, and a kind of pole-ax, besides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria, and their sable dress with sleeves straight to their arms, and their stays fastened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and English ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur, and even sheep skin dresses. The ins on the roads are most miserable hoyels, and even those seldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peasants and their poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholesomeness of the air, are the predominant diseases in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other strangers settled in their country, the flatness of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diversions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the present century, were so jealous of their liberties, that rather than be tyrannised over by the house of Austria, they often put themselves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empress-queen, notwithstanding the provocations they received from her house, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeswar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at 450,000. There are in this country many faramons, or gypsies, supposed to be real descendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are said to resemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propensity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and customs; and it is asserted, that the lascivious dances of Isis, the worship of onions, many famous Egyptian superstitions and specifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are still in use among the female gypsies of Temeswar.

**Religion.** The established religion of the Hungarians is the Roman catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are protestants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exercise of their religious liberties.
ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Presburg, Gran, and Colocza. The bishoprics are, Great Waradin, Agria, Vesprin, Raab, and five churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Schavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is said to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemost rank speak German, and almost all even of the common people speak Latin, either pure or barbarous, so that the Latin may be said to be here still a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the universities, (if they can be properly so called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caschau, are professors of the several arts and sciences, who used generally to be Jesuits; so that the Lutherans, and Calvinists, who are more numerous than the Roman Catholics in Hungary, go to the German and other universities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURiosITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The artificial curiosities of this country consist of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Essick built over the Danube, and Drave, is, properly speaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain distances. It was an important pass during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Pest; and about twenty Hungarian miles distant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge erected by the Romans, judged to be the most magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to distinguish them from the like works in other countries.

One of the most remarkable natural curiosities of Hungary, is a cavern, in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the south, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its subterraneous passages consist entirely of solid rock, stretching away farther south than has yet been discovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth twenty-six. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article of great curiosity. Astonishing rocks are common in Hungary, and some of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER.] These are greatly decayed from their ancient magnificence; but many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg is fortuitous. In it the Hungarian regalia were kept; but were lately removed to Vienna, the crown was sent in the year 1000 by pope Sylvester II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of solid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with 53 sapphires, 50 rubies, one large emerald, and 536 pearls. Besides these stones, are the images of the apostles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a silver patriarchal cross, which was afterwards inserted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation a bishop carries it before the king. From the cross is derived the title of apostolic king; the use of which was renewed under the reign of the empress Maria Theresa. The sceptre and the globe of the kingdom are Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is said to be the work of Gisele, spouse to St Stephen, who, they say, embroidered in gold the image of Jesus Christ crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apostles, with a number of inscriptions. The sword is two edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its strength and fortifications; and the same may be said of Pest, which lies on the opposite side of the Danube. Raab is likewise a strong city, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is sufficient to say, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives consist of metals, drugs, and salt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians dislike the term of queen, and even called their late sovereign king Theresa. Their government preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which resembles our chancery, and which resides at Vienna; as the stadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the British privy-council, but has a munici-
pal jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate; and the Gеспan chaitls resemble our justices of the peace. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

**Military strength.** The emperor can bring to the field at any time 80,000 Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above 10,000; these are generally light-horse, and well known to modern times by the name of Hussars. They are not so large as the German horse; and therefore the Hussars stand upon their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness have been found so serviceable in war, that the greatest powers in Europe, have troops that go by the same name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the enemies they pretend to have killed: both horse and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a pursuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops, in a pitched battle.

**Coins.** Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are still extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete series of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

**Arms.** The emperor, as king of Hungary, for armorial ensigns, bears quarterly, barwise argent, and gules of eight pieces.

**History.** The Huns, after subduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were succeeded by the furious Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; they by the Avari; and the Slaves were planted in their stead in the beginning of the 9th century. At the close of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took possession of the country. Hungary was formerly an assemblage of different states, and the first who assumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 927; when he embraced Christianity. In his reign, the form of government was established, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces: but many of those conquests were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladislaus, bravely repulsed the Turks, when they invaded Hungary; and, upon the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in 1438 raised Matthias Corvinus, son of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting against Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle almost proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V., having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he succeeded, with some difficulty, and that kingdom has ever since belonged to the house of Austria, though by its constitution its crown ought to be elective. For the rest of the Hungarian history, see Germany.

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**Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, and Hungarian Dalmatia.**

These countries appear under one division, for several reasons, and particularly because we have no account sufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The best account of them is as follows: Transylvania belongs to the house of Austria, and is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the east by Moldavia and Wallachia; on the south by Wallachia; and on the west by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 26 degrees of east longitude, and 45 and 46 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 180, and its breadth 140 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 square miles, but is surrounded on all
sides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almost the same with those of Hungary. The air is wholesome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanstadt, and its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes. They owe not much more than a nominal subjection to the Austrians, who leave them in possession of most of their privileges, Papists, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other sectaries, here enjoy their several religions. Transylvania is thought to add but little to the Austrian revenue, though it exports some metals and salt to Hungary. The other large places are Sageswar, Millenback, and Newmark. All sorts of provisions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt is a large, strong, and well built city, as are Clesenburg and Weissenburg. The seat of government is at Hermanstadt, and the governor is assisted by a council made up of Roman Catholics, Calvinists, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by summons, and receives the commands of the sovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be subdued. It was overrun by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their descendants retain the same military character. The population of the country is not ascertained; but if the Transylvanians can bring to the field, as has been asserted, 80,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. At present its military force is reduced to six regiments of 1566 men each; but it is well known that during the last two wars, in which the house of Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians did great services. Hermanstadt is its only bishopric; and the Transylvanians at present seem to trouble themselves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman-catholic is the established church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Christianity there about the year 1000, and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vassal, or vicerey. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as also of Sclavonia, to the house of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppressions of the nobility, near 10,000 assembled, and committed great depredations on those whose conduct had been resented. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The revolters were disappointed in their attempt on Clesenburg, and afterwards offered to separate, and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. In the present situation of the Austrians, lenient terms have been granted to them, and with the punishment of a few, the insurrection was suppressed.

Sclavonia lies between the 17th and 21st degrees of east longitude, and the 55th and 46th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 square miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the east, by the Save on the south, and by Kiria in Austria on the west. The reason why Hungary, Transylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, subject to the house of Austria in those parts, contain a surprising variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into those quarters. The thickness of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the strength of the country, favoured their resistance; and their descendants, notwithstanding the power of the Turks, the Austrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, still retain the same spirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the sovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them most at liberty. That they are generous, as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the house of Austria, which, till the last two wars, never was sensible of their value and value; insomuch that it is well known, that they preserved the pragmatic sanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians for
merly gave so much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word slave took its original from them on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, so late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Slavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies in a great measure unimproved. The Slavonians, from their ignorance, perhaps, are zealous Roman Catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two bishoprics; that of Posega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. Esseck is a large and strong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marshes, five miles long, and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Austrians and Turks, and the inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzians, Croatians, Wallachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vast number of other people, whose names were never known even to the Austrians themselves, but from the military muster-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the last two wars. In 1746, Slavonia was united to Hungary, and the states send representatives to the diet of Hungary.

CROATIA lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length and 70 in breadth, and about 2,500 square miles. The manners, government, religion, language, and customs of the Croats, are similar to those of the Slavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as such are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours, and various other designations. The truth is, the house of Austria finds its interest in suffering them and the neighbouring nations to live in their own manner. The towns are blended with each other, there scarcely being any distinction of boundaries. Carolstadt is a place of some note, but Zagrab (already mentioned), is the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty exercised over them by the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing them occasionally into the field. A viceroy presides over Croatia, jointly with Slavonia, and

HUNGARIAN DALMATIA: This lies in the upper part of the Adriatic sea, and consists of five districts, in which the most remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and is situated near the sea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren soil. The bishop of this place is a suffragan to the archbishop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle. 2. Ottoschatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governor, and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall, and some towers: but the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uscoes, a people, who, being galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uscoes, from the word Scoco, which signifies a deserter. They are also called springers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are a rough, savage people, large bodied, courageous, and given to rape, but their visible employment is grazing. They use the Wallachian language, and in their religious sentiments and mode of worship approach nearest to the Greek church; but some of them are Roman Catholics.

A part of Wallachia belongs also to the emperor, as well as to the Turks, which lies to the east of Transylvania, and its principal towns are Tregonitz, Buccharest, and Severen.
PRUSSIAN DOMINIONS.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA PROPER.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 280</td>
<td>between 16° and 24° East longitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 240</td>
<td>51° and 55° North latitude.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NAME.] The name of Prussia is derived from the Slavonic word pos, near, and Russ; signifying the people who lived adjacent to or near the Russians.

BOUNDARIES.] The kingdom of Prussia is bounded on the north by the Baltic Sea, and Samogitia on the east, by Lithuania on the south, by Gallicia and Silesia, and on the west by Brandenburg and Pomerania.

DIVISIONS.] The general divisions of the kingdom of Prussia, with their extent and population, are as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>East Prussia, or Old East Prussia</td>
<td>12,050</td>
<td>940,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Prussia, with the district of Netz</td>
<td>10,100</td>
<td>521,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Prussia</td>
<td>15,000</td>
<td>1,100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New East Prussia</td>
<td>11,000</td>
<td>700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>48,150</td>
<td>3,261,630</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

West Prussia consists principally of the territory wrested from Poland in the year 1772; and South Prussia and New East Prussia, of the portion of the same country allotted to Prussia at its final division in 1795. The extent and population of South Prussia and New East Prussia, are not very accurately known.

METALS, MINERALS.] Prussia yields no metals, except a little iron ore: its peculiar and valuable mineral is amber, which is usually found at about the depth of 100 feet, and is often washed on shore by tempests. It is now generally supposed to be a vegetable production, mineralised by some unknown operation of nature.

RIVERS, CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel, the Netze, the Bro, and the Warte. The two canals called Frederic's canal, and the Bromberg canal, unite the Netze with the Vistula.

At the mouths of the rivers Vistula and Memel, singular havens, called by the Germans haffs, are formed by long narrow tracts of land. This tongue of land in the Frisch-haff, at the mouth of the Vistula, is 70 miles in length, and from three to ten broad. It is said to have been thrown up by tempests about the year 1190.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, FORESTS, LAKES.] The kingdom of Prussia is in general a level country: there are no mountains; but extensive forests, especially in the parts acquired from Poland.

Prussia abounds in lakes; the principal of which are the Sperling See, the Mauer See, and the Gneserich Lake. The first of these is 20 miles long and as many broad. In East Prussia, it is reckoned, there are 300 small lakes; and 160 in West Prussia.

ANIMALS.] The uri or bison, a kind of wild ox, and a species of beaver, are found here, as are also lynxes, bears, and foxes. The horses, cattle, and sheep, resemble those of the northern parts of Germany.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The climate of Prussia is more damp and raw, and the cold more lasting, than in Germany; but the air is salubrious, and the natives frequently attain to a considerable age. The soil is tolerable; and produces corn, flax, hemp, hops, tobacco, various kinds of fruits, and timber in abundance.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Königsberg, the capital of the kingdom of Prussia, is situate on an island formed by the river Pregel, over which it has seven bridges. This city is
seven miles in circumference, and contains 4,480 houses and above 50,000 inhabitants. It carries on an extensive trade, the river being navigable for ships of considerable burden. Besides its college or university, which contains 38 professors, it has magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange; as also a good harbour, and a citadel, which is called Fredericenburg, and is a regular square.

Warsaw, the late capital of Poland, now a Prussian city, is situate on the Vistula, partly in a plain and partly on a gentle ascent rising from the river. It contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, besides churches and convents. The streets are spacious, but ill paved; and the greatest part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a strong contrast of wealth and poverty, and has little or no commerce.

The number of inhabitants in 1787 was nearly 90,000, including the suburb of Praga. At present, after what the city, and especially that suburb, suffered from the siege and massacre by the Russian army in 1704, they are estimated at about 66,000.

Dantzig, formerly the capital of Polish Prussia, is famous in history on many accounts, particularly for being at the head of the Hanseatic association, commonly called the Hanse-towns. It is situate on the Vistula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city; its houses generally are five stories high; and many of the streets are planted with chestnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is still a very commercial city, although it is now on the decline in that respect. It formerly contained 80,000 inhabitants, but in the year 1793 they were diminished to 50,000. Dr Busingh affirms, that it appears, from ancient records, that as early as the year 997 Dantzig was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconsiderable town, as some pretend.

Marienwerder, the seat of the government of West Prussia, stands on the Vistula. The cathedral is the largest church in the kingdom of Prussia, being 320 feet long. It seems by its strong breastworks to have formerly served as a fortress. Here is also a castle and a spacious palace, built in the old Gothic style.

Elbing and Thorn are cities of considerable trade, and contain, the former about 16,000, and the latter 9,000 inhabitants. Posen, late a Polish city, the seat of the government of South Prussia, is the see of a catholic bishop, has a university, and contains 13 convents and 15,000 inhabitants.

Religion.] The religion of Prussia is very tolerant. The established religions are those of the Lutherans and Calvinists, but chiefly the former; but papists, antipapists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated.

Commerce and Manufactures.] The Prussian manufactures are not inconsiderable: they consist of glass, iron-work; paper, gunpowder, copper, and brass mills; manufactures of cloth, camlet, linen, silk stockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export a variety of naval stores, amber, linseed, and hemp-seed, oatmeal, fish, meal, tallow, and caviare; and it is said that 500 ships are loaded every year with those commodities, chiefly from Konigsberg.

Universities, Literature, Language.] The university of Konigsberg was founded in 1544; that of Frankfort on the Oder in 1516, by Joachim, elector of Brandenburg. To these are to be added the Polish university of Posen, which has now become subject to Prussia. There are many schools and seminaries of education in the kingdom of Prussia, but it has produced few men of eminent literary abilities.

The language of Prussia is the German; but in the territory lately acquired from Poland, the Polish, as may be expected, prevails.

National Character, Manners, Customs.] The character, manners, and customs, of the inhabitants of the old kingdom of Prussia, are nearly the same with those of their neighbours in the north of Germany. Those of the Poles have been already described in our account of Galicia.

Constitution and Government.] Before we proceed to speak of the government, army, revenue, &c. of Prussia, which have a reference to the whole of the Prussian dominions, it will be proper to present the reader with a statement of the countries and provinces of which those dominions are composed, with their extent and population respectively, as they now are, after the changes made by the cession to France of the
PRUSSIA PROPER.

475

Prussian territory on the left bank of the Rhine, and the appropriation of the indemnities assigned in compensation for such cession. These, according to the latest and most authentic accounts, are as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kingdom of Prussia, including the late acquisitions from Poland, according to the divisions above given</th>
<th>Sq. miles.</th>
<th>Population.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[Prussian Pomerania]</td>
<td>48,150</td>
<td>3,261,630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Electorate of Brandenburg]</td>
<td>7,200</td>
<td>540,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Part of counties of Mansfeld and Hohenstein]</td>
<td>10,672</td>
<td>1,200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Abbey of Quedlinburg</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>35,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Town and territory of Erfurt, and the Eichsfeld</td>
<td>810</td>
<td>110,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Duchy of Magdeburg]</td>
<td>1,152</td>
<td>290,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Principality of Halberstadt]</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Principality, late bishopric, of Hildesheim</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>90,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Late imperial cities of Muhlenhausen, Nordhausen, Goslar</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>31,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Principality of East Friesland]</td>
<td>864</td>
<td>120,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Principality of Minden]</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Part of duchy of Cleve]</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>55,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[County of Mark]</td>
<td>816</td>
<td>124,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Counties of Lingen and Tecklenburg]</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>45,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[County of Ravensberg]</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>85,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Principality, late bishopric, of Paderborn</td>
<td>689</td>
<td>120,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Principality of Munster, containing the city and greater part of the late bishopric</td>
<td>1,360</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>* Towns and territory late belonging to the abbeys of Herford</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Essen]</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Werden]</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Elten]</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Principality of Bayreuth or Culmbach]</td>
<td>1,200</td>
<td>220,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Principality of Anspach or Onolzbach]</td>
<td>1,120</td>
<td>275,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Prussian Silesia and the county of Glatz]</td>
<td>11,616</td>
<td>1,890,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Switzerland.—Principality of Neufchatel or Neuenburg, and the county of Valengin]</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>45,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>88,980</td>
<td>9,015,130</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N. B. The territories marked with an asterisk, are those given to Prussia by the plan of indemnities carried into effect in 1803.

Constitution and Government.] His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state; viz. 1. The great master; 2. The great burggrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also some other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Besides these institutions, Frederic II. erected a board for commerce and navigation.

Army.] The Prussian army, even in time of peace, consists of about 220,000, including 40,000 cavalry, of the best disciplined troops in the world; and during the seven years war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconsistent with the interests of the people. The army is chiefly composed of provincial regiments—the whole Prussian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the size and populousness of the division, have been originally raised, and from it the recruits continue to be taken; and each particular regiment is always quartered, in time of peace, near the canton from
which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of sons a peasant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the service, except one, who is left to assist in the management of the farm. The rest wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are destined to be soldiers, and obliged to enter into the service whenever they are called upon. The maintaining so large an army, in a country naturally so little equal to it, occasioned, however, such a drain from population, and such a withdrawing of strength from the labours of the earth, that Frederic II. endeavoured in some degree to save his own peasantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. These-foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Prussians have every year some months of furlough, during which they return to the houses of their fathers or brothers, and work at the business of the farm, or in any other way they please.

Revenue.) The revenue of the Prussian monarchy, before the additions made to it by the last division of Poland, and the changes occasioned by carrying into effect the late plan of indemnities, was estimated at 3,879,000l. sterling, of which

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Sterling</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prussia</td>
<td>816,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brandenburg</td>
<td>1,050,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Silesia</td>
<td>937,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pomerania</td>
<td>350,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madgeburg and Halberstadt</td>
<td>241,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Westphalia</td>
<td>483,300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total...3,879,000

It is probable that it now amounts to considerably above four millions; for though the entire revenue of Poland was not computed to exceed 439,546l. sterling, it would not be surprising if the Prussian government were to find means to raise a still greater sum from its share of that kingdom only, since Austria obtains from Galicia nearly to the amount of one million sterling.

This revenue arises from the contributions, domains, salt-works, excise, posts, tolls, and various taxes and duties. The duty on amber alone is said to produce above 26,000 dollars annually.

There is no state debt, and the exchequer is very rich, in consequence of the economical regulations of Frederic II.; who, notwithstanding, in the last years of his reign, expended annually, in the improvement of his dominions, to the amount of 525,000l. sterling; and between the years 1763 and 1788, 3,500,000l.

Orders of Knighthood.] There are six orders of knighthood: the "Order of Concord," instituted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Prussia, instituted, in 1685, the "Order of Generosity." The knights wear a cross of eight points, enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "La Générosité," pendant to a blue ribbon. The same prince instituted the "Order of the Black Eagle," on the day of his coronation at Konigsberg, in the year 1700: the sovereign is always grand-master; and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who must also be admitted into the "Order of Generosity," previous to their receiving this, unless they be sovereign princes. The badge is an eight-cornered golden blue enamelled cross, in the middle of which is the name of the sovereign, and on the edges are four black spread-eagles. It is worn suspended from a broad orange coloured ribbon which passes from the left to the right. The knights wear on the left side of their coats a silver star, in the middle of which is a black eagle, with the motto Swum Cuique. The "Order of Merit" was instituted by Frederic II. in the year 1740, to reward the merit of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction of birth, religion, or country. The king is sovereign, and the number of knights unlimited. Frederic II. likewise instituted the orders of "St Stephen" and "St John;" the former in 1754, the latter in 1756.
Arms.} The royal arms of Prussia are, argent, an eagle displayed sable, crowned or, for Prussia. Azure, the imperial sceptre or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed gules, with semicircular wreaths, for the marquisate of Brandenburg. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

History.} The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The early inhabitants, a brave and warlike people, descended from the Scythian, refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Christianity, endeavoured to subject them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleslaus IV, was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and pagans, till the time of the crusades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their conversion by the edge of the sword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country when conquered. A long series of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Prussia were almost exterminated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the most incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After a vast waste of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order and Casimir IV, king of Poland, who had undertaken the cause of the oppressed people; by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province, under the king’s protection; and that the knights and the grand-master should possess the other part, acknowledging themselves vassals of Poland. This gave rise to fresh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unsuccessfully, to throw off their vassalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the last grand-master of the Teutonic order, laid aside the habit of his order, embraced Lutheranism, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the east part of Prussia (formerly called, for that reason, Ducal Prussia,) but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to descend to his male heirs; and, upon failure of his male issue, to his brother and his male-heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted nearly 300 years. In 1657, the elector Fredrick-William of Brandenburg, deservedly called the Great, had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him; and, by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by John Casimir king of Poland, from vassalage; and he and his descendants were declared independent and sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

As the protestant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that persuasion, the protestant interest favoured them so much, that Fredrick, the son of Fredrick-William the Great, was raised to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states, proclaimed January 15th 1701, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, Fredrick II., in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this first king’s talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Fredrick-William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of strong natural abilities, and considerably increased the revenues of his country, but too often at the expence of humanity. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left seven millions sterling in his treasury, which enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful resources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the age. He improved the arts of peace as well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, philosopher, and legislator. Some of the principal transactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the history of Germany. In the year 1783 he published a rescript signifying his pleasure that no kneeling should in future be practised in honour of his person, assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the Divinity; and near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him, in 1782, in draining marshes, establishing factories, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy.

The late King of Prussia, who succeeded his uncle, August 17, 1786, made many salutary regulations for his subjects, and established a court of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of duelling in his dominions.
The exertions of Prussia against France, till the treaty of peace concluded between those two powers on the 5th of April 1795, have been already related in our account of France.

Frederic-William II.* died at Berlin, of a dropsy, November 16, 1797, and was succeeded by his son, Frederic-William III., the present sovereign. His reign has hitherto been pacific, and he has maintained an amicable connexion with France, amid all the changes of government in that country.


Frederic-William, born October 15. 1795.

Frederic-William-Louis, born March 22. 1797.


Charles-Frederic-Alexander, born June 29. 1801.

Queen Dowager—Frederica-Louisa, daughter of the landgrave Louis IX. of Hesse Darmstadt, born October 16. 1751.

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SILESIA.

Silesia is situate between 49° 30' and 52° 20' of north latitude, and 15 and 19 degrees of east longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Mark of Brandenburg and Lusatia, on the east by Galicia and South Prussia, on the south by Hungary and Moravia, and on the west by Moravia, Bohemia, and Lusatia. It belongs to Prussia, except a small part of Upper or Southern Silesia. The Prussian part contains 10,960 square miles, and 1,816,000 inhabitants. Since the division of Poland in 1795, a part of that country, in extent about 656 square miles, has been incorporated with it, and placed under the same government. The Austrian part contains 1296 square miles, and 280,000 inhabitants.

Silesia is divided into Lower and Upper Silesia. The former is again sub-divided into the seven principalities of Breslau, Brie, Schwiednitz, Jauer, Liegnitz, Wholau, and Glogau, immediately subject to the Prussian monarch, besides some other principalities and lordships not immediately subject; and the latter into the three immediate principalities of Munsterberg, Oppeln, and Ratibor, besides some mediate principalities and inferior lordships. The Austrian part of Silesia, at the extremity of Upper Silesia, is divided into the two circles of Jagerndorf and Teschen.

The Sudetic chain of mountains divide this country from Bohemia. The Elbe and the Oder have their sources among these mountains; the latter of which flows through the country, dividing it nearly into two equal parts. Besides these, the principal rivers are the Vistula, the Niesse, the Bober, the Oppa, the Quies, and the Elsa. The mountainous parts contain mines of gold and silver, but they are not worked; they also produce copper, lead, iron, sulphur, salt-petre, alum, and vitriol. The soil in the vicinity of South Prussia and Lusatia is not very productive; but this deficiency is compensated by the fertility of the other and larger parts of Silesia, which produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, maize, buck-wheat, linseed, peas, beans, hops, and madder. In the mountains of Upper Silesia, tar, pitch, and resin, are made from the pine and fir; and the larch-trees yield turpentine. The breed of sheep here is said to be very profitable, on account of the excellency of their wool. The wild animals of this country are lynxes, which frequent only the mountainous parts; a few bears and wolves; and

* In enumerating the kings of Prussia, we have thought it most proper to follow the method used in Prussia, and throughout Germany, where the Frederics are distinguished from the Frederic-Wiliams: thus the uncle of the late king, and the late king, frequently here styled Frederic III. and Frederic IV., are always called, on the continent, Frederic II., and Frederic-William II.; the father of the former not being styled Frederic II., but Frederic-William I.
foxes, weasels, otters, and beavers; but the latter in no great number. In the Oder are caught salmon and sturgeon, the latter of which are sometimes extremely large; as also skate and lampreys. The other rivers, but especially the lakes and ponds, abound in various kinds of fish.

Silesia is said to contain 190 cities and towns, and 4000 villages. The capital is Breslau, situate at the confluence of the Oder and the small river Ohlau, which last runs through several of the streets. It is a large well-built fortified city, containing 3200 houses, and upwards of 60,000 inhabitants, one-third of whom are catholics, and nine-tenths of the other two-thirds Lutherans; yet the protestants have only nine churches, while the catholics have twenty-six, many of which are, however, cloisters. Breslau is the see of a catholic bishop, whose ecclesiastical jurisdiction extends over the whole of Silesia. The cathedral was founded about the year 1150, and contains several magnificent chapels, which have been added to the body of the church by different former bishops. The principal of the protestant churches is the Lutheran church of St Elizabeth. In the library belonging to this church is what may be considered as a curious manuscript: to the naked eye it appears to be a drawing with a pen of the Venus de Medicis, upon a half-sheet of folio paper; but on examining it with a magnifying glass, it is found to be a copy of Ovid's Art of Love, perfectly legible, and the whole five books within a compass of ten inches in length, and three in width. Breslau has an university, which was founded in 1702, by the emperor Leopold.

Troppau, considered as the capital of Austrian or Bohemian Silesia, because it is the seat of the Austrian administration of that province, is situate on the Oppa: it has a castle, and contains about 3000 inhabitants. Teschen, the other principal town in the Austrian part, situate on the Elsa, contains about 5000 inhabitants.

Schweidnitz is a large and handsomely built town, which, since it has become subject to Prussia, has been rendered a very strong place. It contains upwards of 6000 inhabitants, about one fourth of whom are catholics, and claims the intolerant and disgraceful privilege of suffering no Jews within its walls. Brieg it likewise a large well-built town, and nearly as populous as Schweidnitz.

The principal manufactures of Silesia are those of thread, twine, linen, flax, and damask: the chief exports are madder, mill-stones, thread, yarn, linen and woollen cloth. Since Silesia has fallen under the dominion of the kings of Prussia, commerce has been considerably improved, and many excellent regulations have been made for that purpose.

Silesia was anciently inhabited by the Suevi, a Teutonic nation. In the seventh century the Scavonians made themselves masters of the country. They embraced Christianity in the ninth century. Silesia was afterwards united with Poland, and acknowledged the Polish dukes and kings as its sovereigns. In the fourteenth century the Silesian princes rendered themselves independent of Poland, and the whole of the duchy became subject to the kings of Bohemia. On the death of the emperor Charles VI., in the year 1740, Frederic II. King of Prussia laid claim to certain principalities of Silesia, and supported his claim so powerfully by his arms, that Lower, and the greater part of Upper Silesia, with the county of Glatz, were ceded to him by the treaty of Breslau, and have ever since remained subject to Prussia.

The German language is generally spoken in Silesia, and the speaking of French is considered as an affectation.

The county of Glatz is situate between Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, and is about 40 miles in length, and 25 in breadth. It is surrounded on all sides by mountains, which contain mines of coal, copper, and iron, and quarries of stone and marble. It has excellent pastures, which feed great numbers of cattle. Glatz, the principal town, is a strongly fortified place, containing within the walls about 400 houses, and as many more in four suburbs. The number of inhabitants is about 9000. The town carries on a considerable trade,
# SWITZERLAND.

**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 230</td>
<td>6 and 11 East longitude,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 120</td>
<td>46 and 48 North latitude.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Containing 13,260 square miles, with 130 inhabitants to each *.

**NAME.** SWITZERLAND was considered by the Romans as a part of Gaul, and inhabited by the Helvetii on the west, and the Rhaeti on the east. The modern name of Switzerland, or Swisseland, seems to be derived from that of the canton of Schweitz, one of the earliest in forming the league by which the liberty of the country was asserted against the dukes of Austria. After the late revolution in its government, effected by the influence and arms of France, it took the name of the Helvetic Republic.

**BOUNDARIES.** It is bounded on the north by the circle of Swabia in Germany, on the east by Tyrol, on the south by the Italian republic, and by France, and on the west by France, from which it is separated by Mount Jura.


Besides these there were certain districts and towns which were the subjects of the cantons, and some small states who were their allies. The extent and population of the cantons, and of their subjects and allies were as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cantons</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bern</td>
<td>Bern</td>
<td>3840</td>
<td>350,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zurich</td>
<td>Zurich</td>
<td>752</td>
<td>175,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lucern</td>
<td>Lucern</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uri</td>
<td>Altorf</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>25,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Freyburg</td>
<td>Freyburg</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>73,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glaris</td>
<td>Glaris</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schweitz</td>
<td>Schweitz</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>28,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soleure or Solothurn</td>
<td>Soleure</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>45,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appenzel</td>
<td>Appenzel</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>54,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unterwalden</td>
<td>Stanz</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>18,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basil</td>
<td>Basil</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>38,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schaffhausen</td>
<td>Schaffhausen</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zug</td>
<td>Zug</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>12,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The subjects of the Swiss, consisting of the bailiwicks, free districts, towns of Bremgarten, Mel-lingen, &c. 1888 348,000

* Switzerland, before the late revolution, was computed to contain 14,960 square miles, and about two millions of inhabitants; but the French having seized and annexed to France the city and territory of Geneva, the bishopric of Basel, (or, as the French write it, Basle), and the towns and districts of Biel or Bienne, and Mulhausen; and also made the Valteilin, and the lordships of Worms, and Cla-ffen or Cleve, a part of the new Italian republic, the extent of Switzerland is reduced as above. As likewise the republic of the Valsis, and the principality of Neuchatel, are now rendered entirely independent of the Swiss government, these, perhaps, ought also to be deducted; in which case we shall have for the extent of Switzerland only 11,600 square miles, with 1,582,000 inhabitants.
SWITZERLAND.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cantons</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Brought forward</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9,664</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,315,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The allies, viz. the republic of Geneva, the Grisons, the Valais, town of Mühlenhausen, principality of Neufchatel, &amp;c.</td>
<td>5,296</td>
<td>551,000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14,960</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,866,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Under the present constitution and government of Switzerland, the country, exclusive of the republic of Valais, and the territory of Neufchatel, is divided into 19 cantons, the extent and population of which are estimated as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cantons</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aargau</td>
<td>Aargau</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Appenzel</td>
<td>Appenzel</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Basil</td>
<td>Basil</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Bern</td>
<td>Bern</td>
<td>1,920</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Freyburg</td>
<td>Freyburg</td>
<td>576</td>
<td>70,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Glaris.</td>
<td>Glaris</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>24,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Grisons</td>
<td>Chur or Coire</td>
<td>2,240</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Leman, or Pays-de-Vaud</td>
<td>Lausanne</td>
<td>1,280</td>
<td>136,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Lucern</td>
<td>Lucern</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 St Gall</td>
<td>St Gall</td>
<td>704</td>
<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Schoffhausen</td>
<td>Schoffhausen</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>30,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Schweitz</td>
<td>Schweitz</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>32,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Soleure</td>
<td>Soleure</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Tessin</td>
<td>Bellinzona</td>
<td>720</td>
<td>166,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Thurgau</td>
<td>Frauenfeld</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>75,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Unterwalden</td>
<td>Stanz</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Uri</td>
<td>Altorf</td>
<td>464</td>
<td>20,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 Zug</td>
<td>Zug</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>15,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 Zurich</td>
<td>Zurich</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The republic of Valais</td>
<td>Sitten or Sion</td>
<td>1,360</td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principality of Neufchatel, or Neuenburg, and the county of Valengin</td>
<td>Neufchatel</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>45,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13,260</td>
<td></td>
<td>1,727,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps (which form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles), the frosts are consequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with snow sometimes all the year long. In summer the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The valleys, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful than the summer months in this charming country. It is subject to rains and tempests; for which reason public granaries are every where erected to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

There is perhaps, no country in the world wherein the advantageous effects of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts thereof, the traveller is struck with admiration to observe rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with...
rich pasture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of precipices so steep, that a horse could not even mount them without great difficulty. In short, the inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction which soil, situation, and climate had thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country, which nature seemed to have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits, are covered with vineyards, corn fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren and inaccessible rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow or ice. The vallies between these icy and snowy mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes, and from them vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some parts, there is no regular gradation from extreme wildness to high cultivation; in others the transitions are very abrupt, and very striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and studded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, pastures which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and snow. "Behold our walls and bulwarks!" exclaimed a Swiss peasant, pointing to the mountains; "Constantinople is not so strongly fortified." In short, Switzerland abounds with the most picturesque scenes; and here are to be found some of the most sublime exhibitions of nature, in her most awful and tremendous forms, and in those stupendous Alpss, " whose heads touch heaven."

Glaciers.] No subject in natural history is more curious than the origin of these glaciers, which are immense fields of ice, and usually rest on an inclined plain; being pushed forwards by the pressure of their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are intersected by large transverse crevices; and present the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantastic shapes, observed at all heights and in all situations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr. Coxe describes the method of travelling over these glaciers. "We had each of us a long pole spiked with iron, and in order to secure us as much as possible from slipping, the guides fastened to our shoes crampons or small bars of iron; provided with four small spikes of the same metal. At other times, instead of crampons, we had large nails in our shoes, which more effectually answered our purpose. The difficulty of crossing these vallies of ice, arises from the immense chasms. We rolled down large stones into several of them; and the great length of time before they reached the bottom, gave us some conception of their depth; our guides assured us, that in some places they are not less than five hundred feet deep. I can no otherwise convey to you an image of this body of ice, broken into irregular ridges and deep chasms, than by comparing it to a lake instantaneously frozen in the midst of a violent storm. "In speaking of an unsuccessful attempt of some gentlemen to reach the summit of Mont Blanc, he presents to his readers a most horrid image of the danger of these chasms. "As they were returning in great haste, (owing to the day being far advanced) one of the party slipped in attempting to leap over a chasm of ice. He held in his hand a long pole, spiked with iron, which he struck into the ice; and upon this he hung dreadfully suspended for a few moments, until he was released by his companions."

Vegetable and Animal Productions.] Switzerland produces sheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and chestnuts, the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and most of the cantons abound in timber. Besides game, fish and fowl, are also found; in some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin, and the chamois, whose activity in scurrying along the steep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both these animals is so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are subject to pleurisies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. The flesh of the chamois is esteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewise found a species of hares, which in summer is said perfectly to resemble other hares, but in winter becomes all over white, so that they are scarcely distinguishable among the snow. But this idea hath been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the
two species ever couple together. The white hare seldom quits his rocky residence. Here are also yellow and white foxes, which in winter sometimes come down into the valleys.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which rises in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gotthard, the Aar, the Reuss, the Tesin, the Oglio, and the Rhone.—The lakes are those of Geneva, Constance, Thun, Lucerne, Zürich, Biel, and Brien.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters.

MOUNTAINS.] In this mountainous country, where nature is all upon a grand scale, Mont Blanc is particularly distinguished from other mountains, by having its summits and sides clothed to a considerable depth with a mantle of snow, almost without the intervention of the least rock to break the glare of the white appearance. According to the calculation of Mr. De Luc, (by whose improvement of the barometer elevations are taken with a degree of accuracy before unattainable), the height of this mountain above the level of the sea is 2,391¼ French toises, or 15,304 English feet, or, according to sir George Shuckborough, 15,662 feet, which gives a difference of only 358 feet. The Peak of Teneriff and Ætna have been frequently supposed to be the highest points of the globe, but, from the most accurate observations, it will be found that Mont Blanc is of much more considerable elevation, and that there are no mountains (except those in America, particularly Chimboraco, the highest point of the Cordilleras, the elevation of which according to Condamine, surpasses 3,000 toises, or 19,200 feet, but according to others, 20,608 feet), which are equal to the altitude of Mont Blanc.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the best accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, industrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, together with an invincible spirit of freedom, are the most distinguishing characteristics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. A very striking proof of the simplicity and openness of manners of this people, and of astonishing confidence, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who says, upon the authority of general Psiffer, that, on each side of the road, that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, there are several ranges of small shops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked; any passengers who wish to become purchasers, enter the shops, take away the merchandise, and deposit the price, which the owners call for in the evening. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even among many of the lowest rank; and a genuine and unarbitrary good breeding is extremely conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but observe the air of content and satisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanliness of the houses, and of the people, is peculiarly striking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be traced, which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppressions of despotic government. Even the Swiss cottages convey theliveliest image of cleanliness, ease, and simplicity, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most pleasing conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or two of fine pasture-ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland; and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occasions. Silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head-dresses of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited; and in other games, the party which loses above six florins, which is about nine shillings of our money, incurs a considerable fine. Their diversions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not wasted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leisure.

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hours in reading, to the great improvement of their understandings. The youth are
diligently trained to all the martial exercises, such as running, wrestling, throwing the
hammer, and shooting both with the cross bow and the musket.*

GOITERS AND IDIOTS.] The inhabitants in one part of this country, particularly
in the republic of Vallais, are very much subject to goiters, or large excrescences of flesh
that grow from the throat, and often increase to a most enormous size; but what is more
extraordinary, idiotism also remarkably abounds among them. "I saw," says Mr Cox, "many instances of both kinds, as I passed through Sion: some idiots were basking in
the sun with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the most af-
flicting spectacle of intellectual imbecillity that can possibly be conceived. The causes
which produce a frequency of these phenomena in this country form a very curious question.

The notion that snow water occasions these excrescences is totally void of foundation.
For on that supposition, why are the natives of those places that lie most contiguous
to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what descends from those immense
reservoirs of ice and snow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of those
countries in which there is snow, afflicted with it? For these guttural tumours are to be
found in the environs of Naples, in the island of Sumatra, and at Patna and Purnea
in the east Indies, where snow is unknown.

The springs, that supply drink to the natives, are impregnated with a calcareous
matter, called in Switzerland inf; nearly similar to the incrustations of matlock, in Der-
byshire, so minutely dissolved as not in the least to affect the transparency of the water.
It is not improbable, that the impalpable particles of this substance, thus dissolved,
should introduce themselves into the glands of the throat, and produce goiters, for the
following reasons: because inf, or this calcareous deposition, abounds in all those dis-
tricts where goiters are common. There are goitrous persons and much inf in Derby-
shire, in different parts of the Vallais, in the Valteline, at Lucerne, Fribourgh, and
Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in several places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dresden, in
the valleys of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. But the strongest proof
in favour of this opinion, says our author, is derived from the following facts. A sur-
geon whom I met at the baths of Leuk, informed me that he had not unfrequently ex-
ttracted concretions of inf-stone from several goiters; and that from one in particular,
which suppurred, he had taken several flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He
added that the same substance is found in the stomach of cows, and in the goitrous tu-
mors to which even the dogs of the country are subject. He had diminished and cured
the goiters of many young persons by emollient liquors, and external applications; and
prevented them in future, by removing his patients from the place where the springs are
impregnated with inf; and, if that could not be contrived, by forbidding the use of
water which was not purified.

Children are occasionally born with guttural swellings, but this may arise from the
ailment of the mother. It is, to be presumed, that a people accustomed to these ex-
crescences, will not be shocked at their deformity; but it does not appear, as some
writers assert, that they consider them as beauties. To judge from the account of many
travellers, it might be supposed that the natives, without exception, were either idiots
or goitrous; whereas, in fact, the Vallaisans in general are a robust race; and all that
with truth can be affirmed is, that goitrous persons and idiots are more abundant in
some districts of the Vallais, than perhaps in any other part of the globe. It has been
asserted that the people very much respect these idiots, and even consider them as blickings from heaven. The common people, it is certain, esteem them so, for they
call them "souls of God without sin;" and many parents prefer these idiot children to
those whose understandings are perfect, because, as they are incapable of intentional
criminality, they consider them as certain of happiness in a future state. Nor is this
opinion entirely without its good effect, as it disposes the parents to pay greater atten-
tion to such helpless beings. These idiots are suffered to marry, as well among them-
seas as with others.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiss cantons form but one political republic, yet they
are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Those

* This interesting description applies to Switzerland, previous to the late conquest of it by the
French: The scene is now miserably changed.
differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which seem now to have subsided. Zuunglius was the apostle of protestantism in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few speculative points; so that Calvinism may be said to be the religion of the protestant Swiss. But this must be understood chiefly with respect to the mode of the church government; for in some doctrinal points they are far from being universally Calvinistical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the interests of civil liberty, their sentiments on the subject of religious toleration are in general much less liberal.

Universities.] The university of Basel, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious physic-garden, which contains the choicest exotics; and adjoining to the library, which contains some valuable manuscripts, is a museum well furnished with natural and artificial curiosities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Erasmus and Ambach, which also belong to this university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, representing a dead Christ, a thousand ducats have been offered. The other universities, which indeed are commonly only styled colleges, are those of Bern, Lausanne, and Zürich.

Language.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the most common is German. The Swiss who border upon France speak a bastard French, as those near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

Learning and Learned men.] Calvin, whose name is so well known in all protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high esteem by the most learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent Rousseau, too, whose works the present age have received with so much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau gave a force to the French language which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a prose writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the Devin de Village, in particular, is much esteemed. M. Bonnet, and Messrs de Saussure and De Lec, also deserve to be mentioned with applause, and will be remembered till the Alps shall be no more.

Antiquities and curiosities, natural and artificial.] Every district of a canton in this mountaineous country presents the traveller with a natural curiosity, sometimes in the shape of wild but beautiful prospects, interspersed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, especially one, two leagues from Fribourg. This was formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greatest curiosity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour 25 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, ceiling, all cut out of the rock.

At Shaffhausen is a very extraordinary bridge over the Rhine, justly admired for the singularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already destroyed several stone bridges of the strongest construction, when a carpenter of Appenzel offered to throw a wooden bridge, of a single arch, across the river, which is near four hundred feet wide. The magistrates, however, required that it should consist of two arches, and that he should for that purpose employ the middle pier of the old bridge. Accordingly the architect was obliged to obey; but he has contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge is supported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally as safe as if formed solely of one arch. The sides and top are covered, and it is what the Germans call a hangewob, or hanging bridge; the road, which is almost level, is not carried, as usual, over the top of the arch; but, if the expression may be allowed, is let into the middle of it, and there suspended. A man of the slightest weight feels it almost tremble under him, yet waggons heavily laden pass over without danger. It has been compared to a tight rope, which trembles when struck, but still preserves its firm and equal tension. On considering the greatness of the plan, and the boldness of the construction, it is a matter of astonishment that the architect was originally a carpenter, without the least tincture of literature, totally ignorant of mathematics, and not versed in the theory of mechanics. His name

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was Ulric Grubenman. The bridge was finished in less than three years, and cost about 8000L. sterling.

At the famous pass of Pierre Pertuis, the road is carried through a solid rock, near 50 feet thick, the height of the arch is 26, and its breadth 25. The marchasties, false diamonds, and other stones, found in those mountains, are justly ranked among the natural curiosities of the country. The ruins of Caesar’s wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of Lake Leman, are still discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of Jesuits, and many cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds. At Lucerne (says Mr Coxe) is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, by general Paiffer, a native of this town, and an officer in the French service. It is a model in relief, and well deserves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finished in 1776 comprised about 60 square leagues, in the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, Berne, Uri, Schweiz, and Underwalden. The model was twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The composition is principally a mastic of charcoal, lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is so hard as to be trod upon without receiving the least damage. The whole is painted with different colours, representing the objects as they exist in nature. It is worthy of particular observation, that not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees, are distinguished, but also that strata of the several rocks are marked, each being shaped upon the spot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous stone, or such other natural substances as compose the original mountains. The plan is indeed so minutely exact, that it comprises not only all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and forests, but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and every path, is distinctly and accurately represented. The general takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to Mr de Saussure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a sublime picture of immense Alps piled one upon another, as if the story of the Titans were realised, and they had succeeded (at least in one spot of the globe) in heaping Ossa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Ossa. From the account of this officer, it appears that there are continued chains of mountains of the same elevation, rising in progression to the highest range, and from thence gradually descending in the same proportion to Italy. Near Roni~iere, is a famous spring which rises in the midst of a natural basin of twelve square feet—the force that acts upon it must be prodigious. After a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man’s thigh, nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies, its surface is clear as crystal, and in depth unfathomable, probably it is the end of some subterraneous lake, that hath here found an issue for its waters.

Commerce and Manufactures.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, ribbands, silk, and painted cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, to fabricate silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in these manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a prospect of being able soon to make considerable exports.

Cities.] Of the most considerable is the city of Bern, standing on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is said, forms almost a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occasion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arsenals, bridges, and public edifices. Basil is accounted by some the capital of all Switzerland. It is situated in a fertile and delight-ful country, on the bank of the Rhine, and the confines of Alsace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty streets, and six market places. The town-house, which stands on the river Birse, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The situation of Basil is pleasing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity
and baths. Zurich is far less considerable than Berne, but in the arsenal is shewn the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the library is a manuscript of excellent letters, written by the unfortunate lady Jane Grey, to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German.

To prevent a repetition, I shall here mention the city of Geneva, which is an associate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itself an independent state and republic. This city is well built and well fortified, and contains 24,000 inhabitants, most of whom are Calvinists. It is situated upon the affluent of the Rhone, from the large fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the professors of its university, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeness of its inhabitants. By its situation, it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artists; so that the protestants, especially such as are of a liberal turn, esteem it a most delightful place. — But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the usurpation of the senate, hath divided the citizens into parties; and the late struggle of the patricians and plebians had nearly ruined all. Many of its valuable citizens have accordingly left the place, and sought refuge and protection in Ireland, and elsewhere.

**Constitution and Government.** These are very complicated heads, belonging to the same body, being partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction, but those of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are aristocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne excepted. Those of Uri, Schwitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Basil, though it has the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even these aristocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them, the real interests of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotic governments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itself to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented on the basis of affection a system of mutual defence.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehends three divisions. The first are the Swisses, properly so called. The second are the Grisons, or the states confederated with the Swisses, for their common protection. The third are those prefectures, which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserve each its own particular magistrates. Every canton forms within itself a little republic; but when any controversy arises that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St Gall, and the cities of St Gall and Bieon. It is observed by Mr Coxe, to whom the public have been indebted for the best account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happiness and content more universally prevail among the people. For whether the government be aristocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general spirit of liberty pervades and actuates the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchical states (which of all others are usually the most tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal divisions of their fortunes among the children, seem to ensure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are all collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little have the Swiss of late years been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that since the firm and complete establishment of their general confederacy, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ arms against a foreign enemy, and have had no hostile commotions among themselves, that were not very soon happily terminated.

**Military Strength.** The internal strength of the Swiss cantons, independent of the militia, consists of 13,400 men, raised according to the population and abilities of each. The economy and wisdom with which this force is raised and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keep-
ing up that great body of militia, from which foreign princes and states are supplied, so as to benefit the state, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peasant, and subject, is obliged to exercise himself in the use of arms; appear on the stated days for shooting at the mark; furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder, and ball, and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engage in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter cases the government permits the enlisting volunteers, though only for such states are they in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no subject is to be forced into foreign service, or even to be enlisted, without the concurrence of the magistracy.

**Revenue and Taxes.** The variety of cantons that constitute the Swiss confederacy, renders it difficult to give a precise account of their revenues. Those of the canton of Berne are said to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and those of Zurich to 100,000; the other cantons in proportion to the produce and manufactures. Whatever is saved, after defraying the necessary expenses of government, is laid up as a common stock; and it has been said, that the Swiss are possessed of 500,000l. sterling in the English funds, besides their property in other banks.

The revenues arise, 1. From the profits of the demesne lands; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Customs and duties on merchandise; 4. The revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some casual taxes.

**History.** The present Swiss and Grisons, as has been already mentioned, are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, subdued by Julius Caesar. Their mountainous, uninviting situation, formed a better security for their liberties than their forts or armies; and the same is the case at present. They continued long under little better than a nominal subjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with so much rigour, that they petitioned him against the cruelty of his governors. This served only to double the hardships of his people; and one of Albert's Austrian governors, Gresler, in the wantonness of tyranny, set up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much respect as to himself. The famous William Tell, being observed to pass frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent markman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Gresler asking him the meaning of another arrow he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended to his (Gresler's) heart if he had killed his son. Tell was condemned to prison upon this; but making his escape, he watched the opportunity, shot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event, the revolt of the Swiss from the Austrian tyranny had been planned by some noble patriots among them. Their measures were so just, and their course so intrepid, that they soon effected a union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suisse, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent successes of their arms against Albert, duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They first conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itself in 1353; Fribourg and Soleure 130 years after; Basil and Schaffhausen in 1501; and Appenzel in 1513 completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany: till, by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state.

Neufchatel, since the year 1707, had been under the dominion of the king of Prussia, but the inhabitants are free to serve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The King hath the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor, but the revenue he derives is not above 5000l yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swiss, I must refer the reader to the histories of Europe.
Before the French revolution Switzerland exhibited a picture of industry, of competence, and of happiness. A general content that pervaded the lowest classes and a love for the constitution, manners, and laws of their ancestors, checked the spirit of innovation. No allurements of public shews relaxed their virtue; no incitements of luxury inflamed their desires. The absence of commerce destroyed the means of corruption; and the advancement of knowledge extinguished the flames of that religious zeal which sullied with barbarism the manners of the ancient Swiss.

In the years 1793 and 1794, which in France was justly termed the reign of terror, Switzerland wore all the appearance of splendor, affluence and gaiety. The principal towns were crowded with strangers from all nations; as this country was then the only one upon the continent left open for the transactions of commerce, the negotiations of peace, and the asylum of fugitives. But it was only an apparent state of prosperity and happiness, the usual forerunner of misery and distress. Revolutionary principles were daily gaining ground; and the views of the democrats were considerably favoured by the thinking part of the inhabitants being entirely absorbed in the hurry of commerce, and the means of increasing their wealth.

When the directory thought that the plans which they carried on by means of their emissaries in Switzerland were ripe for execution, they made several demands upon the Swiss, which, they knew, would not be complied with. Those demands, the just refusal of which occasioned the hostilities that took place between the two nations may be comprised in the four following:

1st, A free navigation of the lake Lugano.
2d, A passage for 25,000 men under the command of two French generals, through the Vallais, from Buonaparte's army.
3d, The dismissal of Mr Wickham, the English envoy in Switzerland.
4th, The redress of several injuries which they pretended to have received from the Swiss.

With regard to the two first articles, it was resolved in a diet at Framefield, both to preserve the exclusive navigation of the lake Lugano, and to resist, by force, any attempts that should be made by the French to force a passage through the Vallais. A message was at the same time sent from the Directory to the Helvetic confederacy, requiring them to recall all the Swiss officers, who had been banished for their political opinions, and the removal of all French emigrants from Switzerland.

The British cabinet, being informed of the demand that was made by the French Republic for the dismissal of Mr Wickham, recalled their ambassador. The directory, deprived of all cause of quarrel on this head, made other demands still more insulting to the honour and feelings of a free people. These were, requiring the Helvetic confederacy to deprive the Swiss officers of the orders of St Louis and of Merit, which had been conferred upon them by Louis XVI. Although the demand of suppressing this order was the most degrading which could have been required, those men who were invested with that honour, fearful of being thought hostile to the tranquillity of their country, immediately resigned it.

Such were the demands made upon the Helvetic confederacy by the rulers of France, in order to bring about an open rupture between the two nations; and although these may appear to have been dictated by French ambition and French avarice, they were more the formation of the revolutionary clubs in Switzerland, who never ceased to harass the French government, and instigate the grossest calumnies against the rulers of their own country, until they carried their cursed views into execution.

Anxious to prevent hostilities, the Swiss made another attempt to bring the French to reasonable terms. They sent deputies to treat with Mengaud, the French ambassado- dor. Being tired, however, with repeated insults, they sent orders to their deputies to break off all further negotiations. The directory, alarmed at these warlike appearances, sent general Brune to command their army in the Pays de Vaud, with orders to conclude an armistice until he should receive a sufficient reinforcement. Immediately upon his arrival he announced to the senate of Berne that he was come with pacific intentions; and entreated that commissaries might be sent to him in order to settle
their differences. Persons properly authorised did come, and at the request of Brune an armistice was concluded for eight days.

The plan which the Jacobins had laid, was now completed. The moment of disorder and confusion was not to be lost by the deceitful Brune. One Friday morning, the 2d of March, two days before the termination of the armistice, he attacked the town of Fribourg; and, after a bloody engagement, carried it by assault. The Bernese now took the field to the number of 18,000 men, and, notwithstanding the superiority of the enemy in point of numbers, by the junction of Schawenbourg and Brune, they resolved to shed the last drop of their blood in defence of their country and their liberty: the women also, imitating the example of the ancient Helvetians, attended in the field, and shared with their husbands the danger of the day. The village of Froubrun was the spot where the action began. There the armies on both sides remained under arms in anxious expectation during the night of the 3d of March. On the morning of the 4th, the Bernese army was attacked in various points: whole ranks of men were cut down by the overwhelming cavalry and irresistible artillery of the French. Then a most moving spectacle was to be seen: a number of women, in anguish and despair, threw themselves in heaps before these dreadful engines, in hopes of stopping their destructive progress by clinging to the wheels of the cannon as they advanced. But their patriotic zeal was of no avail; the great guns made their way: and the Swiss, after sustaining nine successive attacks of the enemy, were obliged to give way, and to have recourse to a precipitate retreat. They left, however, upon the field, sufficient proofs of their valour and courage: The dead bodies of 4000 of the enemy displayed the astonishing deeds of the Bernese soldiers; and the mangled limbs of 150 women, crushed by the cannon, the heroism of their wives.

General Schawenbourg proceeded directly towards Berne. The confusion and dismay that prevailed in that city, when the French halted under its walls, exceed all description. Traitors within, the enemy at the gates, irresolution was in every step and in every action: a number, however, with a determination to hold out, hastened to the ramparts; but to their utter astonishment they found that balls of an improper calibre had been provided for the cannon. Deprived in this manner of their principal means of defence, they retreated towards the bridge, which they defended with the greatest obstinacy: but their strength and ammunition were at length exhausted; the artillery of the enemy forced their way; the ditch was filled with the bodies of the Swiss; the town was given up; three leagues round Berne were devoted for plunder and rapine; and not an article was suffered to escape.

Thus, in the short space of four days, this brave and warlike nation, which had maintained its independence for 500 years, was entirely crushed by the perfidious machinations of artful and designing men.

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**Spain.**

**Situation and Extent.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 700</td>
<td>10 and 3 East longitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 500</td>
<td>36 and 44 North latitude.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Containing 150,763 square miles, with 69 inhabitants to each.

**Boundaries.** It is bounded on the West by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean on the East; by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenean Mountains, which separate it from France, on the North; and by the strait of the sea at Gibraltar on the South.
It is now divided into fourteen districts, besides islands in the Mediterranean.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries Names</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Bread</th>
<th>Chief Cities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Castile, New</td>
<td>27,840</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>Madrid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andalusia</td>
<td>16,500</td>
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<td>Estremadura</td>
<td>12,600</td>
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<td>4600</td>
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<td>Murcia</td>
<td>3600</td>
<td>87</td>
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<tr>
<td>Upper Navarre</td>
<td>3000</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>45</td>
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<td>Majorca I.</td>
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<td>58</td>
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<td>Yvica I.</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Minorca I.</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Citadella</td>
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</table>

Total—150,763

The town and fortress of Gibraltar, subject to Great Britain.

Ancient names and divisions.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Hesperia, as well as Hispania. It was about the time of the Punic wars divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largest part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whose ancient history, at least the interior part of it, we know less than that of Spain.

Climate, soil, and water.] Excepting during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but excessively hot in the southern provinces in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreshing breezes that come from them in the southernmost parts, though those towards the north and north-east are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller shiver.

Such is the moisture of the hills, bounded on the north by the Bay of Biscay, and to the south by snowy mountains, that no care is sufficient to preserve their fruits, their grain, their instruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from rust. Both the acetous, and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progress. Besides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of most diseases which affect the principality of Asturia. Yet, although subject to such a variety of endemic diseases, few countries can produce more instances of longevity; many live to the age of a hundred, some to a hundred and ten, and others much longer. The same observation may be extended to Galicia, where in the Parish of St Juan de Poye, A. D. 1724, the curate administered the sacrament to thirteen persons, whose ages together made one thousand four hundred and ninety nine, the youngest of these being one hundred and ten, and the oldest one hundred and twenty-seven. But in Villa
de Fosanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1726, aged more than one hundred and forty six years.

The soil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately found some scarcity of it, by their disuse of tillage, through their indolence; the causes of which I shall explain afterwards. It produces, in many places, almost spontaneously, the richest and most delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raisins and figs. Here wines, especially sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners. There are, in the district of Malaga, (according to Mr Townsend, the latest traveller) fourteen thousand vine pressses, chiefly employed in making the rich wines, which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called mountain; if red, from the colour, vino tinto, known in England by the name of tent. Good mountain is sold from thirteen to sixteen pounds the butt, of one hundred and thirty five gallons, according to quality and age. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thousand vessels enter this port every year, of which, about one tenth are Spanish, and the exports in wine, fruit, oil and fish, are computed at about 375,000l. per annum; but there have been times when it has been considerably more.

Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromising, because uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains such a number of inhabitants, who neither till nor work for their food, such are the generous qualities of its soil. Even sugar canes thrive in Spain; and it yields saffron, honey, and silk, in great abundance. A late writer, Ustariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of shepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and has given us a most curious detail of their economy, their changes of pasture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately, to the public. Those sheep-walks afford the finest of wool, and are a treasure in themselves. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taste of their kids and sheep so exquisitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds so much with mulberry trees, that the product of its silk amounts to 200,000l. a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and less to industry.

The waters (especially those that are medicinal) of Spain are little known; but many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain, the waters are found to have such healing qualities, that they are outdone by those of no country in Europe; and the inclosing, and encouraging a resort to them, grow every day more and more in vogue, especially at Alhama in Granada.

Mountains.] It is next to impossible to specify these, they are so numerous; the chief, and the highest, are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over these mountains there are only five narrow passages to France, and the road over the pass that separates Rousillon from Catalonia, reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the strength of 30 men to support, and nearly as many oxen to drag up, a carriage, which four horses now do with ease. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, south of Cape Finisterre. No Englishman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and, in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other Mount Abyla, lying opposite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montserrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape, and composition. It stands in a vast plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Montserratado, or Mount Scie, words which signify a cut, or sawed mountain; and is so called from its singular and extraordinary form; for it is so broken and divided, and so crowned with an infinite number of spiring cones, or pine heads, that it has the appearance, at a distant view, to be the work of man; but, upon a nearer approach, to be evidently the production of the God of nature. It is a spot so admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whose first vow is, never to forsake it. When the mountain is first seen at a distance
it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic spires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itself a mountain; and the whole composes an enormous mass about 14 miles in circumference, and the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height*. As it is like no other mountain, so it stands quite unconnected with any, though not far distant from some that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our Lady of Montserrat, to which pilgrims resort from the farthest parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. Sometimes, on particular festivals, seven thousand persons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reasonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for saying mass, water cisterns, and most of them little gardens. The inhabitants of one of these hermitages, which is dedicated to St Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar; and after divine service dine together. They meet also at this hermitage on the days of the saints to which their several hermitages are dedicated, to say mass and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very solitary and recluse manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abstinence, nor do they ever eat flesh. Nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, lest their attention should be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. The number of professed monks there is 76, of ley brothers 28, and of singing boys 25, besides physician, surgeon, and servants. Mr Thicknesse, who has published a very particular description of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often saw from his habitation the islands of Minorca, Majorca and Yvica, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

**RIVERS AND LAKES.** These are the Duero, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic below Lisbon, the Guadiana falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre; as does the Guadalquivir, now Turio, at St Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean sea below Tortosa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, rises in Sierra Morena, and empties itself into the Mediterranean near Huelva, having the name of Tinto given it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the sand, and petrifying it in a most surprising manner. If a stone happens to fall in, and rest upon another, they both become in a year's time perfectly conglutinated.—This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the same hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fish live in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, whose flesh nevertheless has an excellent flavour. These singular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature; for when it passes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean sea six leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventu, abound with fishes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into salt by the heat of the sun.

**METALS AND MINERALS.** Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the same kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadstone, jacinths, turquoise stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, sulphur, alum, calamine, crystal, marbles of

*Mr Swainborne estimates its height to be only 3000 feet, and observes that the arms of the convent are the Virgin Mary sitting at the foot of a rock half cut through by a saw.*
several kinds, porphyry, the finest jasper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethyste, are found here. The Spanish iron, next to that of Damascus, furnishes the best arms in the world, and, in former times, brought in a vast revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection. Even to this day, Spanish gun barrels, and swords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongst the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and silver mines; and silver was in such plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Augustus Caesar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took possession of Spain, their domestic and agricultural utensils were of that metal. These mines have now disappeared; but whether by their being exhausted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot say; though the latter cause seems to be the most probable.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs, Diversions, and Dress.] Spain, formerly the most populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people sent to America, and partly to the indulgence of the natives, who are at no pains to raise food for their families. Another cause may be assigned, and that is, the vast number of ecclesiastics, of both sexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have given several other causes, such as their wars with the Moors, and the final expulsion of that people. The present inhabitants of this kingdom are computed by Fuyjoo, a Spanish writer, to amount to 9,250,000, so that England is three times as populous as Spain, considering its extent.

The persons of the Spaniards are generally tall, especially the Castilians; their hair and complexions swarthy, but their countenances are very expressive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of mustaches, and to introduce among them the French dress, instead of their black cloaks, their short jerkin, strait breeches, and long Toledo swords, which dress is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the accession of the house of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dress, in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find some difficulty in abolishing it quite, as the same spirit is far from being extinguished. An old Castilian, or Spaniard, who sees none above him, thinks himself the most important being in nature; and the same pride is commonly communicated to his descendants. This is the true reason why many of them are so fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of seeing a superior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the most exalted qualities. It inspires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous sentiments; it being seldom found that a Spanish nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the most embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years past, we know of no instance of their taking advantage (as they might easily have done) of confiscating the British property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally secure in time of war as peace. This is the more surprising, as Philip V. was often needy, and his ministers were far from being scrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By the best and most credible accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards in America gave the most humane and noble relief to all British subjects who were in distress, and fell into their hands, not only by supplying them with necessaries, but money; and treating them in the most hospitable manner while they remained among them.

Having said thus much, we are carefully to distinguish between the Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, which is to be put on the same footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as those of any other country. The kings of Spain of the house of Bourbon, have seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families as their ministers. These are generally French or Italians, but most commonly the latter, who rise into power by the most infamous arts, and of late times from the most abject stations.——Hence it is that the French kings of Spain since their first accession to that monarchy have been but very indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greatest genius among them, embroiled his master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi, the
fast of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

The common people who live on the coasts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish adventurers, and English smugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards.—In time of war, they follow privateering with great success; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Irish and Walloon guards in the Spanish service. There are about 40,000 gypsies, and who, besides their fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the small towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards, is thus drawn by Mr Swinburne after his late travels through the country: “The Catalans appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, travelling and manufactures. The Valencians, a more sullen sedate race, better adapted to the occupations of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind, than the former. The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and rhodomontadors of Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The new Castilians are perhaps the least industrious of the whole nation; the Old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of ancient simplicity of manner; both are of a firm, determined spirit. The Arragonese are a mixture of the Castilian and Catalán, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans than a province of an absolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of an hardly-earned subsistence.”

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns mostly in their novels and romances; for though it must be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their persons, they are commonly small and slender; but they are said to employ vast art in supplying the defects of nature.—If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than increase their beauty, especially when they are turned of 25. Their indiscriminate use of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly disfigures their complexions and shrivels their skin. It is at the same time universally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have said, it is more than probable that the vast pains taken by the government of Spain, may at last eradicat those customs and habits among the Spaniards that seem so ridiculous to foreigners. They are universally known to have refined notions and excellent sense; and this, if improved by study and travelling, which they now stand in great need of, would render them superior to the French themselves. Their slow, deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to such a degree, that during the two last wars, they were found to be as quick both in resolving and executing, if not more so, than their enemies. Their secrecy, constancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in several of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andalusia, the common people have, for some time, assiduously applied themselves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their sobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfast as well as sup, in bed; their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being very seldom drunk. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chiver, saltad, and radishes; which, according to one of their proverb, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, such as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where, generally speaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are mostly in the habit of rising much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furnish spirits sufficient to resist the effects of the violent heat, through the whole day, without some such refreshment; it is therefore the universal practice to go to sleep for some hours after dinner, which in those countries is over early, and this time of repose, which lasts for two or three hours, is in Spain called the Siesta, and in Portugal the Noia. Dancing
is so much their favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are insipid and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head sometimes appears through a trap door above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling passion in Spain. Jealousy, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, has slept in peace. The nightly musical serenades of mistresses by their lovers are still in use. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull feasts, are almost peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of shewing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he has killed in these encounters. Great pains are used in settling the forms and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diversion itself, which is attended with circumstances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalry.

There is no town in Spain but what has a large square for the purpose of exhibiting bull-fights; and it is said that even the poorest inhabitants of the smallest villages will often club together in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them, riding upon asses for want of horses.

**ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.** The Spanish horses, especially those of Andalusia, are thought to be the handsomest of any in Europe, and at the same time very fleet and serviceable. The king does all that he can to monopolise the finest breed for his own stables and service. Spain furnishes likewise mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have so much ferocity, that their bull-feasts were the most magnificent spectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey that disturb Spain, which is well stored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already described. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, especially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection. This country is much infested with locusts; and Mr Dillon observes, that in 1754 La Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of famine assailed the fruitful provinces of Andalucia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have sometimes appeared in the air in such numbers as to darken the sky; the clear atmosphere of Spain has become gloomy; and the finest summer day in Estremadura, been rendered more dismal than the winter of Holland. Their sense of smelling is so delicate, that they can discover a corn field, or a garden, at a considerable distance, and which they will ravage almost in an instant. Mr Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and observation, might destroy the eggs of these formidable insects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

**RELIGION.** The horrors of the Romish religion, the only one tolerated in Spain, are now greatly lessened there, by moderating the penalties of the inquisition, a tribunal disgraceful to human nature; but though disused, it is not abrogated: only the ecclesiastics and their officers can carry no sentence into execution without the royal authority: it is still in force against the Moorish and Jewish pretended converts. The Spaniards embrace and practise the Roman catholic religion with all its absurdities; and in this they have been so steady, that their king is distinguished by the epithet of Most Catholic. It appears, however, that the burning zeal which distinguished their ancestors above the rest of the Catholic world hath lost much of its activity, and seems nearly extinguished, and the power of the clergy has been much reduced of late years. A royal edict has also been issued to prevent the admission of noviciates into the different convents, without special permission, which has a great tendency to reduce the monastic orders. It is computed that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 secular clergy, but as little true moral religion as in any country under heaven.

In Catalonia, the confidence of the people on the intercession of saints has at all periods been a source of consolation to them, but upon some occasions has betrayed them into mischief. Every company of artisans, and every ship that sails, is under the
immediate protection of some patron. Besides folio volumes, which testify the infinite number of miracles performed by our lady in Montserrat, every subordinate shrine is loaded with votive tablets. This has been the parent of presumption, and among the merchants has brought many families to want. The companies of insurance in the last war, having each of them its favourite saint, such as San Roman de Penafort, la Virgen de la Merced, and others, associated in form by the articles of partnership, and named in every policy of insurance, and having with the most scrupulous exactness allotted to them their correspondent dividend, the same as to any other partner, they concluded that with such powerful associates it was not possible for them to suffer loss. Under this persuasion they ventured about the year 1719 to insure the French West Indians at fifty per cent. when the English and Dutch had refused to do it at any premium, and indeed when most of the ships were already in the English ports. By this fatal stroke, all the insuring companies, except two, were ruined; yet notwithstanding this misfortune, this superstition remains in force.

Archbishops and Bishops.] In Spain there are eight archbishoprics, and forty-six bishoprics. The archbishop of Toledo is styled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Castile, and hath a revenue of 100,000l. sterling per annum; but the Spanish court hath now many ways of lessening the revenues of the church, as by pensions, donations to hospitals, &c. and premiums to the societies of agriculture. The archbishopric pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Escorial, besides other pensions, and it is asserted, that there is not a bishopric in Spain but hath somebody or other quartered upon it, and the second rate benefices are believed to be in the same predicament. Out of the rich canons and prebends are taken the pensions of the new order of knights of Carlos Tercero. The riches of the Spanish churches and convents are the unwary objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives: but there is a sameness in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treasure and jewels they contain.

Language.] The ground-work of the Spanish language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a bastard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, especially the former. It is at present a most majestic and expressive language: and it is remarkable that the foreigners who understand it the best, prize it the most. It makes but a poor figure even in the best translators; and Cervantes speaks almost as awkward English, as Shakespeare does French. It may, however, be considered as a standard tongue, having nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Paternoster runs thus:—Padre nuestro, qui estes en le cielo, sanctificado se un nombre; venga a nos el su reyyno; hagase tu voluntad, asi en la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nuestro de cada dia da nos le ay; y perdona nos nuestras deudos asi como nos otros perdonamos a nuestros deudores; no nos deses cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de malo, porque tao es le reyno, y la gloria per los siglos. Amen.

Learning and Learned Men.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in some measure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which prevents them from making that progress in the polite arts which they otherwise would; but the greatest impediment to literature in Spain, is the despotic nature of its government. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V, that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at Madrid, in 1549, listed in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he lost his left hand. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much service to his country, by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in prison for debt, when he composed the first part of his history, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists.

The visions of Quevedo, and some other of his humourous and satirical pieces, having been translated into the English language, have rendered that author well known in
this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the best writers of his age, excelling equally in verse and in prose. Besides his merit as a poet, he was well versed in the oriental languages, and possessed great erudition. His works are comprised in three volumes, 4to, two of which consist of poetry, and the third of pieces in prose. As a poet he excelled both in the serious and burlesque style, and was happy in a turn of humour similar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. After the Saracens had settled themselves in this kingdom, they introduced into it their own language, religion, and literature; and the oriental style of poetry very generally prevailed. Before this period, the Spaniards had addicted themselves much to Roman literature; but Alvaro of Cordova complains, that, in his time, the Spaniards had so totally forgotten the Latin tongue, and given the preference to Arabic, that it was difficult, even amongst a thousand people, to find one who could write a Latin letter.—The attachment of many of the inhabitants of Spain to oriental literature was then so great, that they could write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compose verses with as much fluency and elegance as the Arabians themselves. About this time the Spanish Jews made a considerable figure in literature, which was promoted by masters from Babylon, where they had academies supported by themselves. In the year 967 Rabbi Moses, and his son Rabbi Enoch, having been taken by pirates, were sold as slaves at Cordova, and redeemed by their brethren, who established a school in that city, of which Rabbi Moses was appointed the head; that learned Jew was, however, desirous of returning back to his own country; but the Moorish king of Cordova would not give his consent, rejoicing that his Hebrew subjects had masters of their own religion at home, without being under the necessity of receiving them from a foreign university, and every indulgence was granted them with respect to their worship. In 1039, Rabbi Ezechias was put to death at Babylon, and the college over which he had presided was transferred to Cordova, from whence a number of Hebrew poets issued forth, who have been noticed by various learned writers. The Spanish Jews had also flourishing schools at Seville, Granada, and Toledo, and from hence arose the numerous Hebrew proverbs, and modes of speech, that have crept into the Castilian language, and form a conspicuous part of its phrasology. To these Jews the Spanish language is indebted for a curious version of the Hebrew books of the Old Testament, which was afterwards printed at Ferrara, 1553, in a Gothic Spanish letter.

The Spanish writers also boast of their Troubadours as high as the twelfth or thirteenth centuries, the Provençal and Gallican dialects being then very prevalent. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1434, was the author of that famous work the Arte de la Gaya Scienza, which comprehends a system of poetry, rhetoric, and oratory, besides describing all the ceremonies of the Troubadours at their public exhibitions.—That nobleman was also the author of a translation of the Æneid of Virgil into Spanish verse. Juan de Mena, of Cordova, was also much celebrated as a poet in his own time; his poems have passed through a variety of editions, the first of which was printed at Saragossa in 1515. Juan de la Encina was also a poet of considerable merit; he translated some of the Latin poems into Spanish, and published a piece on the art of poetry, and other works which were printed at Saragossa in 1516. Boscán, Ercilla, Villegas, and other Spanish poets also obtained great reputation in their own country. But the most distinguished dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakespeare. He possessed an imagination astonishingly fertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his dramatic works he disregarded the unities, and adapted his works more to the taste of the age, than to the rules of criticism. His lyric compositions, and fugitive pieces, with his prose essays, form a collection of fifty volumes, besides his dramatic works, which make twenty-six volumes more; exclusive of four hundred scriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain Auto Sacramentales. Calderon was also a dramatic writer of considerable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Tostatus, a divine, the most voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long distinguished only by their bulk. Herrera, and some other historians, particularly De Solis, have shewn great abilities in history, by investigating
the antiquities of America, and writing the history of its conquest by their countrymen. —Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the most distinguished. His performances display great ingenuity, very extensive reading, and uncommon liberality of sentiment, especially when his situation and country are considered. Many of his pieces have been translated into English, and published in four volumes, 8vo. Don Francisco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a dissertation on the Phenician language, may be placed in the first line of Spanish literati. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amusing and instructive. If it should happen the Spaniards could disengage themselves from their abstracted metaphysical turn of thinking, and from their present tyrannical form of government, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature. At present, it seems, that the common education of an English gentleman would constitute a man of learning in Spain, and should he understand Greek, he would be quite a phenomenon.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts, and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escorial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects; Palomino, in an elaborate treatise on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, has inserted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and sculptors, who flourished in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the Catholic to the conclusion of the reign of Philip IV. Among the most eminent Spanish painters, were Velasques, Murillo, who is commonly called the Spanish Vandyke, Ribeira, Claudio, and Coello whose style of painting was very similar to that of Paul Veronese.

Universities. In Spain are reckoned 24 universities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonso, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 24 colleges, some of which are very magnificent. Most of the nobility of Spain send their sons to be educated here. The rest are, Seville, Granada, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Huesca, Saragossa, Tortosa, Ossuna, Guata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragosa, Baeza, Avila, Oviedo, and Palencia.

Antiquities and Curiosities, Artificial and Natural.] The former of these consist chiefly of Roman and Moorish antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is supported by a double row of 159 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz is vulgarly, but erroneously thought, to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, said to be one of the greatest curiosities of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments. At Martorell, a large town, where much black-lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768 out of the ruins of a decayed one that had existed 1895 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almost entire, well proportioned and simple, without any kind of ornament except a rim or two of hewn stone. Near Murviedro (once the faithful Saguntum) destroyed by Hannibal, are some Roman remains—such as the ruins of the theatre, an exact semicircle about 82 yards diameter, some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 persons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Moorish antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the most distinguished of these is the royal palace of the Alhambra at Granada, which is one of the most entire, as well as the most stately, of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada, and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is situated on a hill, which is ascended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles
began a new palace in 1508, which was never finished, though the shell of it remains. It is built of yellow stone: the outside forms a square of one hundred and ninety-feet. The inside is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuscan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each supported by thirty-two columns, made of as many single pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jasper, on the pedestals of which are representations of battles, in marble basso relievo. The Alhambra itself is a mass of many houses and towers, walled round, and built of large stones of different dimensions. Almost all the rooms have stucco walls and cielings, some carved, some painted, and some gilt, and covered with various Arabic sentences,—the most curious place within, that perhaps exists in Europe. Here are several baths, the walls, floor, and cielings of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginalaliph, situated on a more elevated station than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the finest prospects in Europe over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by the snowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loss of Granada, and still offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Moorish times, remain in Spain; some of them in tolerable preservation, and others exhibiting superb ruins.

Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some noisy lakes, formed a principal part; but we must not forget the river Guadiana, which like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is said to emerge. The royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid was opened to the public by his majesty's orders in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, besides being shewn privately to strangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the collection of birds and beasts at present is not large, though it may be expected to improve apace, if care be taken to get the productions of the Spanish American colonies. Here is also a curious collection of vases, basons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces of the finest agates, amethysts, rock crystals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, set with cameos, entaglios, &c. in elegant taste, and of very fine workmanship, said to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet also contains specimens of Mexican and Peruvian vases and utensils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the stone, some of which have been brought to England, and deposited in the British Museum. On the west side of the mountain is the cave called St Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various sizes, some of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the dropping of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of stalactites, of a whitish colour, composed of several coats or crusts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increase in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the summit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be seen, but the bay, the straits, the town of St Roque and Algesiras, and the Alpujara mountains, mount Abyla on the African shore, with its snowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coast.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only surrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. It is well paved and lighted, and some of the streets are spacious and handsome. The houses of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for shew, convenience being little considered; thus you will pass through usually two or three large apartments of no use, in order to come at a small room at the end where the family sit. The houses in general look more like prisons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows besides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and sometimes all the rest. Separate families generally inhabit the same house, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much distressed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking strangers into their houses, especially if they are not catholics. Its greatest excellency is the cheapness of its provisions; but
neither tavern, coffee-house, nor newspaper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be
found in the whole city. The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the west side of
the city; it is a spacious magnificent structure, consisting of three courts, and com-
mands a very fine prospect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length, and 100 high,
and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence: the great au-
dience-chamber especially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimson velvet richly
embroidered with gold. Ornamented also with 12 looking-glasses at St. Ildefonso, each
10 feet high, with 12 tables of the finest Spanish marbles. The other royal palaces
round it are designed for hunting seats, or houses of retirement for their kings. Some
of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of those palaces are the
Buen Retiro (now stripped of all its best pictures and furniture), Casa del Campo,
Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonso.

A late traveller has represented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely
delightful. Here is also a park many leagues round, cut across in different parts, by
alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of these alleys is formed by two
double rows of elm trees; one double row on the right, and one on the left, which
renders the shade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreast,
and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a stream of
water. Between those alleys there are thick groves of smaller trees of various kinds,
and thousands of deer and wild boars wander there at large, besides numberless hares,
rabbits, pheasants, partridges, and several other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs
through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this
great park is the king's palace, which is partly surrounded by the garden, and is exceed-
ingly pleasant, adorned with fountains and statues, and it also contains a vast variety of
the most beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aran-
juez itself, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered and painted, but no part of the
architecture is agreeable. It is two stories high, and the garden-front has thirty-one
windows, and twelve rooms in a suite. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which
is a great reservoir of water, called here El Mar, the sea, which supplies the fountains;
this reservoir is furnished from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water
works are excellent, and far surpass those at Versailles. The great entry of the palace
is somewhat similar to that of Versailles, and with a large iron-palisade. In the gar-
dens are twenty-seven fountains; the basins are of white marble, and the statues, many
of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. These gardens are in the formal
French style, but ornamented with sixty-one very fine marble statues, as large as the
life, with twenty-eight marble vases, and twenty leaded vases gilt. The upper part of
the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique statues, busts,
and basso relieves.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Escorial, and the natives say, perhaps with jus-
tice, that the building of it cost more than that of any other palace in Europe. The
description of this palace forms a sizeable quarto-volume, and it is said that Philip II.
who was its founder, expended upon it six millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious
number of windows, 200 in the west front, and in the east 396, and the apartments are
decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold
and silver, marble, jasper, gems, and other curious stones. This building, besides its
palace, contains a church large and richly ornamented, a mausoleum, cloisters, a con-
vent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thousand volumes; but it is more
particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuscripts, with which it is enriched.
Above the shelves are paintings in fresco by Barthelemi Carducho, the subjects of which
are taken from sacred or profane history, or have relation to the sciences, of which the
shelves below present to us the elements. Thus the council of Nice is represented above
the books which treat of theology; the death of Archimedes at the siege of Syracuse,
indicates those which relate to the mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in
favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very singular cir-
cumstance in this library may be agreeable to the curious reader to know, which is, that,
on viewing the books, he will find them placed the contrary way, so that the edges of
the leaves are outwards, and contain their titles written on them. The reason for this custom is, that Arias Montanus, a learned Spaniard of the sixteenth century, whose library had served as a foundation for that of the Escorial, had all his books placed and inscribed in that manner, which no doubt appeared to him to be the most commodious method of arranging them; that he had introduced his own method into the Escorial; and since his time, and for the sake of uniformity, it had been followed with respect to the books afterwards added. Here are also large apartments for all kinds of artists and mechanics, noble walks, with extensive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and costly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000l. The mausoleum, or burying place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, because it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St Peter's. It is 36 feet diameter, incrusted with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full estimate of the incredible sums bestowed on this palace, and on its furniture, statues, paintings, columns, vases, and the like decorations, which are most amazingly rich and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in saying, that the fabric itself discovers a bad taste upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, because St Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on such an utensil, and multiplying the same figure through its principal ornaments, upon the doors, windows, altars, rituals, and sacerdotal habits, could have been formed only in the brain of a tasteless bigot, such as Philip II., who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the assistance of the English forces) at St Quintin, on St Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king resides, forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long square of 640 feet by 580. The height of the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his successors; but its outside has a gloomy appearance, and the inside is composed of different structures, some of which are master-pieces of architecture, but forming a disagreeable whole. It must, however, be confessed, that the pictures and statues that have found admission here, are excellent in their kind, and some of them not to be equalled in Italy itself.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spanish commerce. It stands on an island separated from the continent of Andalusia, without the straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the sea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the English, in their wars with Spain, because of the vast interest our merchants have in the treasures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The streets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night. The houses lofty, with flat roofs, and few are without a turret, for a view of the sea. The population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral hath been already 50 years building, and the roof is not half finished. The environs are beautifully rural.

Cordova is now an inconsiderable place; streets crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conspicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquisition and of the bishops are extensive and well situated. The cathedral was formerly a mosque, divided into seventeen ailes by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the silver candlesticks cost 850l. a-piece. The revenue of the see amounts to 3500l. per annum; but as the bishops cannot devise by will, all they die possessed of escheats to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Remans, is next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The shape is circular, and the walls seem of Moorish construction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The suburb of Triana, is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle where, in 1481, the inquisition was first established in Spain. Its manufacturers in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400; and its great office of commerce to Spanish America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a moveable figure of
a woman at the top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This steeple is reckoned one of the greatest curiosities in Spain, and is higher than St Paul's in London; but the cathedral, in Mr Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to Yorkminster for lightness, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The first clock made in the kingdom was set up in this cathedral in the year 1400, in the presence of King Henry III. The prospect of the country round this city, held from the steeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, said to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houses, is situated on the Mediterranean, facing Minorca, and is said to be the handsomest place in Spain; the houses are lofty and plain, and the streets well lighted and paved. The citadel is strong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the siege they sustained in 1714 against a formidable army, when deserted both by England and the emperor, for whom they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is supposed to be nearly 150,000, and they supply Spain with most of the clothing and arms for the troops. A singular custom prevails among them on the first of November, the eve of All Souls; they run about from house to house to eat chestnuts, believing that for every chestnut they swallow, with proper faith and unction, they shall deliver a soul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almost circular city, with lofty walls. The streets are crooked and narrow, and not paved, the houses ill built and filthy, and most of the churches tawdry. Priests, nuns, and friars, of every dress, swarm in this city, whose inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbishopric is one of the best in Spain, to the amount of 40,000l. sterling a-year.

Carthagea is a large city, but has very few good streets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arsenal is a specious square, southwest of the town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the sea. When Mr Swinburne visited it in 1775, there were 800 Spanish criminals, and 600 Barbary slaves, working at the pumps, to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were sent there deserved indeed exemplary punishments.

Granada stands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double summit of two rivers, the Douro, and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are passed away with its old inhabitants, the streets are now filthy, and the aqueducts crumbling to dust, and its trade lost. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned useful, the surplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre for bull feasts is built of stone, and one of the best in Spain, and the canyons of the city are still pleasing and healthful.

Bilboa is situated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the sea. It contains about eight hundred houses, with a large square by the water side, well shaded with pleasant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river, where there are great numbers of houses and gardens, which form a most pleasing prospect, particularly in sailing up the river; for, besides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landscape, and completes the scenery. The houses are solid and lofty, and the streets well paved and level; and the water is so conveyed into the streets, that they may be washed at pleasure, which renders Bilboa one of the neatest towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not less remarkable for its opulence and extensive commerce, than for the luxuriance of its soil, yielding in great abundance the most delicious fruits; whilst its rugged mountains afford those luscious grapes which give such reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, surrounded with a double wall, strengthened by stately towers, and has nine gates. A Moorish castle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The streets are narrow, and the most remarkable building in it is a stupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II., said to be as large as that of St Paul's in London. The bishop's income is 16,000l. sterling.
The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two valleys, and on every side surrounded with prospects of fine houses, noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields, and distant villages, and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the same number of nunneries. The most beautiful part of this city is the great square, built about forty years ago. The houses are of three stories, and all of equal height and exact symmetry, with iron balconies, and a stone balustrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the square, one of two hundred and ninety-three feet on each side. Over some of the arches are medallions, with busts of the kings of Spain, and of several eminent men, in stone basso relievo, among which are those of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the most ancient cities in Spain, and during several centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees stripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almost entirely deserted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part spent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thousands that are left, and assists, in some degree, those small manufactures of sword-blades and silk-stuffs that are established in this city. It is now exceedingly ill-built, poor, and mean, and the streets very steep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Castile, but now in obscurity. The cathedral is one of the most magnificent structures of the Gothic kind, now in Europe: its form is exactly the same as that of York-minster, and on the east end is an octagon building exactly like the chapter-house at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortress of Andalusia, is at present in possession of Great Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place in the year 711 or 712, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of Mons Calpe. On their arrival a fortress was built upon it, and it obtained the name of Gibel-Tarif, from the name of their general, and thence Gibraltar. It was in the possession of the Spaniards and Moors by turns, till it was taken from the former by a combined fleet of English and Dutch ships, under the command of sir George Rooke, in 1704; and this rather through accident than any thing else. The prince of Hesse, with 1800 men, landed on the isthmus, but an attack on that side was found to be impracticable, on account of the steepness of the rock. The fleet fired 15,000 shot without making any impression on the works, so that the fortress seemed to be equally impregnable both to the British and Spaniards, except by famine. At last, a party of sailors, having got merry with grog, rowed close under the New Mole in their boats, and as they saw that the garrison, who consisted only of 100 men, did not mind them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mounted the Mole, hoisted a red jacket as a signal of possession. This being immediately observed from the fleet, more boats and sailors were sent out, who, in like manner, having ascended the works, got possession of a battery, and soon obliged the town to surrender. After many fruitless attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have been since made to wrest it from England, but without success: the last war hath made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long siege against the united forces of Spain and France by land and sea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garrison, to the loss and disgrace of the assailants: though it must be granted, the place is by nature almost impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly brass, which were sunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raised, and sold, to be distributed among the garrison. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the passage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant seas. But the road is neither safe against an enemy nor storms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The straits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which sets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the stemming of it a brisk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the last siege was totally destroyed by the enemies.
bombs, but on account of its fortifications, is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is accessible on the land side only by a narrow passage between the rock and the sea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and so inclosed by high steep hills, as to be almost inaccessible that way. It has but two gates on that side, and as many towards the sea. Across this isthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garrison of Gibraltar from having any intercourse with the country behind them; notwithstanding which they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garrison is however confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces scarcely anything, all their provisions are brought them either from England or from Ceuta, on the opposite coast of Barbary. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing those abuses which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magistrates.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca and Yvica, of which we have nothing particular to say. Minorca, which was taken by the English in 1708, under general Stanhope, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht 1713, was retaken by the Spaniards the last war, February 15, 1782, but has lately fallen again into the possession of Great Britain. It contains about 27,000 inhabitants.

Commerce and manufactures.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themselves, make gold and silver the chief branches of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. Hither (says Mr Anderson, in his History of Commerce) other European nations send their merchandise, to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, sheltered (or, as our old English phrase has it, coloured) under the names of the Spanish factors. Those foreign nations have here their agents and correspondents: and the consuls of those nations make a considerable figure. Cadiz has been said to have the finest storehouses and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treasures of Spanish America. The proper Spanish merchandises exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandise sent thither would yield a great revenue, (and consequently the profits of merchants and their agents would sink,) were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding those duties."

At St Ildefonso the glass manufacture is carried on to a degree of perfection unknown in England. The largest mirrors are made in a brass frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and six deep, weighing near 9 tons. These are designed wholly for the royal palaces, and for presents from the king. Yet even for such purposes it is ill placed, and proves a devouring monster in a country where provisions are dear, fuel scarce, and carriage exceedingly expensive. Here is also a royal manufacture of linen, employing about 15 looms; by which it is said the king is a considerable loser.

In the city of Valencia there is a very respectable silk manufacture, in which five thousand looms, and three hundred stocking frames, give employment to upwards of 20,000 of the inhabitants, without enumerating those who exercise professions relative to the manufacture, such as persons who prepare the wood and iron work of so great a number of machines, or spin, wind, or dye the silk. At Alcoa, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been successfully established; and they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, their best apartments are floored with these, and are remarkable for neatness, for coolness, and for elegance. They are stronger and much more beautiful than those of Holland.

At Carthagena they make great quantities of the esparto ropes and cables, some of them spun like hemp, and others plaited. Both operations are performed with singular rapidity. These cables are excellent, because they float on the surface of the water, and are not therefore liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coast. The esparto rush makes good mats for houses, alpargates or short trousers and buskins for peasants, and latterly it has been spun into fine thread for the purpose of making cloth. If properly encouraged,
there is no doubt that the manufacture may be brought to such perfection, as to make
this once useless rush a source of abundant wealth to the southern provinces of Spain,
for it is the peculiar and natural production of all the high and uncultivated mountains
of the south.

As to the hempen cordage which is made in Spain, for the use of the royal navy, M.
de Bourgoanne observes, that it is better and more durable than that of the principal
dock-yards and magazines in Europe; because, in combining the hemp, all the towy part
we leave in it was taken out, and made use of in caulking, whence results the double
advantage of more solid cordage, and the better caulking of vessels. Another custom
in our rope-yards, which the Spaniards have avoided adopting, is the tarring the cordage
and keeping it a long time piled up. In this state the tar ferments, and eats the hemp,
and the cordage is extremely apt to break after being used but a short space of time.
The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; at present they are able
do without the assistance, in this article, of any other nation. The kingdom of
Granada already furnishes them with the greatest part of the hemp they use, and, in
case of need, they may have recourse to Arragon and Navarre. All the sail-cloth and
cordage in the magazines at Cadiz are made with Spanish hemp; the texture of which
is even, close, and solid.

The most important production of this country, and the most valuable article of com-
merce, is barilla, a species of pot-ash, procured by burning a great variety of plants al-
most peculiar to the kingdom of Valencia and Murcia, such as soza, algasul, suzon,
sayenner, salicornia, with barilla. It is used for making soap, for bleaching, and for
glass. All the nations in Europe, by the combustion of various vegetable substances,
make some kind of pot-ash; but the superior excellence of the barilla has hitherto se-
cured the preference. The country producing it is about sixty leagues in length, and
eight in breadth, on the borders of the Mediterranean. The quantity exported an-
ually from Spain, (according to the testimonies of both Mr Townsend, and M. de
Bourgoanne) is about a hundred and fifty quintals, most of which is sent to France and
England, and a small quantity to Genoa, and Venice.

Spain is one of the richest countries in Europe in salt-petre, a most important article
of commerce. The account of this surprizing manufacture we shall abridge from Mr
Townsend. "I observed," says he, "a large enclosure, with a number of mounts of
about twenty feet high, at regular distances from each other. These were collected
from the rubbish of the city of Madrid, and the scrapings of the highways. They had
remained all the winter piled up in the manner in which I found them. At this time
men were employed in wheeling them away, and spreading abroad the earth to the
thickness of about one foot, whilst others were turning what had been previously expos-
ed to the influence of the sun and air. The preceding summers these heaps had been
washed, and being thus exposed, would yield the same quantity of salt again, and as far as
appears the produce would never fail; but, after having been washed, no salt-petre
can be obtained without a subsequent exposure. Some of this earth they can lixiviate once
a year, some they have washed twenty times in the last seven years, and some they have
subjected to this operation fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye when
they may wash it to advantage, and by their taste if it has yielded a lixivium of a pro-
per strength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtain the salt-
petre."

The other manufactures of Spain are chiefly of wool, copper, and hard-ware. Great
efforts have been made by the government to prevent the other European nations from
reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but these never can be suc-
cessful, till a spirit of industry is awakened among the natives, so as to enable them to
supply their American possessions with their own commodities and merchandize.
Meanwhile, the good faith and facility with which the English, French, Dutch, and
other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than
the Spaniards themselves are, the clear profits seldom amounting to less than 20 per cent.
This evidently makes it an important concern, that those immense riches should belong to
the Spaniards, rather than to any active European nation; but I shall have occasion to
touch on this subject in the account of America.
SPAIN.

Constitution and Government.] Spain from being the most free, is now the most despotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is so visible in most parts of the country, is in a great degree the result of its government, in the administration of which no proper attention is paid to the interests and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of succession. It has even been questioned, whether his catholic majesty may not bequeath his crown, upon his demise, to any branch of the royal family he pleases. It is at least certain, that the house of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the last will of Charles II.

The cortes or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, especially in Castile, had greater power and privileges than those of England, are now abolished; but some faint remains of their constitution are still discernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the control of the king.

The privy council, which is composed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, sits only to prepare matters, and to digest papers for the cabinet council or junta, which consists of the first secretary of state, and three or four more named by the king, and in them resides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cognisance of military affairs only. The council of Castile is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audiences, are those of Gallicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valencia, and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within fifteen miles of their respective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior jurisdictions. Besides these there are many subordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of business.

The government of Spanish America forms a system of itself, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magistrates, who are in their respective districts almost absolute. A council for the Indies is established in Old Spain, and consists of a governor, four secretaries, and twenty two counsellors, besides officers. Their decision is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally chosen from the viceroys and magistrates who have served in that country. The two great viceregalities of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom trusted to one person for more than three years; but they are thought sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Masulquiver, on the coast of Barbary, in Africa; and the islands of St Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Asia.

Military and Marine Strength.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace are never fewer than 70,000; but in case of war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His present catholic majesty has been at great care and expense to raise a powerful marine; which has been considerably diminished since the war with Great Britain. They had, however, (July 29, 1799,) in the Mediterranean 25 ships of the line. All along the coast of Spain are watch towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, so that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be soon alarmed in case of an invasion.

Revenues.] The revenues arising to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000l. sterling, though some say eight, and they form the surest support to his government. His American income, it is true, is immense, but it is generally in a manner embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the silver mines that are worked; but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in case of a war, or any public emergency, to sequestrate into his own hands great part of the American treasures belonging to his subjects, who never complain, because they are always punctually repaid with interest. The finances of his present catholic majesty before the French revolution, were in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himself and his people, than those of any of his predecessors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much suited to convenience, that we cannot fix them with any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houses, lands, timber, and provisions; the clergy and military orders are likewise taxed.
ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS. Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms; all of which, with several others, were by name entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to about 32. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of his Catholic Majesty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword, without being crowned. Their signature never mentions their name, but, I THE KING. Their eldest son is called prince of Asturias, and their younger children, of both sexes, are by way of distinction called infants or infantes, that is, children.

The armorial bearings of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a shield, divided into four quarters, of which, the uppermost on the right hand, and the lowest on the left, contain a castle, or with three towers, for Castile; and in the uppermost on the left, and the lowest on the right; are three lion gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for those Spanish nobility and gentry, who are unmixt with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquisses, counts, viscounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

The Order of the Golden Fleece, particularly described before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and sovereign dukes; but the Spanish branch of it hath many French and Italian nobility; there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The Order of St James, or St Jago de Compostella, is the richest of all the orders of Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under a grand master, but the office of both was given by pope Alexander VI. to the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand-master, in their respective dominions. The order is highly esteemed in Spain, and only conferred on persons of noble families. The same may be said of the Order of Calatrava, first instituted by Sanchio, king of Toledo: it took its name from the castle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors, and here began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and possessions, were so considerable as to excite the jealousy of the crown, to which, at length, their revenues and the office of grand master were annexed by pope Innocent VIII. The celebrated Order of Alcantara derived its origin from the order of St Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief seat of the order, they assumed the name of Knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aside the old device of a pear-tree. This order is highly esteemed, and conferred only on persons of ancient and illustrious families. The Order of the Lady of Mercy is said to have been instituted by James I, king of Arragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was designed for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which they expended large sums of money. It was at first confined to men, but a lady of Barcelona afterwards got women included in it. This order possesses considerable revenues in Spain. The Order of Montesa was instituted at Valencia, at the close of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and enjoyed their possessions. Their chief seat being the town of Montesa, the order from thence derived its name, and chose St George for their patron. In the year 1761, the late king instituted, after his own name, the Order of Charles III. in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is, a star of eight points enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the cross is the image of the Virgin Mary, vestments white and blue. On the reverse the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, Virtuti et Merito. None but persons of noble descent can belong to this order.

HISTORY OF SPAIN. Spain was probably first peopled by the Celtae from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow strait of Gibraltar. The Phoenicians sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the rise of Rome and Carthage, the possession of this kingdom be-
came an object of contention between those powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their possession until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided this kingdom among them, but in the year 584, the Goths again became the masters.

These, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who about the end of the seventh century, had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and not content with the immense regions that formerly composed great part of the Assyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they cross the Mediterranean, ravage Spain, and establish themselves in the southerly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the first Old Spanish prince who distinguished himself against these infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania), and he took the title of king of Asturia, about the year 720. His successes animated other Christian princes to take arms likewise, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were superior to all their contemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulraham line kept possession of the throne near 300 years. Learning flourished in Spain, while the rest of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Moorish princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief ministers proud and insolent. A series of civil wars ensued, which at last overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulraham. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent sovereign. Now, every adventurer was entitled to the conquests he made upon the Moors, till Spain at last was divided into 12 or 13 kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his son, Alphonso, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himself king. A series of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Isabella the heiress, and afterwards queen of Castile, who took Granada, and expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews, who would not be converts to the Christian faith, to the number of 170,000 families. I shall in their proper places, mention the vast acquisitions made at this time to Spain by the discovery of America, and the first expeditions of the Portuguese to the East Indies, by the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope; but the successes of both nations were attended with disagreeable consequences.

The expulsion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artists, labourers, and manufacturers; and the discovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards most deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the popish inquisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a safeguard against the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the house of Austria, and emperor of Germany, succeeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1516. The extensive possessions of the house of Austria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immense treasures, began to alarm the jealousy of neighbouring princes, but could not satisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him constantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own protestant subjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. He also reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At last, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a resolution that filled all Europe with astonishment, the withdrawing himself entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and solitude.

Charles, of all his vast possessions, reserved nothing for himself but an annual pension of 100,000 crowns, and chose for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by
Agreeably to this resolution, he resigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the presence of his principal nobility, to his son Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the house of Austria into two branches; Spain, with all its possessions in Africa and the New World, also the Netherlands, and some Italian states, remained with the elder branch, whilst the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, which they still possess.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was austere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cause of popery. His marriage with queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like himself, his unsuccessful addresses to her sister Elizabeth, his resentment and unsuccessful wars with that princess, his tyranny and persecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loss of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned in the history of those countries.

In Portugal he was more successful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian, about the year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a fine army, in a headstrong, unjust, and ill-concerted expedition against the Moors in Africa; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal asserted a prior right. By this acquisition Spain became possessed of the Portuguese settlements in India, some of which she still holds.
The descendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had so totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almost unmolested in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once so tyrannical and insolent over the Portuguese, that in the reign of Philip IV. in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conspiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne, and ever since, Portugal has been a distinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Austrian line, failing in the person of Charles II. who left no issue, Philip duke of Anjou, second son to the Dauphin of France, and grandson to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, in virtue of his predecessor’s will, by the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the house of Austria, supported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the conclusion of the war, by the shameful peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. through a masterly train of politics (for in his wars to support his grandson, as we have already observed, he was almost ruined), accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the Indies, from the house of Austria, to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his son Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their sovereign, through the oppression of the Imperialists.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand VI., a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuses, and wanted to promote the commerce and prosperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother, Charles III. then king of Naples, and the Two Sicilies, son so Philip V. by his wife the princess of Parma.

He was so warmly attached to the family-compact of the house of Bourbon, that two years after his accession, he even hazarded his American dominions to support it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havana, in the island of Cuba, and thereby rendered herself entirely mistress of the navigation of the Spanish Plate fleets. Notwithstanding the success of the English, their ministry thought proper hastily to conclude a peace, in consequence of which Havana was restored to Spain. In 1773, an expedition was concerted against Algiers by the Spanish ministry, which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eastward of the city of Algiers; but were disgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take shelter on board their ships, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2038 wounded. In the years 1783, and 1784, they also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy it, but, after spending much ammunition, and losing many lives, were forced to retire without doing it much injury.

When the war between Great Britain and her American colonies had subsisted for some time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was also prevailed upon to commence hostilities against Great Britain. In particular, the Spaniards closely besieged Gibraltar, both by sea and land: it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortress should be possessed by the English. The grand attack was made on the 13th of September 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ships, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, carrying in all 212 brass guns, entirely new, and discharging shot of 26 pounds weight. The showers of shot and shells which were directed from them, from their land-batteries, and on the other hand from the various works of the garrison, exhibited a scene, of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furnish a competent idea. It is sufficient to say, that four hundred pieces of the heaviest artillery were playing at the same moment: an instance which has scarcely occurred in any siege since the invention of those wonderful engines of destruction.
The irresistible impression of the red hot balls, which were sent from the garrison in such numbers and in such directions, was soon conspicuous; for in the afternoon smoke was perceived to issue from the admiral's ship and another, and by one in the morning several were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ships as signals of distress. To rescue from the flames those who were now incapable of acting as enemies, could not be done without the greatest hazard, by reason of the blowing up of the ships; and the previous discharge of the guns as the fire reached them; yet in defiance of every danger, brigadier Curtis, distinguished himself in an eminent manner in this humane undertaking, and with twelve gun-boats saved nine officers, two priests, and 334 men, all Spaniards; besides one officer, and eleven Frenchmen, who had floated in the preceding evening.

Thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortress of Gibraltar. But great as was the bravery of the British garrison, which deserves every encomium, the small numbers of the killed and wounded are alone sufficient to shew that they must have been assisted by very strong fortifications, or it was impossible that any skill whatever could have resisted such tremendous power. Some trifling operations continued on the side of the Spaniards till the restoration of peace in 1783.

In other enterprises, however, the Spaniards proved more successful. The island of Minorca was surrendered to them on the 6th of February 1782, after having been besieged for 171 days. The garrison consisted of no more than 2602 men, while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spanish commander at first attempted to corrupt the governor (general Murray); but this being rejected with indignation, the siege was commenced in form; and the garrison would have shaved themselves equally invincible with those of Gibraltar, had it been possible to relieve them in the same manner. The scurvy soon made its appearance, and reduced them to such a deplorable situation, that they were at last obliged to surrender, in spite of every effort of human fortitude or skill; and so sensible were both parties that this was the true cause, that the Spanish general allowed them to march out with their arms shouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, while the disconsolate British soldiers protested that they surrendered their arms to God, and not to the Spaniards.

His late catholic majesty did all he could to oblige his subjects to desist from their ancient dress and manners, and carried his endeavours so far, that it occasioned so dangerous an insurrection at Madzid, as obliged him to part with his minister, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an instance of the necessity that even despotic princes are under, of paying some attention to the inclinations of their subjects.

The government of Spain testified much uneasiness at the French revolution, and watched narrowly those who spoke in favour of its principles. The circulation of all public papers and political pamphlets from France was severely prohibited. They published a proclamation against tinkers and knife grinders, introducing seditious papers into the kingdom, and a rescript concerning strangers.

A short war arose between the Spaniards and the emperor of Morocco. The emperor besieged Ceuta, but peace is since restored. It was unjustly surmised that this war was entered into, in order to divert the attention of the people, who might be impressed with the affairs of France.

The sudden dismissal of count Florida Blanca from the office of prime minister, originated in causes not disclosed. It is imagined that the court found this step necessary, to appease the public murmurs at some late measures, particularly the edict concerning strangers, which contributed to impose further fetters upon commerce, and which has since been repealed. On the 28th of February 1792, the minister was removed; he has since been imprisoned in the castle of Pampluna, and is to be tried for various offences; and count d'Aranda, an old statesman, a warm friend of the queen and nobility of France, succeeded to his employments, till some other arrangement could be formed. It is said, he abolished the superintendent tribunal of police, a kind of civil inquisition; and in other liberal measures appeared to see the real interests of monarchs, which is certainly to concede with grace, in order to prevent the despair of the people.
from recurring to force. His influence, however, was but short; and has been succeeded by that of the duke d’Alcuad.

After the trial of the king of France, previous to the passing of his sentence, the Spanish court made an application in his favour, which was rejected with insolence and contempt, and shortly afterwards war was declared against Spain by the National Convention. The army appointed to this war was entrusted to general Dugommier, whose operations were all successful, almost without the smallest interruption. On the 21st of June he seized upon a manufactory of arms, which belonged to the Spaniards, great part of which he added to his military stores. Shortly afterwards he defeated the Count de l’Union, who had made a bold attempt for the relief of Bellegarde, which was at this time closely pressed. The Spanish general had been reinforced by several foreign battalions lately arrived from Africa, whose impetuosity obliged the republicans at first to give way. They soon rallied, however, regained the heights from which they had at first been dislodged; and the Spaniards were completely defeated, leaving two thousand five hundred dead on the field of battle. Bellegarde, being thus deprived of every chance of relief, submitted to general Dugommier on the 20th of the following month. The garrison consisted of 6000 men. On the day after its surrender, the Count de l’Union made another spirited attempt to dislodge the French, but was completely repulsed with the loss of 600 men and four pieces of cannons. The French general Dugommier was soon after killed by a shell as he ascended the Black Mountain, the better to direct the military operations. On the 20th of the same month his great opponent the Count de l’Union was killed, with three other Spanish generals, near St Fernandez de Figueres. For the defence of this post, the Spaniards had spent upwards of six months in erecting from eighty to one hundred batteries mounted with heavy cannon. Their force amounted to forty thousand men strongly entrenched; and yet they were put to flight, and the batteries carried by the republicans in three hours.

The Spaniards were equally unsuccessful in the actions which were fought at the Western Pyrenees. Several redoubts were stormed and carried by the republican general Delaforde. Great numbers of the Spaniards were killed, and three hundred and twenty prisoners were taken, with twenty pieces of cannon, two hundred tents, and great quantities of ammunition and small arms. On the 1st of August fifteen thousand Spaniards fled before a body of six thousand French. By this retreat, immense magazines, two thousand muskets, six stand of colours, two hundred cannon and howitzers, tents for twenty-five thousand men, and two thousand prisoners, among whom were two entire regiments, who grounded their arms, fell into the hands of the conquerors. On the same evening Fontarabia, which guards the entrance into Spain, was taken almost instantaneously by a detachment of the French army. The Spanish troops were so disheartened by these repeated defeats, that they fled at the first approach of the enemy. A line of posts had been established upwards of forty leagues in extent; all these entrenchments were carried with the bayonet, and the works destroyed. The French general endeavoured to surround the Spaniards, but, being favoured by a thick fog, they were enabled to retreat to Sangonella, with the loss of two thousand five hundred men, and an equal number of prisoners. During the rest of this war, defeat succeeded defeat, and one calamity was quickly followed by another still more disastrous; not one gleam of success ever dawned upon the Spanish arms, and the march of the army to Madrid was prevented by the disgraceful submission of the Spanish monarch. A treaty was speedily concluded in which the Spaniards ceded to France their part of St Domingo, and the French agreed to relinquish all their conquests on the Spanish territory.

Spain being now entirely under the dominion of France, was driven, by the mischievous influence of her ally, into a war with England, which it is probable was as much against her inclination as her interest. War, however, was proclaimed at Madrid in the usual form, and a fleet was shortly after equipped, which was defeated off Cape St Vincent by Sir J. Jervis.

At present Spain is ripe for a revolution: independently of the successful efforts of the Directorial Emissaries to propagate Jacobinical principles throughout the country, there are circumstances in the domestic policy of that government, which have served to mature the seeds of disaffection, and to alienate the minds of the people from the na-
tural objects of their attachment. A monarch incapable of holding the reins of government; and a queen, rioting in excesses, that sink her beneath the lowest of her subjects. Upstart succeeds to upstart, and minion to minion, in monopolizing the good graces, and in engrossing the misplaced bounty, of this profligate princess. The successor to the Prince of Peace is one Mallo a low miscreant, devoted to the French interest; in whose behalf the queen has had recourse to an act, of which it is difficult to say, whether its extreme folly or its flagrant injustice are most conspicuous. The multiplicity of small notes in circulation, of a particular description, has long been a subject of general complaint in the Spanish dominions, and various means for paying them off have at different times been suggested. At length it was determined to devote to this purpose some rich territorial possessions belonging to the University of Salamanca. The estates were accordingly taken; but instead of employing them as proposed, the queen gave the most extensive and valuable of them, the Marquisate of Saint Bartholomew, to her new favourite, who actually enjoys the title and the territory.

Equal attention has been paid to the wishes of the French in the appointment of Ministers and Officers of State, and Bonaparte continues to possess the same influence in the councils of this subjugated country, as had been formerly obtained by the Directory. Their late declaration of war against Portugal may be regarded as a proof of their being entirely devoted to France; though it is probable this decisive measure may have been adopted by Spain rather as a matter of policy, to avoid, by this act of submission, the danger and expense of a French army marching through their country, than with any serious intention of carrying on effectual hostilities.

Charles IV. king of Spain, born November 11, 1748; ascended the throne December 13, 1788, (upon the death of his father Charles III.) and was married to Louisa-Maria-Theresa, princess of Parma, September 4, 1765, by whom he has issue.

2. Mary Louisa, born July 9, 1777.
3. Philip, born August 10, 1783.
4. Ferdinand, born October 14, 1784.
5. Maria Isabella, born July 6, 1789.
6. A Prince, March 10, 1794.

Brothers to the king:

1. Ferdinand, the present king of the two Sicilies, born in 1751, married in 1768 to the arch-duchess Mary Cardire-Louisa, sister to Joseph II. late emperor of Germany.
2. Anthony Pascal, born December 31, 1755.

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PORTUGAL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
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<tr>
<td>Length 300</td>
<td>between $37^\circ$ and $42^\circ$ North latitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 100</td>
<td>$7^\circ$ and $10^\circ$ West longitude.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Containing 32,000 square miles, with 72 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES. This country is bounded by Spain on the north and East, and on the South and West by the Atlantic Ocean, being the most westerly kingdom on the continent of Europe.
ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Lusitania, the etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It most probably is derived from some noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for so strangers are called in the Celtic) resorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and southern provinces.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provinces.</th>
<th>Chief towns.</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
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<tr>
<td>The Northern Division contains</td>
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<tr>
<td>Entre Minho</td>
<td>Braga</td>
<td>6914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Douro, and</td>
<td>Oporto and Viana</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tralos Montes</td>
<td>Miranda and Villa Real</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bica</td>
<td>Coimbra</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Guarda Castel Rodrigo</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Lisbon</td>
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<td></td>
<td>38-42 N. lat.</td>
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<td>8-58 W. lon.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>St Ubos and Leira</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Middle Division contains</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Estremadura</td>
<td>Ebro, or Evora</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lagos</td>
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<tr>
<td>The Southern Division contains</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Entre Tajo</td>
<td>Portalegre, Elvas, Beja</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadiana</td>
<td>Lagos</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alentejo</td>
<td>Faro, Tavara, and Silves</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Algarva</td>
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<td>8397</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the same as in Spain, but not so highly flavoured. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be very friendly to the human constitution, and safe to drink *. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marble, and mill stones, and a fine mine of salt-petre near Lisbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, especially about Lisbon, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients; it is not so searching as that of Spain, being refreshed from the sea-breezes.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are those which divide Algarva from Alentejo; those of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Lisbon at the mouth of the Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portuguese rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic ocean. The Tagus or Tajo was celebrated for its golden sand. Portugal contains several roaring lakes and springs; some of them are absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork, and feathers; some, particularly one about 45 miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and sanative; and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province, of Algarva.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal are, Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondago: Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Espithel, at the south entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west point of Algarva. The bays are those of Cadoan, or St Ubos, south of Lisbon, and Lagos bay in Algarva.

ANIMALS.] The sea-fish, on the coast of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are sure, and serviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horses, though slight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the best calculation, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants. By a survey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom 3,344 parishes, and 1,742,230 lay persons.

* The port-wines are made in the districts round Oporto, which does not produce one half the quantity that is consumed, under that name, in the British dominions only. The merchants in this city have spacious wine vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is said that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.
(which is but 522 laity to each parish on a medium), besides above 300,000, ecclesiastics of both sexes.

The modern Portuguese retain nothing of that adventurous enterprising spirit that rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. They have, ever since the house of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues; though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them, and no people are so little obliged as the Portuguese are to the reports of historians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakness of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of disobligeing their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the source of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate passion for revenge. They are, if possible, more superstitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more state than the Spaniards themselves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practised; and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers. It is hard, however, to say what alteration may be made in the character of the Portuguese, by the expulsion of the Jesuits, and diminution of the papal influence among them; but, above all, by that spirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, though to the interest of their own country, is now so much encouraged by their court and ministry.

The Portuguese are neither so tall nor so well made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate, only the quality affect to be more gaily and richly dressed. The Portuguese ladies are thin and small in stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed to be generous, modest and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal personages. The furniture of the houses, especially of their grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain an incredible number of domestics, as they never discharge any who survive, after serving their ancestors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit always cross-legged on the ground. The Portuguese peasant has never reaped any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vast countries the kings of Portugal possessed in Africa or in the East; or of those still remaining to them in South America. The only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; and when his feeble purse can reach it, he purchases a dried Newfoundland cod-fish; but this is a regale he dares seldom aspire to. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a salted pilchard, or a head of a garlick, to give that bread a flavour, compose his standing dish; and if he can get a bit of the hog, the ox, or the calf, he himself fatten, to regale his wretched family at Christmas or Easter, he has reached the pinnacle of happiness in this world; and indeed, whatever he possessed beyond this habitual penury, according to the present state and exertions of his intellects, would quickly be taken from him, or rather he would willingly part with it, being taught by his numberless ghostly comforters with which his country swarms, to look for ease and happiness to another state of existence, to which they are themselves infallible guides and conductors.

_CURIOSITIES._] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned, form the chief of these. The remains of some castles in the Moorish taste are still standing. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almost entire, and deservedly admired. The walls of Santarem are said to be of Roman work likewise. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpressibly magnificent; and several monasteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St Roch is probably one of the finest and richest in the world; the paintings are mosaic work, so curiously wrought with stones of all colours, as to astonish the beholders. To these curiosities we may add, that the king is possessed of the largest diamond (which was found in Brasil), that ever was perhaps seen in the world.

_UNIVERSITIES._] These are Coimbra, founded in 1291 by King Dennis, and which had fifty professors; but it has been lately put under some new regulations. Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Lisbon, where the young nobility are educat-
ed in every branch of polite learning and the sciences. All the books that belonged to the banished Jesuits are kept here, which compose a very large library. The English language is likewise taught in this college. Here is also a college where young gentlemen are educated in the science of engineering, and when qualified get commissions in that corps.

Learning and Learned Men.] These are so few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by those of the Portuguese themselves who have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable state of ignorance. It is universally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education.—The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world besides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for some time after Camoens, who himself was a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

Language.] The Portuguese language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Paternoster runs thus: Padre nosso que estas nos Coos, sanctificado seis o tu nome, venhu a nos tua regna, seja feita a tua votade, assi nos Coos, como na terra. O paonesa de cadadia, dano f o seu nestro dia. E perdoa os senhor, as nossas divisas, assi como nos perdoamos a nos nossos devedores. E náo nos dexes cahir ou tentatio, mas libra nos do mal. Amen.

Religion.] The established religion of Portugal is popery in the strictest sense. The Portuguese have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unless when a quarrel subsisted between the courts of Rome and Lisbon. The power of his holiness in Portugal has been of late so much curtailed, that it is difficult to describe the religious state of that country: all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly increased, at the expense of the religious institutions in that kingdom. The power of the inquisition is now taken out of the hands of the ecclesiastics, and converted to a state-trap for the benefit of the crown.

Archbishops and Bishops.] The archbishops are those of Braga, Evora, and Lisbon. The first of these has ten suffragan bishops; the second two; and the last ten, including those of the Portuguese settlements abroad. The patriarch of Lisbon is generally a cardinal, and a person of the highest birth.

Chief Cities.] Lisbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which also set the remainder on fire, upon All Saints day, 1555. It still contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its situation (rising from the Tagus in the form of a crescent) renders its appearance at once delightful and superb, and it is deservedly accounted the greatest port in Europe, next to London and Amsterdam. The harbour is spacious and secure, and the city itself is guarded from any sudden attack towards the sea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence against ships of war. All that part of the city that was demolished by the earthquake, is planned out in the most regular and commodious form. Some large squares and many streets are already built. The streets form right angles, and are broad and spacious. The houses are lofty, elegant, and uniform; and being built of white stone, make a beautiful appearance. The second city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain thirty-thousand inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the shops in the city are coopers. The merchants assemble daily in the chief street, to transact business; and are protected from the sun by sail-cloths hung across from the opposite houses. About thirty English families reside here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

Commerce and Manufactures.] These, within these seven or eight years, have taken a surprising turn in Portugal. The ministry have projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again, complained of as unjust and oppressive, and inconsistent with the privileges which the British merchants formerly enjoyed by the most solemn treaties.

The Portuguese exchange their wine, salt, and fruits, and most of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk, and woollen, with a variety of straw wok, and are excellent in preserving and candying.
fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engross all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, sugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Brasil; her ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of Africa and East Asia, in exchange for the almost numberless manufactures, and the vast quantity of corn and salt-fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the English North American colonies.

The Portuguese foreign settlements are, however, not only of immense value, but vastly improvable; Brasil, the isles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring gold from their plantations on the east and west coast of Africa, and likewise slaves for manufacturing their sugars and tobacco, in Brasil, and their South American settlements.

What the value of these may be, is unknown perhaps to themselves; but they certainly abound in all the precious stones, and rich mines of gold and silver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spanish dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold sent from Brasil amounts annually to three hundred thousand pounds sterling, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade. The little shipping the Portuguese have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the slave trade, and a correspondence with Goa, their chief settlement in the East Indies, and their other possessions there, as Diu, Daman, Macao, &c.

REVENUE AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above three millions and a half sterling, annually. The customs and duties on goods exported and imported are excessive, and farmed out; but if the Portuguese ministry should succeed in all their projects, and in establishing exclusive companies, to the prejudice of the British trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear those taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandise pays 2½ per cent. on importation, and fish from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fish taken in the neighbouring seas and rivers pay 27 per cent, and the tax upon lands and cattle that are sold is 10 per cent. The king draws a considerable revenue from the several orders of knighthood, of which he is grand-master. The pope, in consideration of the large sums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money arising from indulgences and licences to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now greatly increased by the suppression of the Jesuits, and other religious orders and institutions.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is absolute; but the nation still preserves an appearance of its ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortees or states, consisting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility, and commons. They pretend to a right of being consulted upon the imposition of new taxes; but the only real power they have, is, that their assent is necessary in every new regulation, with regard to the succession. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future disputes on that account.

The nature of this government may be fairly pronounced the most despotic of any kingdom in Europe. The established law is generally a dead letter, excepting where its decrees are carried into execution by the supplementary mandates of the sovereign, which are generally employed in defeating the purposes of safety and protection, which law is calculated to extend equally over all the subjects.

Here the people have no more share in the direction of government, in enacting of laws, and in the regulating of agriculture and commerce, than they have in that of Russia, or China. The far greater part know nothing of what is done in that respect. Every man has no alternative but to yield a blind and ready obedience, in whatever concerns himself, to the decrees and laws of the despot, as promulgated from time to time by his secretaries of state. How would an Englishman, alive to all the feelings of civil liberty, tremble at reading the preamble of every new law published here; and which runs thus: “I, the king, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleasure, and of my full supreme and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God, and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, I do in consequence order and command, &c.”

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, are disposed of in the council of state, which is composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treasury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the highest tribunal that can receive appeals.
but the Casa da Supplicacao is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

Royal Titles and Arms.] The king's titles are, King of Portugal and the Algervies, Lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conquest, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and Brasil. The last king was complimented by the pope, with the title of His Most Faithful Majesty. That of his eldest son is Prince of Brasil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five escutcheons, azure, placed crosswise, each charged with as many besants as the first, placed saltierwise, and pointed, sable, for Portugal. The shield bordered, gules, charged with seven towers, or three in chief, and two in each fitchet.—The supporters are two winged dragons, and the crest a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the base of the shield appears at the end of it; two crosses, the two first flower de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the second patee, gules for the order of Christ; the motto is changeable, each king assuming a new one; but it is frequently these words, pro Rege et Greve, “For the King and the People.”

Military and Marine Strength.] The Portuguese government used to depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore, for many years, they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but the same friendly connexion between Great Britain and Portugal does not at present subsist. In the late reign, though they received the most effectual assistance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his Most Faithful Majesty judged it expedient to raise a considerable body of troops, who were chiefly disciplined by foreign officers; but since that period the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the discipline of the troops, so that the military force of Portugal is now again incon siderable, amounting it is said to twenty-five thousand men. The naval force of this kingdom is about seventeen ships of war, including six frigates.

Nobility and Orders.] The title and distinctions of their nobility are much the same as those of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of Aois, or Aovie, first instituted by Alphonsus Henriquez, king of Portugal, in the year 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1212, it was subject to the order of Calatrava in Spain, but when Don John of Portugal seiz’d the crown, he made it again independent. 2. The “Order of St James” instituted by Dennis I. king of Portugal, in the year 1310, supposing that under that saint’s protection he became victorious over the Moors; and he endowed it with great privileges. The knights profess chastity, hospitality, and obedience, and none are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their ensign is a red sword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela. 3. The “Order of Christ” was instituted in the year 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, to engage the nobility to assist him more powerfully against the Moors. The knights obtained great possessions and elected their grand master, till 1522, when pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his successors to the crown of Portugal. These orders have small commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but are in small esteem. The “Order of Malta” hath likewise 22 commanderies in Portugal.

History of Portugal.] This kingdom comprehends the greatest part of the ancient Lusitania, and shared the same fate with the other Spanish provinces in the contests between the Carthaginians and Romans, and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, and was successively in subjection to the Suevi, Alans, Visigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alphonsus VI. king of Castile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandson of Robert king of France, for his bravery and assistance against the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Christians. Henry was succeeded by his son Alphonsus Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a decisive victory over five Moorish kings, in July 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonsus was then proclaimed king by his soldiers. He reigned 46 years, and was esteemed for his courage and love of learning.—His descendants maintained themselves on the throne for some centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his dominions for cowardice in the year 1240.
Dennis I. or Dionysius, was called the Father of his Country; he built and rebuilt 44 cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Christ, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned 46 years.—Under his successor Alphonso IV. happened several earthquakes at Lisbon, which threw down part of the city and destroyed many lives.—John I. was illustrious for his courage, prudence, and conquests in Africa; under him Madeira was first discovered in 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and, after a reign of 49 years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonso V. about 1480, the Portuguese discovered the coast of Guinea; and in the reign of his successor John II. they discovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, and settled colonies, and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the East Indies; Emanuel, summoned the Great, succeeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predecessors, fitting out fleets for new discoveries. Vasco de Gama, under him, cruised along the coast of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indostan; and in the year 1500 Alvarez discovered Brasil.

John III. succeeded in 1521, and while he lost some of his African acquisitions, made new acquisitions in the Indies. He sent the famous Xavier as a missionary to Japan, and, in the height of his zeal, established that infernal tribunal the inquisition, in Portugal, anno 1556, against the entreaties and remonstrances of his people. Sebastian his grandson succeeded him in 1557, and undertook a crusade against the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either slain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebastian, being the son of Emanuel, succeeded, but died without issue in the year 1580; on which, Anthony, Prior of Crato, was chosen king by the states of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, as hath been observed in our history of that country, pretended the crown belonged to him, because his mother was the eldest daughter of Emanuel, and sent the duke of Alva with a powerful force, who subdued the country and proclaimed his master king of Portugal, on the 12th Sept. 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two successors, Philip III. and Philip IV., behaved towards the Portuguese with great rapacity and violence. The Spanish ministers treated them as vassals of Spain, and, by their repeated acts of oppression and tyranny, they so kindled the hatred and courage of the Portuguese, as to produce a revolt at Lisbon, the first of December 1640. The people obliged John duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it, and he succeeded to the throne by the title of John IV. almost without bloodshed, and the foreign settlements also acknowledged him as their sovereign. A fierce war subsisted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to reunite them, proved vain, so that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared free and independent.

The Portuguese could not have supported themselves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and, upon the restoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princess of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain to give up all pretensions to that kingdom. Alphonso, son to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to disagree at once with his wife and his brother Peter; and they uniting their interests, not only forced Alphonso to resign his crown, but obtained a dispensation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually consummated. They had a daughter; but Peter by a second marriage had sons, the eldest of whom was John, his successor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confedency formed by king William; but neither of them were of much service in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, he almost ruined the allies, by occasioning the loss of the battle of Almanza in 1707.—John died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son Joseph, whose reign was neither happy to himself nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital and shook his kingdom to the centre. His succeeding administration was not distinguished by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it sustained abroad. It was deeply stained with domestic blood; and rendered odious by excessive and horrible cruelty. In September, 1758, the king was attacked by assassins, and narrowly escaped with his life in a solitary place near his country palace of Belem. Some of the first families of the kingdom were hereupon ruined, tortured, and nearly cut off from the face of the earth, in consequence of an
accusation being exhibited against them of having conspired against the king's life. But they were condemned without any proper evidence, and their innocence has since been authentically declared. From this supposed conspiracy is dated the expulsion of the Jesuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portuguese dominions. The marquis de Pombal, who was at this time the prime minister of Portugal, governed the kingdom for many years with a most unbounded authority, and which appears to have been sometimes directed to the most cruel and arbitrary purposes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards and their allies the French, attempted to force his faithful Majesty into their alliance, and offered to garrison his sea towns against the English with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this proposal, and declared war against the Spaniards, who, without resistance, entered Portugal with a considerable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of these courts were in earnest upon this occasion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in consideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that, had they been in earnest, they might have been masters of Lisbon long before the arrival of the English troops to the assistance of the Portuguese. However, a few English battalions put an effectual stop, by their courage and manoeuvres, to the progress of the invasion. Portugal was saved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau in 1763. Notwithstanding this eminent service performed by the English to the Portuguese, who often had been saved before in the like manner, the latter, ever since that period, cannot be said to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The most captious distinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portuguese ministers for cramping the English trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His Portuguese majesty having no son, his eldest daughter was married, by dispensation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was succeeded by his daughter the present queen. One of the first acts of her majesty's reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal; an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppressive nature of his administration; though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted sundry public measures which were calculated to promote the real interests of Portugal.

On the 10th of March, 1792, the prince of Brasil, as presumptive to the crown, published an edict, declaring, that as his mother, from her unhappy situation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his signature to public papers till the return of her health; and that no other change should be made in the forms.

The queen is disordered by religious melancholy; and Dr Willis has been called to cure her; but her recovery remaining hopeless, the government of the country rests with the prince of Brasil.

The government of Portugal joined the coalition against France, but was never able to afford any effectual assistance. At present, with a disaffected army and an inert people, she is ill calculated for a vigorous resistance, if attacked, and it is probable she will be forced to submit to such terms as are dictated by France.


Their Issue.

John Maria Joseph Lewis, born May 13, 1767; married March 20, 1785, Maria Louisa of Spain, born July 9, 1777.

The Issue by the late King.

1. Her present majesty.
3. Maria-Francisco Benedicta, born July 24, 1746; married in 1776, to her nephew the prince of Brasil, who died Sept. 11, 1788.
ITALY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.       Degrees.
Length  600  between  38 and 47 north latitude.
Breadth  400       and  7 and 19 east longitude.

Containing 116,967 square miles, with 170 inhabitants in each.

The form of Italy renders it very difficult to ascertain its extent and dimensions; for according to some accounts, it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to those of the dominions of the states of Venice, which is its greatest breadth, about 400 miles, though in some parts it is scarcely 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the East it is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or Adriatic Sea; on the South and West by the Mediterranean Sea; and on the North by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corsica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other islands, are divided and exhibited in the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ITALY.</th>
<th>COUNTRIES NAMES</th>
<th>SQUARE MILES</th>
<th>LENGTH</th>
<th>BREADTH</th>
<th>CHIEF TOWNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Piedmont</td>
<td>6619</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>Turin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To the king of Sardinia.</td>
<td>Montserrat</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Casal</td>
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<td>Alessandrine</td>
<td>204</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Alexandria</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oneglia</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Oneglia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sardinia I.</td>
<td>6600</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>Cagliari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To the king of Naples.</td>
<td>Naples</td>
<td>22,000</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Naples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sicily I.</td>
<td>9400</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>Palermo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To the Emperor.</td>
<td>Milan</td>
<td>5431</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Milan</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Mantua</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Mantua</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mirandola</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Mirandola</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Pope's dominions</td>
<td>14,348</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>Rome</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tuscany</td>
<td>6640</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>Florence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Massa</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Massa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To their respective Princes.</td>
<td>Parma</td>
<td>1925</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>Parma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Modena</td>
<td>2560</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Modena</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Piombino</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Piombino</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monaco</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lucca</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Lucca</td>
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<td></td>
<td>St Marino</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>St Marino</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Genoa</td>
<td>2400</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>Genoa</td>
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<tr>
<td>Republics.</td>
<td>Venice</td>
<td>8434</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>Venice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To the Emperor.</td>
<td>Istria</td>
<td>1245</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Capo d'Istris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dalmatia</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Zara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Savoy</td>
<td>3572</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Chambery</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Corsica I.</td>
<td>1520</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>Bastia</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Isles of Dalmatia</td>
<td>1364</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cephalonia</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Cephalonia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To France.</td>
<td>Corfu, or Corcya</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Corfu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Zant, or Zacyn</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Zant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>St Maura</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>St Maura</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Little Cephalonia</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ithaca cilm</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Total—97,072
SOIL AND AIR.] The happy soil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each district has its peculiar excellency and commodity: wines, the most delicious fruits, and oil, are the most general productions. As much corn grows here as serves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeses, particularly those called Parmesans, and their native silk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air; and some parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental causes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the most salubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almost pestilential, through the decrease of inhabitants, which has occasioned a stagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places covered with snow in winter. The Appenines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almost divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the south being warm, those on the north mild and temperate. The sea-breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconvenience of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Isco, and Garda in the North; the Perugia or Trasimene, Bracciana, Teri, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS, GULFS, OR BAYS, CATES, PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS.] Without a knowledge of these, neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the history nor geography of Italy, can be understood. The seas of Italy are, the gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic sea; the seas of Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Pisa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policastro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieste, Istria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alce, Otranto, and Ancora; the strait of Messina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian islands are those of Fiorenzo, Bastia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corso, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corsica; and the strait of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oristagni; Cape de Sardi, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Messina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuse, and Catania; cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Passaro, and Alessia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Ferajo, and Porto Longone, in the island of Elba.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the southern boundary between Italy and the ancient Cisalpine Gaul.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and the Appenines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Vesuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs; some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeate and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Iron and copper-mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating these metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected; and curious crystals and coral are found on the coast of Corsica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] Besides the rich vegetable productions mentioned under the article of soil, Italy produces citrons, and such quantities of chestnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or sea, and those of France and Germany already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great measure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The
number of the king of Sardinia's subjects in Italy about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itself, by the last accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the number of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of those who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have arisen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am apt to believe that the present inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and some other of the most beautiful parts of Italy, are at present in a manner desolate; but we are to consider that the modern Italians are in a great measure free from the unintermitting wars, not to mention the transmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and states of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; so that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we assign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but some calculations greatly exceed that number. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have such meaning in their looks, that they have greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. The women are well shaped, and very amorous. The marriage ties, especially those of the better sort, are said to be of very little value in Italy. Every wife has been represented to have her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom she keeps company, and sometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either side. But this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and indeed the representations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to have been much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the best quality of a modern Italian is sobriety, and they submit very patiently to the public government. With great taciturnity they discover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native customs, and seem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondness for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peasant can be luxurious at a very small expense. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many descendants of the ancient Romans, yet the present inhabitants speak of themselves as successors of the conquerors of the world, and look upon the rest of mankind with contempt.

The dress of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium from the French volatiliry and the solemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly drest in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in the fine arts; though they make but a very inconsiderable figure in the sciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal music at a very dear rate, by emasculating their males when young; to which their mercenary parents agree without remorse.

The Italians, the Venetians especially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many customs that are considered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their sons should throw themselves away by unsuitable marriages, or contract diseases by promiscuous aquors, hire mistresses for them for a month, or year, or some determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed and licensed trade. The Italian courtezans, or bona robas, as they are called, make a kind of profession in all the cities. Masquerading and gaming, horse races without riders, and conversations or assemblies, are the chief diversions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, describing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians, and their manner of living. Give what scope you please to your fancy, says he, you will never imagine half the disagreeableness that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian nastiness, offer to an Englishman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodation; but no words can express the wretchedness of the other inns. No other beds than those of

* Mr Swinburne saith, that in 1770, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples, amounted to 4,249,430 exclusive of the army and naval establishments.
straw, with a mattress of straw; and next to that a dirty sheet, sprinkled with water, and consequently damp; for a covering, you have another sheet as coarse as the first, like any of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedstead consists of four wooden forms or benches: an English peer or peeress must lie in this manner unless they carry an upholsterer's shop with them. There are, by the bye, no such things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been washed since it was first laid. One of the most indecent customs here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid-servant, if suffered. They never scour their pewter; their knives are of the same colour. In these inns they make you pay largely, and send up ten times as much as you can eat. The soup, like wash, with pieces of liver swimming in it; a plate full of brains fried in the shape of fritters; a dish of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any of the least kind of sauce or herbage; another fowl, just killed, stewed, as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roasted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are so stringy, you may divide the breast into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and generally speaking, it is the only eatable morsel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceedingly bad; and the butter so rancid, that it cannot be touched or even borne within the reach of your smell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, is the infinite number of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infest us by day and night.

Religion.] The religion of the Italians is Roman Catholic. The inquisition here is little more than a sound; and persons of all religions live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to their worship. In the Introduction, we have given an account of the rise and establishment of Popery in Italy, from whence it spread all over Europe; likewise of the causes and symptoms of its decline. The ecclesiastical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in describing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holiness, are seventy; but that number is seldom or never complete; they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal-patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amusing what he can. When met in a consistory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a scene where the cardinals principally endeavour to display their parts, and where many transactions pass which hardly shew their inspiration to be from the Holy Ghost. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animosities ran so high that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw their ink standishies at each other. We shall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows.

"I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the church of Rome.
"I do admit the holy scriptures in the same sense that the holy mother church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.
"I do profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, truly and properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage; and that they do confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I do also receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her solemn administration of the above-said sacraments.
I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent* concerning original sin and justification.

I do also profess that in the mass there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist, there is truly, really, and substantially, the body and blood, together with the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ; and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into blood; which conversion the catholic church calls Transubstantiation. I confess that, under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament is taken and received.

I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there do receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

I do likewise believe that the saints reigning together with Christ are to be worshipped and prayed unto; and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

I do most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them†.

I do likewise affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Christ to the church, and that the use of them is very beneficial to Christian people‡.

* A convocation of Roman catholic cardinals, archbishops, bishops, and divines, who assembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to suppress what they were plesed to term the Rising Heresies in the church.
† An English traveller, speaking of a religious procession some years ago at Florence, in Italy, describes it as follows. I had occasion, says he, to see a procession, where all the noblesse of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniversary of a charitable institution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of these virgins walked in procession, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in sackcloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies; but the greatest object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, standing within a gilt frame, dressed in a gold stuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of false jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the fashion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the cross, but when the Lady Mother appeared on the shoulders of three or four lusty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.
‡ A long list of indulgences, or fees of the pope's chancery, may be seen in a book printed 150 years ago, by the authority of the then pope. It has been translated into English under the title of Rome, a great Custom-House for Sin; from which we shall give a few extracts.

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that stole holy or consecrated things out of a holy place, 10s. 6d.
For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9s.
For a layman for murdering a laymen, 7s. 6d.
For him that killeth his father, mother, wife, or sister, 10s. 6d.
For laying violent hands on a clergyman, so it be without effusion of blood, 10s. 6d.
For a priest that keeps a concubine; as also his dispensation for being irregular, 10s. 6d.
For him that lyeth with his own mother, sister, or godmother, 7s. 6d.
For him that burns his neighbour's house, 12s.
For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1L. 7s.
For him that forgeth letters apostolical, 1L. 7s.
For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2l. 6s.
For a king for going to the holy sepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a bastard to enter all holy orders, 18s.
For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have Christian burial, 1L. 7s. 6d.

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to visit the apostolic churches, 15s.
To eat flesh and white meats in Lent and other fasting days, 10s. 6d.
That a king or queen shall enjoy such indulgencies, as if they went to Rome, 1L.
For a queen to adopt a child 3ooL.
To marry in times prohibited, 2l. 5s.
To eat flesh in times prohibited, 1L. 4s.
For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken sanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

FACULTIES.

To absolve all delinquents, 3l.
To dispense with irregularities, 3l.
"I do acknowledge the holy catholic, and apostolical Roman church to be the mother and mistress of all churches: and I do promise and swear true obedience to the bishop of Rome, the successor of St Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ."

"I do undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared, by the sacred canons and ecclesiastical councils, and especially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematized by the church, I do likewise condemn, reject, and anathematise."

**Learning and Learned Men, Painters,** In the Introduction we have particulars of some of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, since the revival of learning, some Italians have shone in controversial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own persuasion. The mathematics and natural philosophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, and several other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the history of the council of Trent, by the celebrated father Paul, is a standard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as historians by their several admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian, and as a political writer. His comedies have much merit; and the liberality of his sentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the most pure and correct in point of style; he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature; but among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, are the most distinguished. There are said to be upwards of a thousand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent; but Metastasio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces set to music. Sannazarius, Francesco, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compositions not yielding to the classics themselves. Sosinus, who was so much distinguished by his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation with his pencil, and still stands at the head of the painting art. Michael Angelo Buonaroti united in his own person, painting, sculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried sculpture and architecture to an amazing height, Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veronese, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their several manners. The same may be said of Corelli, and other Italians, in music. At present Italy cannot justly boast of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

**Universities.** Those of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Pisa, Naples, Salerno, and Perugia. **Language.** The Italian language is remarkable for its smoothness, and the facility which it enters into musical compositions. The groundwork of it is Latin, and it is easily mastered by a good classical scholar. Almost every state in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary societies there, may at last fix the Italian into a standard language. At present the Tuscan style and writings are most in request.

The Lord's prayer runs thus: Padre nostro, che sei nel cielo, sia santificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volontà sia fatta, sic come in cielo così anche in terra: dacci oggi il nostro pane cotidiano: e rimetti i nostri debiti, sic come noi ancova rimet-
tiamo a' nostri debitori; e non induci in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perioiche tuo e il regno, e la potenza, e la gloria in sempiterno. Amen.

ARCHBISHOPRICs.] There are thirty eight archbishoprics in Italy, but the suffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or suppressing them as he pleases.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Italy is the native country of all that is stupendous, great or beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library may be filled by descriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor do the bounds of this work admit of enlarging upon this subject. We can give but a very brief account of those objects that are most distinguished either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magnificence; there are at Rome considerable remains of that which was erected by Vespasian, and finished by Domitian, called the Colisseo. Twelve thousand Jewish captives were employed by Vespasian in this building; and it is said to have been capable of containing eighty seven thousand spectators seated, and twenty thousand standing. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are so just, that it does not appear near so large as it really is. But it has been stripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its destruction, and the popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farnese, in particular, robbed it of some fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c. and, with infinite pains and labour, got away what was practicable of the outside casing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farnese. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of steps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and about two feet broad. Twenty two thousand persons may be seated here at their ease, allowing one foot and a half for each person. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greatest care at the expense of the inhabitants. They frequently give public spectacles in it, such as horse-races, combats of wild beasts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are also visible in other places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimius Severus, and Constantine the Great, are still standing though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, answer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at present converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are still left several of the niches which anciently contained the statues of the Heathen deities. The outside of the building is of Tivoli free-stone, and within it is incrusted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a stone full of holes. The colonade in the front, which consists of sixteen columns of granite, thirty seven feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain with an antique basin of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with instructive sculptures, are still remaining. A traveller forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duilius in commemoration of the first naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the statue of the wolf giving suck to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the stroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original brass plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thousand other identical antiquities, some of
them transmitted unhurt to the present times; not to mention medallions, and the infinite variety of seals and engraved stones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, present themselves all over the country of Italy.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground; witness the cloaca, and the catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 30 years since a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Paestum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing; for so indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new discovery to the learned. An inexhaustible mine of curiosities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Vesuvius. The melted lava in its course filled up the streets and houses in some places to the height of sixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. This lava is now of a consistence which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away; it is composed of bituminous particles mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitriified sandy substances, which all together form a close and heavy mass. In the revolution of so many ages, the spot it stood upon was entirely forgotten; but in the year 1713, upon digging into these parts, somewhat of this unfortunate city was discovered, and many antiquities were dug out; but the search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicular eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze with horses of the same metal, likewise gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewise found among the ruins of this city multitudes of statues, bustos, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils, and the search is still continued. The streets of the town appear to have been quite straight and regular, and the houses well built, and much alike; some of the rooms paved with mosaic, others with fine marble, others again with bricks, three feet long and six inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from escaping with many of their richest effects; for when the excavations were made, there was not more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little gold, silver, or precious stones.

The town of Pompeia was destroyed by the same eruption of Mount Vesuvius which occasioned the destruction of Herculaneum, but it was not discovered till near forty years after the discovery of Herculaneum. One street, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared; the street is well paved with the same kind of stone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised to a foot and a half on each side for convenience of foot-passengers. Dr Moore observes, that the street itself is not so broad as the narrowest part of the Strand, and is supposed to have been inhabited by trades-people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be seen on the pavement. The houses are small, but give an idea of neatness and convenience. The stucco on the walls is smooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, mostly single figures, representing some animal. They are tolerably well executed, and a little water being thrown on them the colours appear surprisingly fresh. Most of the houses are built on the same plan, and have one small room from the passage, which is conjectured to have been the shop, with a window to the street, and a place which seems to have been contrived for shewing the goods to the greatest advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonnade, towards the court, something in the style of the Royal Exchange at London, but smaller. At a considerable distance from
this, is a temple of the goddess Isis, the pillars of which are of brick, stuccoed like those of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The best paintings, hitherto found at Pompeii, are those of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few skeletons were found in the streets of this town, but a considerable number in the houses. In one apartment (says Mr Sutherland) we saw the skeletons of 17 poor wretches, who were confined by the ankles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, some of them in circumstances which plainly shew that they were endeavouring to escape, when the eruption overtook them.

With regard to modern curiosities in Italy, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity, Rome itself contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and sculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St Peter, at Rome, is the most astonishing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps existed; and, when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultless. The house and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithstanding the ridiculous romance that composes its history.

The natural curiosities of Italy, though remarkable, are not so numerous as its artificial. Mount Vesuvius, which is five Italian miles distant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Vesuvius towards the sea, is everywhere planted with vines and fruit-trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful prospect, and the air is clear and wholesome. The south and west sides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and stenes. The height of Mount Vesuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the surface of the sea. It has been a volcano, beyond the reach of history or tradition. An animated description of its ravages, in the year 97, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witness to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but small and moderate, however, then it broke out with accumulated fury and desolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with so much force, that some of it fell at thirty miles distance, and a vast quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that which destroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. In this last eruption, the ashes, or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the streets were obliged to use umbrellas, or adopt some other expedient, to guard themselves against them. The tops of the houses and the balconies were covered with these cinders; and ships at sea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great astonishment of the sailors. An eruption happened also in 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly described by Sir William Hamilton in the Philosophical Transactions. It has been observed by a modern traveller, that though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some good, even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its subterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Besides, it is supposed, that, open and active, the mount is less hostile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to cease, and its struggles confined to its own bowels, for then might ensue the most fatal shocks to the unstable foundation of the whole district of Terra del Lavora.

Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May, 1783, gives several reasons for believing that they were occasioned by the operation of a volcano, the seat of which lay deeper either under the bottom of the sea, between Stromboli, and the coast of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. He plainly observed a gradation in the
damage done to the buildings, as also in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or less distant from this supposed centre of the evil. One circumstance he particularly remarked: if two towns were situated at an equal distance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on the plain, or in a bottom, the latter had always suffered greatly more by the shocks of the earthquakes than the former; a sufficient proof to him, of the cause coming from beneath, as this must naturally have been productive of such an effect.

Mount Ætna is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 60 miles in circumference. It stands separate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and sugar canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almost the whole year covered with snow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous; in one of these which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were destroyed, and there have been several terrible eruptions since that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people perished.

Between the lakes Aignano and Puzzuzoli, there is a valley called Soltafara, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the clifts by subterranean fires. The grotto del Cani is remarkable for its poisonous streams, and is so called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are said to be common in Apulia.

Among the natural curiosities of Italy, those vast bodies of snow and ice, which are called the Glaciers of Savoy, deserve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which extend almost to the plain of the vale of Chomouny, and are separated by wild forests, corn-fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most singular and striking vicissitude. All these several vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the highest mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of Mr de Luc, the height of this mountain above the level of the sea, is 23 3/4 French toises, or 15,203 English feet. "I am convinced," says Mr Coxe, "from the situation of Mont Blanc, from the height of the mountains around it, from its superior elevation above them, and its being seen at a great distance from all sides, that it is higher than any mountain in Switzerland; which, beyond a doubt, is next to Mont Blanc, the highest ground in Europe.

States of Italy, Constitution, and Chief Cities.] Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian states are not like the republics of Holland or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable, for every Italian state has a distinct form of government, trade and interest, I shall be obliged to take a separate view of each, to assist the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of Savoy, or, as he is now styled, king of Sardinia, taking his royal title from that island, was formerly a powerful prince in Italy, of which he was formerly called the Janus, or keeper, against the French. His capital, Turin, is strongly fortified, and is one of the finest cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to seek their bread all over the world. They are esteemed a simple but very honest people.

The Milanese, which formerly belonged to the house of Austria, was a most formidable state, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almost incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very strong, and furnished with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taste, which contains a very rich treasury, consisting chiefly of ecclesiastical furniture, composed of gold, silver, and precious stones. The Milanese have been frequently made the theatre of war by the contending powers during the late contest, and have been repeatedly overrun; at present that city is in possession of the French, who entered its capital in June 1800, and appointed a provisional government.
GENOA has suffered various vicissitudes of fortune during the late war between France and Germany. It has been at different times conquered by the French, and reconquered by the allies. It surrendered to the Austrians in June 1800, but was retaken by the French shortly after the battle of Marengo. It is a most superb city, and contains some very magnificent palaces, particularly those of Doria, and Durazzo. The inhabitants of distinction dress in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner, perhaps to save expenses. Their chief manufactures were velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper, but they have been ruined by its being so often blockaded and taken. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but some writers greatly diminish that number), among whom are many rich trading individuals. The common people are wretched beyond expression, as is the soil of its territory. Near the sea some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa was aristocratical, being vested in the nobility; the chief person was called the Doge, or Duke; to which dignity no person was promoted till he was fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge was chosen, and the former was incapable during five years of holding the same post again. The doge gave audience to ambassadors, all orders of government were issued in his name, and he was allowed a body guard of two hundred Germans.

VENICE is one of the most celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. It is composed of several fine provinces on the continent of Italy, some islands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice is seated on 72 islands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic sea, and is separated from the continent by a marshy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too shallow for large ships to navigate, which forms its principal strength. Venice preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every respect degenerated, except in the passion which its inhabitants still retain for music and mummery during their carnivals. They seem to have lost their ancient taste for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. They have had, however, lately, some spirited differences with the court of Rome, and seem to be disposed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the constitution of the republic, it was originally democratical, the magistrates being chosen by a general assembly of the people, and so continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place; doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were invested with great power, which they often grossly abused, and some of them were assassinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legislative nobility was formed; continued and oppressive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, a complete aristocracy was at length established upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2,500, each of whom when twenty five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. These elect a doge or chief magistrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and silver balls. The doge is invested with great state, and with emblems of supreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to stir from the city, without the permission of the grand council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwise called the seigniory, is the supreme cabinet council of the state, and also the representative of the republic. This court gives audience, and delivers answers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It also receives all requests and memorials on state affairs, summons the senate at pleasure, and arranges the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council of ten takes cognisance of state crimes, and has the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consists only of three members, and which is in the highest degree despotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding, without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being excepted. To these three inquisitors is given the right of employing spies, considering secret intelligence, issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions they think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the du-
CAL palace, and can, whenever they please, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers: and of course, they may command access to the house of every individual in the state. They continue in office but for one year, but are not responsible afterwards for their conduct whilst they were in authority. So much distrust and jealousy are displayed by this government, that the noble Venetians are afraid of having any intercourse with foreign ambassadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and are even cautious of visiting at each other's houses.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dressed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a-year, by dropping into it a ring from his bucen-taur or state-barge, attended by those of all the nobility, is the most superb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord mayor's shew. The inhabitants of Venice are said to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, are beyond expression. Over the several canals of Venice are laid near 500 bridges, the greatest part of which are stone. The Venetians still have some manufactures in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and above all, fine looking glasses, all which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners; that of the state annually is said to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the state, and the pay of the army, which in the time of peace consists of 16,000 regular troops, (always commanded by a foreign general), and 10,000 militia. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolencies of the piratical states of Barbary, and they have among them some orders of knighthood, the chief of which are those of the Stila d'oro, so called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the first quality, and the military order of St Mark; of which in the proper place.

In ecclesiastical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are chosen by the senate; and all religious sects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting protestants, are here tolerated in the free exercise of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, with an uncommon relish for humour. They are in general tall and well made, and many fine manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those transmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veronese and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and are of an easy address. The common people are remarkably sober, obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse with each other. As it is very much the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiousness of manners here than in other places; but this opinion seems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of strangers visit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera houses.

The dominions of Venice consist of a considerable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the islands of Corfu, Pachfu, Antipachfu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduanese, the peninsula of Rovigo, the Veronese, the territories of Vicenza and Brescia, the districts of Bergamo, Cremasco, and the Marcha Trevisiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The subjects of the Venetian republic are not oppressed; the senate has found that mild treatment, and good usage, are the best policy, and more effectual than armies, in preventing revolts.

The principal city of Tuscany is Florence, which is now possessed by a younger branch of the house of Austria, after being long held by the illustrious house of Medici, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and masterly, in architecture, literature, and the arts, especially those of painting and sculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often described; but all description falls short of their contents, so that in every respect it is reckoned, after Rome, the second city in Italy. The celebrated Venus de Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the standard.
of taste in female beauty and proportion, stands in a room called the Tribunal. The inscription on its base mentions its being made by Cleomenes an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and surrounded by other master-pieces of sculpture, some of which are said to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek masters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which stands between mountains covered with olive trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see, and an university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia delia Crusca; and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they sell from their cellar-windows, and sometimes they even hang out a broken flask, as a sign where it may be bought. They deal, besides wine and fruits, in gold and silver stuffs.—Upon the accession of the archduke Peter Leopold, afterwards the emperor of Germany, to this duchy, a great reformation was introduced both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuscany could bring to the field, upon occasion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its present revenues are above 500,000l. a-year. The other principal towns of Tuscany are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the first and last are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handsome city, built in the modern taste, and with such regularity, that both gates are seen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the sea, besides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free access, and may settle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are said to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handsome synagogue, and though subject to very heavy imposts, are in a thriving condition, the greatest part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of Lucca, which is a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a most delightful plain, are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000l. sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, especially olives. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuscany keeps the people of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for in such a situation, an universal concord and harmony can alone enable them to transmit to posterity the blessings of their darling Liberty, whose name they bear on their arms, and whose image is not only impressed on their coin, but also on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It is also observable, that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in possession of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be found among those of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St Marino is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope, and the inoffensive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the small value of their territory, have preserved its constitution.

The duchy and city of Parma, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, now form one of the most flourishing states in Italy of its extent. The soils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. It is the seat of a bishop's see, and an university; and some of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The present duke* of Parma is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to the late Don

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* Ferdinand duke of Parma, born January 20, 1751, married to the archduchess Maria Amelia Josepha June 27, 1769. Their issue are a prince and two princesses.
Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was, some years past, the seat of a bloody war between the Austrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy, and it is said that his revenues exceed 100,000l. a-year, a sum rather exaggerated.—The city of Parma is supposed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a-year, is now much decayed. The government of it was annexed to that of the Milanese, which are now in the possession of the French. The capital is one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country. It has been frequently taken and retaken during the late war (1801), and was ceded to the French after the battle of Marengo, in whose possession it still remains.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina) is still governed by its own duke *, the head of the house of Este, from whom the family of Brunswick descended. The duke is absolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the house of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His dominions are far from being flourishing, though very improveable, they having been alternately wasted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of popish tyranny, superstition, and oppression, are here seen in the highest perfection. Those spots, which under the masters of the world were formed into so many terrestrial paradises, surrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious pestilential marshes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would afford at present, of itself, but a miserable subsistence to about five hundred.

The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and costly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repository of taste and magnificence. This passion disabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the industry, or relieving the wants of their subjects: and its miserable effects are seen in many parts of Italy. The splendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions were inexpressible; but they have been completely pillaged since Italy was subdued by the French. But this censure admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern ROME contains, within its circuit, a vast number of gardens and vineyards. I have already touched upon its curiosities and antiquities. It stands upon the Tyber, an inconsiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by small boats, barges, and lighters. The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortress, would be found to be a place of small strength, were it regularly besieged. The city, standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. When we consider Rome as it now stands, there is the strongest reason to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itself in the magnificence of its structures: nothing in the old city, when mistress of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utensils, and furniture, her ancient temples; though it must be acknowledged that the Pantheon must have been an amazing structure. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we consider that the spirit of travelling is much increased since that time, we cannot reasonably suppose them to be diminished at present.

* Hercules Renaud, duke of Modena, born November 22. 1727; married, April 16. 1741, to the princess of Massa Carrara. Their issue, Mary Beatrix, born April 29. 1750; married to Ferdinand duke of Austria, 1771.
Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state, and an exception to the idleness of its other inhabitants. The government was formerly under a legate a latere, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably than the other subjects of the pope; and perhaps their distance from Rome, which is 195 miles north-west, has contributed to their case. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state about the beginning of the 16th century.

The grandeur of Ferrara, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael), Ancona, and many other states and cities, illustrious in former times, are now to be seen only in their ruins and ancient history. Loreto, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence: and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house from being carried to other places, and exposed as relics, to the prejudice of Loreto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver ballustrade, which has a gate of the same metal.—It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings, and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, whereby this image is or was loaded; and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman Catholic princes, Loreto is indebted for this mass of treasure. It has been a matter of surprise, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary states upon Loreto, especially as it is badly fortified, and stands near the sea; but it is now generally supposed that the real treasure is withdrawn, and metals and stones of less value substituted in its place.

The king of Naples and Sicily, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Grecia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Apennine runs through it from north to south, and its surface is estimated at 3,500 square leagues. The air is hot, and its soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy: The wines called Vino Greco, and Lachrymae Christi, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction, and the soil being pestered with insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous. The houses of Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general, are five or six stories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vases, or fruit-trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the streets are very handsome: no street in Rome equals in beauty the Stradi di Toledo at Naples; and still less can any of them be compared with those beautiful streets that lie open to the bay. The richest and most commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the most fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them: and a small part of their revenue is spent in feeding the poor, the monks distributing bread and soup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

Though above two thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the ecclesiastics, the protestants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majesty presents to his holiness every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition is established in Naples. The revenues of that King amounted, before Naples was taken by the French, to more than a
The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, anniseeds, wool, oil, wine, cheese, fish, honey, wax, manna, saffron, gums, capers, macaroni, salt, pot-ash, flax, cotton, silk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquisses, and other high sounding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains at least 550,000 inhabitants. Among these are about 30,000 lazaroni, or black-guards, the greater part of which have no dwelling houses, but sleep every night in summer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of shelter they can find, and in winter or rainy time of the year, which lasts several weeks, the rain falling by pailfuls, they resort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they sleep in crowds like sheep in a pinfold. Those of them who have wives and children, live in the suburbs of Naples, near Pausilippo, in huts, or in caverns, or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fishing, others by carrying burdens to and from the shipping; many walk about the streets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very small recompense. As they do not meet with constant employment, their wages are not sufficient for their maintenance; but the deficiency is in some degree supplied by the soup and bread which are distributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is so much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among some of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are excessively fond of shew and splendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late traveller (Mr Swinburne), luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic strides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbons on their heads, as the Spanish women do to this day, and not twenty of them were possessed of a cap: but hair plainly drest is a mode now confined to the lowest order of inhabitants; and all distinction of dress between the wife of a nobleman, and that of a citizen, is entirely laid aside. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme.

Through every spot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be said to tread on classic ground, and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects. There are still traces of the memorable town of Cannae, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under ground granaries; and the scene of action between Hannibal and the Romans, is still marked out to posterity by the name of Pessoa di sangue, "field of blood." Tarento, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little else than its fisheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of steep rocks, that overhang the bay, and of all the places in the kingdom, had the most delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatres, and as the place where Augustus Cæsar died, is now hardly worth observation.

Brundisium, now Brindisi, was the great supplier of oysters for the Roman tables. It hath a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a state of inactivity and poverty, from which it hath not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento: here the arch of Trajan, one of the most magnificent remains of Roman grandeur out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is still in tolerable preservation. Reggio had nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. It was destroyed by an earthquake before the Marsian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæsar; part of the wall still remains, and was very roughly handled by the earthquake in 1782, but not destroyed; only 126 lost their lives out of 16,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, and the greatest force thereof seems to have been exerted near that spot, and at Casal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Trupia to Squilace, most of the towns and villages were either totally, or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To ascertain the extent of the ravages, sir William Hamilton, who surveyed it, gives the following description: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compasses on the scale of Italian miles, you were to measure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the spot on which the earthquake had exerted its greatest force), form a circle (the radii of which will be as 1 just said, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the spots.

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where the greatest mortality has happened, and where there have been the most visible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compasses on the same scale to 72 miles, preserving the same centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

The island of Sicily, once the granary of the world for corn, still continues to supply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity; but its cultivation, and consequently fertility, is greatly diminished. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the same with those of Italy.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually separated from it by the encroachments of the sea, and the shocks of earthquakes, so as to become a perfect island. The climate of Sicily is so hot, that even in the beginning of January the shade is refreshing; and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a small fire is sufficient to banish the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the summit of Mount Ætna, where snow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preserving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations, are extremely numerous here: the buildings are handsome, and the revenues considerable. If this island were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many respects be a delightful place of residence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this island are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal streets, and which cross each other, are very fine. This is said to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expense. It carries on a considerable trade; as also did Messina, which, before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant structures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower district of the city and of the port was destroyed, and considerable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the Palazzata, in the shape of a crescent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Messina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain, for of 50,000, the supposed population of the city, only 700 is said to have perished. "The greatest mortality fell upon those towns and countries situated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the western side of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Casal Nuovo, the princess Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, lost their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounts to 3017; Radiçina and Palmi count their loss at about 3000 each; Terra Nuova about 1400; Seminari still more. The sum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the secretary of state's office at Naples, is 32,367; but Sir William Hamilton saith, "he has good reason to believe, that, including strangers, the number of lives lost must have been considerably greater: 40,000 at least may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration."

The island of Sardinia, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles west of Leghorn, and hath seven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, is an university, an archbishopric, and the seat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is thought that his Sardinian majesty's revenues, from this island, do not exceed 5000l. sterling a-year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. Its air is bad, from its marshes and high mountains on the north, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719, to the house of Savoy.

On the 16th September 1792, war was declared by the national assembly of France against the king of Sardinia, and about the 20th general Montesquieu entered the territories of Savoy. His Sardinian majesty continued to resist this unprovoked invasion, and to struggle for his independence till the year 1796, when, to avert impending destruction, a treaty was concluded in May, in all respects most humiliating and disgraceful.

The unfortunate king was afterwards obliged to have recourse to arms, when, being forced to yield to the superiority of the French armies, he was dethroned by Bonaparte.
The island of CORSICA lies opposite to the Genoese continent, between the gulf of Genoa and island of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble stand which the inhabitants made for their liberty, against their Genoese tyrants, and afterwards against the base and ungenerous efforts of the French to enslave them, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or situation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, chestnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has also some cattle and horses, and is plentifully supplied, both by sea and rivers, with fish. The inhabitants are said to amount to 120,000. Bastia, the capital, is a place of some strength; though other towns of the island that were in possession of the malcontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

In 1794, Corsica was reduced by lord Hood, who, after leaving Toulon cruized some time off Hieres bay; and early in the month of May proceeded for Corsica, which was in a state of revolt against the authority of the Convention. The tower and garrison of Mortello surrendered on the 10th of that month; the tower of Tornelli was abandoned by the republicans on the 17th; and in two days after, they evacuated St Fiorenzo, and retreated to Bastia; whither they were followed as soon as possible by lord Hood. The number of persons bearing arms in Bastia originally amounted to no more than 3000 men. The fortifications were not in the best state, and the garrison but indifferently provided; yet they made an obstinate defence, and resisted till the 19th of May, when Lord Hood, "in consideration of the very gallant defence made by the garrison of Bastia, and from principles of humanity," offered honourable terms to the commandant Gentili, which, in the situation of the garrison, it would have been desperate to reject. In consequence of this negociation, the garrison, on the 24th, marched out with the honours of war, and Bastia was taken possession of by the English.

In consequence of this success the whole island submitted to the British arms, except the town of Calvi, which resisted till the 10th of August, when it surrendered on terms of capitulation. The garrison marched out with the honours of war, and were transported at the expense of Great Britain to Toulon.

Corsica did not, however, long remain in possession of the English. In 1796 the directory planned its reduction; nor could the vigilance of the viceroy hinder such communications, or his authority suppress such tendencies to insurrection, as were sufficient to mark the disposition of his newly acquired subjects. While the French were forming plans, the execution of which was checked by the superiority of the English naval force, the Corsicans were employed in finding means how to co-operate with their former countrymen, and shake off their new allegiance. The viceroy, who knew how to estimate the alternately subtle and stubborn politics of these islanders, did not wait the explosion, but gave notice that he was going to withdraw his troops, and along with them the kingly government he was going to establish. The Corsicans scarcely waited the withdrawing of the English troops, before they formed themselves into primary assemblies to send deputies to the commissioners in Italy to divest themselves of their title of subjects to the king of England.

CAPRI, the ancient CAPREA, is an island to which Augustus Cæsar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a scene of the most infamous pleasures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects farthest into the sea. It extends four miles in length from east to west, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for above two miles, a continued rock, vastly high, and inaccessible next the sea; yet Ano Capri, the largest town of the island, is situated here; and in this part are several places covered with a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite so long as the western. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a slip of lower ground that runs across the island, and is one of the pleasantest spots that can easily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn fields, which look extremely fresh and beautiful, and afford a most delightful little landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is situated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the bishop's palace. In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings,
some remains of which are still to be seen.—But the most considerable ruins are at the very extremity of the eastern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble prospect; on one side of it, the sea extends farther than the eye can reach; just opposite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other side the bay of Naples.

*Ischia*, and some other islands on the coasts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to distinguish them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful summer retreats for their owners. Elba hath been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of history. Virgil and Aristotle mention it. Its situation is about ten miles south-west from Tuscany, and 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants. It is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longone belongs, and the great duke of Tuscany, who is master of Porto Ferraio, and the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the island are very good, and the tumnery, fisheries, and salt, produce a good revenue.

I shall here mention the isle of *Malta*, though it is not properly ranked with Italian islands. It was formerly called Milet, and is situated in 15 degrees E. lon. and 36 degrees N. lat. 60 miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but excessively hot; the whole island seems to be a white rock covered with a thin surface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden stuff of all kinds. This island *, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St John of Jerusalem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V., when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroi of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors: they are now known by the distinction of the knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chastity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have considerable possessions in the Roman Catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand master who is elected for life. The lord prior of the order was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000; 500 are to reside on the island, the remainder are in their seminaries in other countries, but at any summons are to make their personal appearance. They had a seminary in England till it was suppressed by Henry VIII., but they now give to one the title of Grand Prior of England. They were considered as the bulwark of Christendom against the Turks on that side. They wear the badge of the order, a gold cross of eight points enamelled white, pendant to a black watered ribband at the breast, and the badge is decorated so as to distinguish the country of the knight. They are generally of noble families, or such as can prove their gentility for six descents, and are ranked according to their nations. There are sixteen called the Great Crosses, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marshal, admiral, chancellor, &c. are chosen. When the great master dies, they suffer no vessel to go out of the island till another is chosen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the sixteen great crosses, the grand master is elected, whose title is, "The most illustrious, and most reverend prince, the lord friar A. B. great master of the hospital of St John of Jerusalem, prince of Malta and Gaza." All the knights are sworn to defend the church, to obey their superiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valletta or Malta, and its harbour, but the whole island, was so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 18th of September there is an annual procession at Malta in memory of the Turks raising the siege on that day, 1563, after four months assault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

No event of any importance has happened at Malta till the year 1798, when the whole island was conquered by the French. Their fleet commanded by Bonaparte arrived there on the 9th at day break, within sight of the island of Gose. On the same evening, an aid-de-camp was sent by Bonaparte, to ask liberty of the grand master to water in the different anchorages in the island; this request being refused, admiral Bruys was ordered to prepare for making a descent. He sent rear-admiral Blanquet with his

* The island of Malta was governed by a Grand Master.
squadron, and the convoy from Civita Vecchia, to effect a descent in the bay of Marsa Sirocco. On the 10th at day dreak the French troops were landed at all points, notwithstanding the opposition of a heavy cannonade. In the evening the fortress was invested on all sides, and the rest of the island submitted. The unfortunate inhabitants, being alarmed beyond any thing that can be imagined, took refuge in the town of Malta; which was by these means filled with people. During all the evening a brisk cannonade was kept up by the town. The besieged made a sortie: but the chief of brigade, Marmont, at the head of the 12th, took from them the standard of their order. The grand master sent on the morning of the 11th to request a suspension of arms. The chief of the brigade, Junot was immediately sent to him with authority to sign a suspension of arms, if he consented as a preliminary to negotiate for the surrender of the place. The suspension of arms was then concluded for 24 hours; and the whole island surrendered to the French. After the victory of Aboukir, it was closely blockaded, and was obliged to surrender to the British, in whose possession it still remains.

**ARMS AND ORDERS.**] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follow: The pope, as sovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his escutcheon, gules, consisting of a long headcape, or, surmounted with a cross, pearl and garnished with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St Peter, placed in saltier. The arms of Tuscany, or, five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-Luces, or. Those of Venice, azure, a lion winged, sejant, or holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent. Those of Genoa, argent, a cross, gules, with a crown closed for the island of Corsica; and for supporters, two griffins, or. The arms of Naples, are, azure, secré of flower-de-Luces, or, with a label of five points, gules. The French, after the conquest of Italy, had for their arms the figure of Brutus rising out of the tomb, and its standard tri-coloured, with white, and red, and black.

The "order of St Januarius," was instituted by the present king of Spain, when king of Naples, in July 1738. The number of knights is limited to 30, and after the present sovereign, that office of the order is to be possessed by the kings of Naples. All the knights must prove the nobility of their descent for four centuries, and are to be addressed by the title of excellency. St Januarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of this order. The "order of Annunciation" was instituted in the year 1555, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I, who bravely defended Rhodes against the Turks, and won those arms which are now borne by the dukes of Savoy, "Gules, a cross argent." It is counted among the most respectable orders in Europe: the knight must be of a noble family, and also a papist. In the year 1572, Emanuel Phillibert, duke of Savoy, instituted the "order of St Lazarus," and revived and united the obsolete order of St Maurice to it; which was confirmed by the pope, on the condition of maintaining two galleys against the Turks.

In the year 828, it is pretended that the body of St Mark was removed from Alexandria in Egypt to Venice. Accordingly this saint hath been taken for their tutelar saint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their ensigns and banners. When the "order of St Mark" was first instituted is uncertain, but it is an honour conferred by the doge or duke of Venice and the senate, on persons of eminent quality, or who have done some signal service to the republic. The knights, when made, it present, are dubbed with a sword on their shoulders, the duke saying "Exito miles filter," (be a faithful soldier.) Absent persons are invested by letters patent, but their title, "Knihts of St Mark," is merely honorary: they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligation by vows, as other orders. About the year 1450, Frederic III, emperor of Germany, instituted the "order of St George," and dedicated it to St George, tutelar saint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand master. The badge, a plain cross enamelled, gules, pendant to a gold chain and worn about their necks. The cross is also embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Casimir of Medici, first grand duke of Tuscan, instituted the "order of St Stephen," in memory of a victory which secured to him the sovereignty of that province. He and his successors were to be the grand-masters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houses are at Pisa. It is a religious as well as military order, but the...
knights of Justice and the Ecclesiastics are obliged to make proof of nobility of four descents. They wear a red cross with right angles, orled, or, on the left side of their habit, and on their mantle.

The "order of the Holy Ghost," was founded with their chief seat, the hospital of that name in Rome, by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grandmaster, and profess obedience, chastity, and poverty. Their revenue is estimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain strangers, relieve the poor, train up deserted children, &c. Their ensign is a white patriarchal cross with 12 points, sewed on their breast on the left side of a black mantle. The "order of Jesus Christ," instituted by pope John XXII. was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always sovereign of it, and was designed as a mark of distinction for the pope's Italian nobility; but on account of its frequent prostitution, it hath fallen into discredit. The "order of the Golden Spur" is said to have been instituted by pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the "order of Pius," instituted a year afterwards; but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are suppressed, and all that the knights of the Golden Spur have preserved to themselves, is the title of counts of the sacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a star of eight points, white, and between the two bottom points, a spur, gold.

History.] Italy was probably first peoples from Greece, as we have mentioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader for the ancient history of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, soon experienced that of Alexander. Under his successors it was in a short time entirely dismembered. His son, Lewis the Debonair, succeeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grandson of Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adjacent islands. But Bernard having lost his life by the cruelty of his uncle, against whom he levied war, and Lewis himself dying in 840, his dominions were divided among his sons Lothario, Lewis, and Charles. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries situated between the Saone and the Rhine; Lewis had Germany; and France fell to the share of Charles, the youngest of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho the Great, re-united Italy to the Imperial dominions. Italy afterwards suffered much by the contests between the popes and the emperors; it was harassed by wars and internal divisions; and at length various principalities and states were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the ancestors of his present Sardinian majesty, whose father became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718. In 1794 Savoy and Piedmont were subduced by the French, and were ceded to them by their late treaty with the king of Sardinia.

The great duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous distinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Ghibellines, who were in the emperor's interest, took place. The popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany to put themselves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a short time, formed themselves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both par-

* Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, king of Sardinia, and duke of Savoy, born May 24, 1751; married in 1775 to Maria Adelheid, sister to Louis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French.

Brothers and Sisters of the King.
1. Maria-Josepha-Louisa, born September 2, 1753; married to the count de Provence, vid. France.
3. Anna-Maria-Carolin, born December 17. 1757.
4. Victor Emanuel Cajetan duc d'Aoste, born June 24. 159; married, April 25, 1759, Maria Theresa, niece to the present emperor.
ties by turn. Faction at last shook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were either declared princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, who was deservedly called the Father of his Country, being in the secret, shared with the Venetians in the immense profits of the East India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any sovereign prince in Europe, enabled his successors to rise to sovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his descendants, Cosmo (the great patron of the arts), the title of Great Duke of Tuscany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaston de Medicis in 1737, without issue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his son-in-law, the duke of Lorraine, (afterwards emperor, and father of Joseph II.) in lieu of the duchy of Lorraine, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his second son, (brother and successor to the emperor Joseph II.) upon the death of his father, became Grand Duke. When he succeeded to the imperial crown, his son Ferdinand entered upon the sovereignty of the great duchy of Tuscany, who has now succeeded his father in the empire of Germany. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade: and several ships of very considerable force are now stationed on the Tuscan coast, to prevent the depredations of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater vicissitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconstancy of the natives, which seems to be incorporated with the air. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks, established there, while the rest of Europe was plunged in monkish ignorance, a most respectable monarchy flourishing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the succession of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at last came into the possession of the French; and the house of Anjou, with some interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Austrian line, was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman, without shoes or stockings, in the year 1647. His success was so surprising, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish the oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before these could be re-established perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Austrian line opened a new scene of litigation. In 1706 the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houses of Austria, and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effusion of blood was stopt by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at first demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his accession to the crown of Spain in 1759, it being found, by the inspection of physicians, and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his second being heir-apparent to the Spanish monarchy, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who married an archduchess of Austria*.

* Ferdinand IV. king of the two Sicilies, third son of his late Catholic Majesty, the king of Spain, born Jan. 12, 1751; ascended the throne October 8, 1759; and married April 7. 1768, to the archduchess Maria Carolina-Louisa, sister to the late emperor, by whom he has had issue 13 children, of whom 9 are living: one died lately on board admiral Nelson's ship on his passage to Palermo, of fright and sickness. The rest are.

1 Maria Theresa, present empress of Germany, born June 6, 1722.
2 Theresa-Clementine, born Nov. 23, 1755; married Sept. 17, 1790, the archduke Ferdinand.
3 Francis Januarius, Prince Royal, born August 17, 1777; married Maria Clementina, the Archduchess, September 1790. Has issue, Nov. 5, 1799, a son.
The king of Naples joined the coalition which was formed by the princes of Europe against the French Republic: but, terrified by the rapid and unparalleled successes of his enemies, he was forced to request an armistice, which was granted to him, together with the pope; and on the 25th of October 1797 a definitive treaty was concluded upon such conditions as the French were pleased to dictate.

It was impossible, however, that a peace concluded on such disgraceful conditions could be of long continuance; being insulted beyond indemnity, they began, particularly after admiral Nelson’s victory, to give evident proofs of enmity towards the French, and clearly shewed an inclination to join any confederacy, which might be formed against them. The king of Naples, however, either not being sufficiently informed of the designs and views of the other powers, or misunderstanding them, commenced his military operations before they were ready to co-operate with him. His troops were not able to withstand those of the enemy, but were defeated in almost every engagement. Finally, the unfortunate monarch was at last forced to abandon his capital to the enemy. He embarked together with his queen and family on board lord Nelson’s ship, and arrived after a most tempestuous passage, in which one of the young princes Albert died, through excessive sickness and fatigue. The enemy were, however, by the successes of Suwarow, and by the exertions of the British forces under Captain Troubridge, expelled from Naples, and the rightful sovereign restored to the throne.

The Milanese, the fairest portion in Italy, went through several hands; the Visconti were succeeded by the Galeazzos and the Sforzas, but fell at last into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1523, who gave it to his son Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the imperialists. They were dispossessed of it in 1743; but by the emperor’s cession of Naples and Sicily to the present king of Spain, it returned to the house of Austria who governs it by a viceroy. It has been since overrun by the French, and lately reconquered from them by the allies, who in their turn have been obliged to evacuate it in favour of the French.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who, adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the house of Austria, which now possesses it, the last duke dying without male issue; but Guastalla was separated from it in 1740, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The first duke of Parma was natural son to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy see, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The descendants of the house of Farnese terminated in the late queen-dowager of Spain, whose son, his present catholic majesty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Placentia.

The Venetians were formerly the most formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1144, they conquered Constantinople itself, and held it for some time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Asia. They were more than once brought to the brink of destruction, by the confederacies formed against them among the other powers of Europe, especially by the league of Cambrai, in 1509, but were as often saved by the disunion of the confederates. The discovery of a passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the first blow to their greatness, as it lost them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their most valuable possessions on the continent; and so late as the year 1715 they lost the Morea. Venice was made a free port in 1736, governed by a doge who was elected in 1733. In 1798, when the French had overrun Italy, having contrived several accusations against the inhabitants of Venice, they addressed a manifesto to the doge, complaining of the hostile disposition that government had always manifested towards them, and demanding instant satisfaction for the recent injuries. Commissaries were appointed to wait on Buonaparte, and a treaty was concluded, the terms of which were the cession of the whole of the Terra Firma to the French; the port of Venice to be occupied by French troops; and to pay 80 millions of livres; and lastly, the government to be changed. The last article was almost immediately put in execution. The senate and council of ten were also abolished: and the three state inquisitors put under arrest. A provisional administration was appointed, and a municipality of 50 members was chosen, under the presidency of six commissaries appointed by the commander of the French army. The Venetian territory was filled with
their troops, and the only article of the treaty they took care to fulfil was the levying of the contributions. This republic, by a treaty between France and the emperor of Germany, was ceded to the latter power; but was in 1805 given up to France.

The Genoese for some time disputed the empire of the Mediterranean sea with the Venetians, but were seldom or never able to maintain their own indepandency by land, being generally protected, and sometimes subjected, by the French and Imperialists. Their doge, or first magistrate, used to be crowned king of Corsica, though it does not clearly appear by what title; that island is now ceded to the French by the Geneese. The successful effort they made in driving the victorious Austrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1734, has few parallels in history, and serves to shew the effect of despair under oppression. At present their revenue is barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state.

At the same time that the government of Venice was overthrown, the republic of Genoa felt the predominant influence of the French; and its government, which was one of those mild aristocracies, where the great are content with having all the political power without oppressing their fellow citizens, was destroyed in order to make way for a government formed upon their principles. It now belongs to France.

The history of the Papacy is connected with that of Christendom itself. The most solid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his accession in 1073, was so well known by the name of Hildebrand.) It is not to be expected that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other causes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the Reformation. Even since that era the state of Europe has been such, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes.

The Papal power, even before the French revolution, was reduced very low, but that dreadful event struck the finishing blow; the Order of Jesus had been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples and Portugal. On the resumption of Avignon, and the Comtat Venaisin, by the national assembly, the pontiff sent a memorial to most European courts, in which he vehemently and justly remonstrated against this nefarious act of robbery. In consequence of this unprovoked injury, the Pope joined the confedecry which was formed against France; but was compelled by the misfortunes of war to seek a temporary enjoyment of his kingdom in a humiliating and disgraceful peace. His holiness agreed, without reserve, to the annexation of Avignon, and the county of Venaisin to France, and also transferred to the republic the legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna. In conclusion, he consented to pay the conquerors the sum of 30 millions of livres, 20 of them in specie, and the rest in diamonds and other valuables, with 16,000 horses as the ransom of that remnant of his dominions of which he was still permitted to enjoy the precarious possession. This treaty, however, so dearly purchased, was not of long continuance. Pretending that the brother of Buonaparte, the French envoy at Rome, had been insulted by the populace, they declared war against the Pope, and immediately commenced their operations. As the sovereign Pontiff was in no situation to resist, they were not interrupted in their march by hostile troops, and in a short time they entered Rome in triumph, and placed their trees of liberty on the capitol. Immediately on their arrival, they laid a contribution on the city of four millions in ready money, two millions of provisions, and three thousand in horses. They disbanded the militia and disarmed the Papal troops: They plundered the city, likewise, of all those monuments of the arts by which it was adorned, and removed them to Paris. The Pope himself, after being confined and treated with the utmost indignity, was dragged into France, where he died at Valence same year Dec. 1799, of a broken heart.

The present pope Pius VII. was born in 1742, and elected to the pependom in 1800.

* The foregoing account of the ITALIAN STATES applies in general to their condition previous to their annexation to the French empire. Italy now belongs to Napoleon, who has completely changed its political condition. It is but justice to add, that the List of Indulgence, inserted in p. 526, and which has appeared in every Edition of this work, is, by the best informed writers, deemed spurious, and that practices so disgraceful to Christianity, now no where exist in Catholic countries.
The Grand Signor's Dominions are divided into,

1. **Turkey in Europe.**
2. **Turkey in Asia.**
3. **Turkey in Africa.**

**Turkey in Europe.**

**Situation and Extent.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 1000</td>
<td>between 17 and 40 East long.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 900</td>
<td>36 and 49 North lat.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Containing 181,400 square miles, with 44 inhabitants to each.

**Boundaries.** Bounded by Russia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the North; by Circassia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Hellespont, and the Archipelago, on the East; by the Mediterranean, on the South; by the same sea, and the Venetian and Austrian territories, on the West.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>On the north coast of the Black Sea are the provinces of</td>
<td>Crim and little Tartary and the ancient Taurica Chersonesus*</td>
<td>Precoop Brachiseria Kaffa Oczacow</td>
<td>26,200 12,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Budziac Tartary,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bessarabia</td>
<td>Bender Belgorod</td>
<td>8,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North of the Danube are the provinces of</td>
<td>Moldavia, olim Dacia</td>
<td>Jazy Choczim Falczin</td>
<td>26,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bulgaria, the east part of the ancient Mysia</td>
<td>Tergovisc</td>
<td>10,500</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Servia, the west part of Mysia</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bosnia, part of the ancient Illyricum</td>
<td>Belgrade Semendria Nissa</td>
<td>22,570 8,640</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* *The Russians in 1783 seized on the Crimea, the principal part of this division, and by a treaty signed January 9, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them, with the isle of Yaman and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea.*
### Divisions

**On the Bosphorus and Hellespont**
- Romania, olum Thrace
- Macedonia

**South of Mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece**
- Thessaly, now Janua
- Achaia and Boeotia, now Livadia
- Epirus
- Albania

**On the Adriatic Sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum**
- Dalmatia
- Ragusan Republic *
- Corinthia
- Argos
- Sparta

**In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are**
- Zara
- Narenza
- Ragusa
- Corinth
- Argos
- Napoli de Romania
- Lacedemon, now Misitra, on the river Eurotas

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**Chief Towns**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Towns</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constantnople, N. L. 41. E. L. 29</td>
<td>21,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strymon</td>
<td>18,980</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contessa</td>
<td>4,560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salonichi</td>
<td>3,420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Larissa</td>
<td>7,955</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athens</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thebes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lepanto</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Chimera</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burintio</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scodra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durazzo</td>
<td>6,375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dulcigno</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The Republic of Ragusa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkish government. It is an aristocratical state, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is stiled protector, is changed every month, and elected by scrutiny or lot. During his short administration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragusans are unable to protect themselves, they make use of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand signior. They endeavour also to keep them upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring states. But in the year 1783, a dispute arose between them and the king of Naples, respecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragusan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itself under that king's protection. The city of Ragusa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains some handsome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was situated not far from this city. The Ragusans profess the Romish religion, but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, are tolerated. Almost all the citizens are traders, and they keep so watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Ragusa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in use among the Ragusan, is the Slavonian, but the greatest part of them speak the Italian. They have many trading vessels, and are carriers in the Mediterranean like the Dutch, being constantly at peace with the piratical states of Barbary. The city of Gravosa, and Stagno, 30 miles N.E. of Ragusa, are within the territories of this republic, and there are also five small islands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.
Divisions

In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece are

Subdivisions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Olympia, where the Games were held</th>
<th>Chief Towns.</th>
<th>Sq. M.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arcadia</td>
<td>Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus</td>
<td>7,220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elis</td>
<td>Modon</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coron</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Partas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elis, or Belvedere on the river Peneus.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nature has lavished upon upon the inhabitants of Turkey all her blessings in those four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regular and pleasant, and have been celebrated from the remotest times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholesomeness of the water all over their dominions.

The Thessalian or Turkish horses are excellent both for their beauty and service. The black cattle are large, especially in Greece. The goats are a most valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badagai, furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish archers, and they sell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe; but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

Vegetable Productions.] These are excellent all over European Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Besides pot and garden herbs of almost every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Besides these, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

Metals and Minerals.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all sorts of mines, and its marbles are esteemed the finest in the world.

Lakes.] These are not extremely remarkable, nor as they mentioned with any great applause, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Sentari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave and the Lago di Holti. The Symphulus, so famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx issues, conceived by the ancients to be the passage into hell.

Seas.] The Euxine or Black sea; the Palus Moeotic, or sea of Asoph; the sea of Marmoro, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian sea, and the Levant, are so many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, of all other countries, had the best claim to be the mistress of the world.

Straits.] Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus are joined to the sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in the modern as well as ancient history. The former, viz. the Hellespont, or Dardanelles, is only two miles and a half in breadth, and is famous for the passage of Xerxes over it, when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition against Asia. The former, for the more easy transportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is also celebrated by the poets in the story of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom the latter swam across it to his mistress; but one night was unhappily drowned. The Bosphorus is about the same breadth, but has not been so much celebrated by historians and poets.
RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

MOUNTAINS.] These are the most celebrated of any in the world, and at the same time often the most fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Egean sea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated to the muses, is well known. Mount Haemus is likewise often mentioned by the poets: but most of the other mountains have changed their names; witness the mountains Suha, Witoska, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains above mentioned, have modern names imposed upon them by the Turks, their new masters, and others in their neighbourhood.

CITIES.] Constantinople, the capital of this great empire, is situated on the European side of the Bosphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Constantine the Great, as a more inviting situation than Rome for the seat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having escaped the destructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greatest as well as the most beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the possession of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the East Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the crusaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the crusades, speak of it with astonishment. "O what a vast city is Constantinople (exclaims one, when he first beheld it), and how beautiful! How many monasteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! How many manufactures are there in the city, amazing to behold! It would be astonishing to relate how it abounds with all good things, with gold, silver, and stuffs of various kinds; for every hour ships arrive at this port with all things necessary, for the use of man." Constantinople is at this day one of the finest cities in the world by its situation and its port. The prospect from it is noble. The most regular part is the Besestin, inclosed with walls, and gates, where the merchants have their shops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong square of 400 paces by 100, where they exercise on horseback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large spacious square the general resort of all ranks. On the opposite side of the port, are four towns, but considered as part of the suburbs, their distance being so small, a person may easily be heard on the other side. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera the foreign ambassadors and all the Franks or strangers reside, not being permitted to live in the city: Galata also is mostly inhabited by Franks or Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities. The tomb of Constantine the Great is still preserved. The mosque of St Sophia, once a Christian church, is thought in some respects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio standing on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a prospect of the delightful coast of the Lesser Asia, which is not to be equalled. When we speak of the seraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand signior's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole inclosure of the Ottoman palace, which might well suffice for a moderate town. The wall which surrounds the seraglio, is thirty feet high, having battlements, embrasures, and towers, in the style of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of these the Ottoman court takes the name of the Porte, or the Sublime Porte, in all public transactions and records. Both the magnificence and population of Constantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is surrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but shallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land side. The site forms an unequal triangle resembling a harp, and the total circumference may be twelve or fourteen English miles, including a surface of about 2000 acres, surrounded by walls, and defended on two sides by the sea, and the harbour called "the Golden Horn." Not less than 400,000 inhabitants.
are numbered in the whole capital; but in this estimation must be included the suburbs of Galata, Pera, Tophana, and Scutari. Two hundred thousand are Turks, one hundred thousand Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks, of all the European nations. Among the former, it is asserted that population is much on the decline; for there are few cities in which can be found so many young men unmarried. The inhabitants are frequently changed, and the ravages of the plague are resupplied by settlers from other parts of the empire. With no people is longevity more common or extended, nor health more constant, than with the Turks. The city hath been frequently assailed by fires, either owing to the narrowness of the streets and the structure of the houses, or the arts of the Janizaries. In August 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter situated towards the harbour, and spread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houses, (most of which had been rebuilt since the fire in 1782) were consumed.

Opposite the seraglio, on the Asian side, and about a mile and a half distant across the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal mosque, and pleasant house of the grand siegnior. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand prospect. In one view are the cities of Constantinople, Galata, and Pera, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each shore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military strength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, these several heads, depending on the same principles all over the empire, shall be mentioned under Turkey in Asia.

Crim-Tartary, or the Crimea, is the ancient Taurica Chersonesus, and is a peninsula, lying on the Euxine, or Black sea, by which it is bounded on the west and south, and on the east and north east, by that of Asoph. It is between 44 and 46 degrees of north latitude; and 34 and 37 degrees of east longitude.

This peninsula was esteemed a part of Turkey in Europe, until it was ceded to Russia, in consequence of the peace in 1784. Many cities were built on it by the Greeks, particularly those of Kherson, Theodosia, Panticapeum, and some others, which carried on a great trade with the Scythians, as well as with the Greek cities on the continent.

The most considerable rivers in the Crimea are those of Karasu and Salagir, both of which take an easterly course.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have but very slight descriptions; and indeed where the country has been so often the seat of war, and the inhabitants are still so rude, very little can be expected from their buildings. Lady Craven, now the margravine of Anspach, who, without doubt, had access to the best lodgings in the country, informs us, that "a Tartar's house is a very slight building of only one storey, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cushions are ranged round the room for seats; and, what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the space of the room, behind the wainscot, which draws back in most places; so that in a place where the room appears exceedingly small and confined, there is yet every convenience to be met with.

Among the curiosities of this country, we may reckon the source of the river Karasu, which is situated among the rocks, in a very romantic manner, and rises in a considerable stream. It was visited by lady Craven in 1786. No less wonderful are those lakes which receive the rivulets without any visible outlet. This celebrated female traveller mentions a house near Sebastopool, situated in a very romantic manner at the foot of some rocks, from which issue many clear springs that amply supply the houses and baths with water. On the summit of these rocks, there are places where immense cables have certainly passed and been tied. The Tartars insist that the sea was once close to the foot of them, and ships were fastened there. Near Bacziseria there is a mine of earth, exactly like soap, which is reckoned very good for the skin, and vast quantities of it are consumed by the women of Constantinople. Lady Craven bestows the greatest encomiums on the sheep, which in this peninsula are innumerable, and afford the most beautiful and costly fleeces. The sheep are all spotted; the lambkins very beautiful, and they kill the ewes to have them before birth, when their skins have small spots, and are smooth like the finest and lightest satins. Coats lined with these skins are called Pelisses; and as a great number of these small animals must be killed to
make the lining of one coat, this is one of the finest presents the empress can make to an ambassador.

The peninsula of the Crimea has a considerable trade in Morocco leather, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and like satin. At Bacziseria there is a great trade of sword-blades, knives, and hangers, many of which are not to be distinguished from such as are made at Damascus.

**Antiquities and curiosities, natural and artificial.]** Almost every spot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, presents the traveller with the ruins of celebrated antiquity. On the Isthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Isthmean games were celebrated, are still visible. Athens, which contains at present above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful source of the most magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world; a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work; but it would be proper to mention some of the most considerable. Among the antiquities of this once superb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompassed with forty-six fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and seven feet and a half in circumference; the architrave is adorned with basso relievos, admirably executed, representing the wars of the Athenians. To the south-east of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are seventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and bases. Just without the city stands the temple of Theseus, surrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order; the portico at the west end is adorned with the battle of the Centaurs, in basso-relievo; that at the east end appears to be a continuation of the same history; and on the outside of the porticos, in the spaces between the triglyphs, are represented the exploits of Theseus. On the south-west of Athens is a beautiful structure, commonly called the Lantern of Demothenes; this is a small round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is supported by six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and a half high: in the space between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the resemblance of scales; and on the frieze are beautifully represented in relieve the labours of Hercules. Here are also to be seen the temple of the Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temple of Jupiter Olympus, and Augustus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are still visible at Castri, on the south side of mount Parnassus, and the marble steps that descend to a pleasant running water, supposed to be the renowned Castalian spring, with the niches for statues in the rock, are still discernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is still a natural curiosity in Livadia, the old Boeotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monte Santo, lies on a peninsula, which extends into the Aëgean sea, and is indeed a chain of Mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula, seven Turkish miles in length, and three in breadth: but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. This is so lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the sun-rising was held four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast; and, at the solstice, its shade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which island was distant eighty-seven miles eastward. There are twenty-two convents on mount Athos, besides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no less than six thousand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits who live in grottos are not above twenty: the other monks are anchorites, or such as live in cells. These Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are so far from being a set of slothful people, that, besides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, masons, stone-cutters, cloth-workers, tailors, &c. They also live a very austere life; their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheese, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fish. Their fasts are many and severe; which, with the healthfulness of the air, renders longevity so common there, that many of them live above an hundred years. It appears from Aëlian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the summit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life: whence the inhabitants were
called Macrobius, or long lived. We are farther informed by Philostratus, in the life of
Apollonius, that numbers of philosophers used to retire to this mountain, for the better
contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubt-
less built their cells.

The history of the Turks will be given at the end of our account of Turkey in
Asia, from which country they derive their origin, and extended their conquests into
Europe.

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ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in Europe, being part of
Ancient GREECE.

The principal of these islands, so celebrated in the Grecian history, is Candia, the
ancient Crete, famous in remote antiquity for being the birth-place of Jupiter, the
kingdom of Minos the legislator, and for its hundred cities. This island is situate be-
tween 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 180 miles long, and 40 broad, al-
most equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa, and contains 5,220 square miles.
The famous Mount Ida stands in the middle of the island, and is no better than a bar-
ren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid stream. Some of the valleys of
this island produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them remarkably excellent in their
kind. The siege of Candia, the capital of the island, in modern times, was of much
longer duration and more bloody than that of Troy. The Turks invested it in the
beginning of the year 1645; and its Venetian garrison, after bravely defending itself
against fifty-six assaults, till the latter end of September 1669, made at last an honour-
able capitulation. The siege coast the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians
80,000.

Santorin is one of the southernmost islands in the Archipelago, and was formerly
called Calista, and afterwards Thera. Though seemingly covered with pumice-stones,
yet, through the industry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley
and wine, with some wheat. One-third of the people are of the Latin church, and sub-
ject to a papish bishop. Near this island another arose of the same name, from the
bottom of the sea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attend-
ed with most dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the sea for several days,
so that, when it arose out of the sea, it was a mere volcano; but the burning soon
ceased. It is about 200 feet above the sea; and at the time of its first emerging, it
was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has since increased.
Several other islands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original; but the
sea in their neighbourhood is so deep as not to be fathomed.

The islands in the Ionian Sea, on the other side of Greece, belonged to Venice till
the late revolution, and the cession by the French of the greater part of the Venetian
dominions to Austria. They were first occupied by the French, but were taken from
them by the Russians and Turks, who, in 1800, formed them into an aristocratical re-
public, by the name of the Republic of the Seven Islands, which was recognised by
the treaty of Amiens. This republic is under the protection of Russia and Turkey, to the
the latter of which it pays a certain tribute every three years. But Russia appears to
take the greatest interest in these islands; and seems to treat them as a distant posses-
sion appertaining to its empire. There are now nearly 10,000 Russian troops in Corfu
and some others of these islands; which are nominally governed by a legislative body
and a president, but in reality by the Russian general and troops. The seven islands
which compose this republic, are Corfu, Paxo, Santa Maura, Cefalonia, Theaki, Zante,
and Cerigo.
PArOS lies between the islands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek islands, it contains the most striking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but it is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteness of its marble.

The CYCLADES islands lie like a circle round Delos, now called Dilli, the chief of them, which is south of the islands Mycone and Tirte, and almost mid-way between the continents of Asia and Europe. Though Delos is not above six miles in circumference, it is one of the most celebrated of all the Grecian islands, as being the birthplace of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whose temples are still visible. This island is almost destitute of inhabitants.

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, lies on the north part of the AEgean Sea or Archipelago, and is almost a square of twenty-five miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches arise from its mineral earth, much used in medicine, sometimes called terra Leninia, or terra sigillata, because it is sealed up by the Turks, who derive from it a considerable revenue.

NEGROPONT, the ancient EURBEX, stretches from the south-east to the north-west, and on the eastern coast of Achaia of Livadia. It is ninety miles long and twenty-five broad, and contains about 1300 square miles. Here the Turkish galleys lie. The tides on its coasts are irregular; and the island itself is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in such abundance, that all kinds of provisions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the island are, Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripo, situated on the south-west coast of the island, on the narrowest part of the strait; and Castel Rosso, the ancient Carystus.

Scyros is about sixty miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about three hundred Greek families inhabit it.

CefALONIA, the ancient CEPHALLENA, is situate opposite the Gulf of Lepanto, anciently the sea of Crissa, and is about 40 miles in length, and from 10 to 20 in breadth. The climate is extremely mild; flowers bloom in the season which corresponds to winter, and the trees bear ripe fruits twice in the year, in April and November, but those of the latter month are smaller than the others. The number of inhabitants in this island is between 60 and 70,000. The chief articles of commerce are oil, muscadine wine, and the species of grapes called currants*. The principal town is of the same name.

PAXO, or PAXU, situate at a little distance to the south of Corfu, is about 15 miles in circumference: it produces wine, oil, and almonds; but has but few inhabitants. The town is called San Nicolo, and has a good harbour. Opposite to it is a small island called Antipaxo.

Corfu, the ancient Coreya, and the Phaeacia of Homer, who places here his gardens of Alcinous, is about 45 miles long and 20 broad. It is situate opposite Albania, near the continent, between 30 and 40 degrees of north latitude, and 19 and 20 of east longitude. The air is healthy, the soil fertile, particularly in the northern part; and the fruits of every kind excellent, especially a delicious species of figs, there called Fraccazonii. Its other principal produce is salt, oil, and honey. The number of inhabitants is about 70,000. The town of Corfu, the capital, has an excellent harbour, is a place of considerable strength, and the seat of government for this republic.

THEARI, or LITTLE CEFALONIA, a small island opposite Cefalonia, claims particular notice, because it was the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulysses. It contains only about 3,000 inhabitants. The name of the principal town is Valthi, which has a spacious harbour.

Santa Maura, the ancient LEUCADIA, is about fifty miles in circumference; it was anciently joined to the continent, but the isthmus was cut through by the Carthaginians, or, as others say, the Corinthians: the channel between the island and the continent is at present, it is said, not more than 50 paces broad. It produces corn, wine, oil, citrons, pomegranates, almonds, and other fruits, and has fine pastures. The

* So called from a corruption of Corinth, whence the vines were originally brought.
principal article of its trade is salt. The town of St Maura contains about 6000 inhabitants, and is well fortified. Port Drepano in this island is an excellent harbour.

Zante, the ancient Zacynthus, is situate opposite the western coast of the Morea, and is about 14 miles long and 8 broad. The climate and produce is similar to those of the other islands. Its principal riches consist in currants, which are cultivated in a large plain under the shelter of mountains, which gives the sun greater power to bring them to maturity. Here are also the finest peaches in the world, each weighing eight or ten ounces. The number of inhabitants in this island is about 30,000. The principal town is Zante, which is fortified, and has a good harbour.

Cerigo, the ancient Cytherea, according to the mythologists the favourite residence of Venus, is situate to the south-east of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference. The greater part of it is mountainous and rocky, but the rest produces corn, and excellent grapes. The town of San Nicolo is this island has a fort and a good road for ships.

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**ASIA.**

As Asia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is also superior to them in the serenity of its air, the fertility of its soil, the deliciousness of its fruits, the fragrancy and balsamic qualities of its plants, spices, and gums; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richness of its metals, and the fineness of its silks and cottons. It was in Asia, according to the sacred records, that the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the first man and first woman, from whom the race of mankind was to spring. Asia became again the nursery of the world after the deluge, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once favoured people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our Redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious Gospel was carried, with amazing rapidity, into all the known nations, by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were founded, and the Christian faith miraculously propagated and cherished, even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest. But it must be owned that a great change has happened in that part of it called Turkey, which has lost much of its ancient splendour; and, from the most populous and best cultivated spot in Asia, is almost become a wild and uncultivated desert. The other parts of Asia continue much in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility as most of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms of it are more or less visible, as the several nations are seated nearer or further from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live in nearly the same latitude with us, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robust frame of their bodies, among the Chinese, Hindoos, and all the inhabitants of the most southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vast extent of territory was successively governed, in early times, by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; but the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline
of those empires, great part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the successors of Mohammedians, found in Asia, Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman, when in its height of power. The Saracen greatness ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every side, took possession of the middle regions of Asia, which they still enjoy. Besides the countries possessed by the Turks and Russians, Asia contains, at present, three large empires, the Chinese, the Mogul, and the Persian, upon which the lesser kingdoms and sovereignties of Asia generally depend. The prevailing form of government, in this division of the globe, is absolute monarchy. If any of its inhabitants can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how it was possible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mohammedianism. The Persian and Indian Mohammedans are the sect of Ali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mohammed for their lawgiver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found everywhere in Asia. Christianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazard, perils, and sufferings, of the Catholic missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of success, owing in a great measure to the avarice, cruelty, and injustice, of the Europeans who resort thither in search of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages spoken in Asia are, the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan; the Chinese, and the Japanese. The European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

The continent of Asia is situated between 25 and 180 degrees of east longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 6050 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about 5460 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca to the most northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the sea of Marmora, the Bosphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobo, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the east, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, which separates it from America; and on the south, by the Indian Ocean; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follows:
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<th>Nations</th>
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<th>Square Miles</th>
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<th>Dist. and hearing from London</th>
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<td>Russian</td>
<td>5,300</td>
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<td>China</td>
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<td>Pekin</td>
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<td>Hindostan</td>
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<td>3,720 S. E.</td>
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<td>India beyond the Ganges</td>
<td>2,000</td>
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<td>Siam Pego</td>
<td>5,040 S. E.</td>
<td>1 44 before</td>
<td>Pag. &amp; M.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persia</td>
<td>1,300</td>
<td>1,050</td>
<td>800,000</td>
<td>Isphahan</td>
<td>2,460 S. E.</td>
<td>3 20 before</td>
<td>Mahom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part of Arabia</td>
<td>1,400</td>
<td>1,260</td>
<td>700,000</td>
<td>Mecca</td>
<td>2,640 S. E.</td>
<td>2 52 before</td>
<td>Mahom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syria</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>1,60</td>
<td>29,000</td>
<td>Aleppo</td>
<td>1,650 S. E.</td>
<td>2 30 before</td>
<td>Ch. &amp; Ma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holy Land</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>7,600</td>
<td>Jerusalem</td>
<td>1,920 S. E.</td>
<td>2 24 before</td>
<td>Ch. &amp; Ma.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natolia</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>195,000</td>
<td>Bursa or Smyrna</td>
<td>1,440 S. E.</td>
<td>1 48 before</td>
<td>Mahom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diarbeck or Mesopotam.</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>27,000</td>
<td>Diarbeck</td>
<td>2,600 S. E.</td>
<td>2 56 before</td>
<td>Mahometans, with some few Christians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irac or Chaldex</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>50,400</td>
<td>Bagdad</td>
<td>2,240 S. E.</td>
<td>3 04 before</td>
<td>Mahom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turcopania or Armenia</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>55,000</td>
<td>Erzerum</td>
<td>1,860 S. E.</td>
<td>2 44 before</td>
<td>Mahom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia*</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>25,600</td>
<td>Teflis</td>
<td>1,920 E.</td>
<td>3 10 before</td>
<td>Mahom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curdistan or Assyria</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>23,900</td>
<td>Mousul</td>
<td>2,220 E.</td>
<td>3 — before</td>
<td>Mahom.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the Islands of Asia (except Cyprus, in the Levant,) lie in the Pacific or Eastern Ocean, and the Indian Seas; of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have settlements, are,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Islands</th>
<th>Towns</th>
<th>S. Miles</th>
<th>Trade with or belonging to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Japanese isles</td>
<td>Jeddo, Meaco</td>
<td>138,000</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Ladrones</td>
<td>Guam</td>
<td>17,000</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formosa</td>
<td>Tai-ouan-fou</td>
<td>11,900</td>
<td>China</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anian</td>
<td>Kiontcheow</td>
<td>133,700</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Philippines</td>
<td>Manilla</td>
<td>68,400</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Molucca, or Clove isles</td>
<td>Victoria Fort, Ternate</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Banda, or Nutmeg isles</td>
<td>Lantar</td>
<td>129,000</td>
<td>English &amp; Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amboyna (surrounding the Molucca)</td>
<td>Amboyna</td>
<td>228,000</td>
<td>All Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Celebes &amp; Banda isles</td>
<td>Macassa</td>
<td>33,850</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gilolo &amp;c.</td>
<td>Gilolo</td>
<td>33,850</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Sunda isles</td>
<td>Borneo, Caytongee</td>
<td>27,730</td>
<td>All Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sumatra</td>
<td>Achen, Bencoolen</td>
<td>27,730</td>
<td>All Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Java, &amp;c.</td>
<td>Batavia, Bantam</td>
<td>27,730</td>
<td>All Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Andaman &amp; Nicobar isles</td>
<td>Andaman, Nicobar</td>
<td>27,730</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ceylon</td>
<td>Candy</td>
<td>27,730</td>
<td>Russian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Maldives</td>
<td>Caridon</td>
<td>27,730</td>
<td>Russian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>Bombay</td>
<td>27,730</td>
<td>Russian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Kurile isles, &amp; those in the sea of Kantschatka, lately discovered by the Russians</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Georgia hath lately put itself under the protection of Russia.
TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 1120 between 23° and 44° North lat.
Breath 1010 between 26° and 45° East lon.
Containing 470,400 square Miles.

BOUNDARIES.] Bounded by the Black Sea and Circassia on the North; by Persia on the East; by Arabia and the Levant Sea on the South; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the West.

Divisions.

The eastern provinces are

1. Irac Arabia, or Chaldea
2. Diarbeek, or Mesopotamia
3. Kurdistan, or Assyria
4. Turcomania, or Armenia
5. Georgia, including Mingrelia and Imeretta, and part of Circassia

The provinces are

1. Natolia Proper
2. Amasia
3. Aladulia
4. Caramania

East of the Levant Sea. Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land

Chief Towns.

Bassorah and Bagdad
Diarbeck, Orsa, &c.
Mousul and Betlis
Erzerum and Van
Tefflis, Armarchia, and Goni

Bursa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus.

Mountains.] These are famous in sacred as well as profane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus, Taurus, and Anti-taurus; Caucasus and Ararat; Lebanon and Hermon.

Provinces, Cities, Chief Towns, Edifices.] The cities and towns of Turkey in Asia are very numerous, and at the same time very insignificant, because they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Aleppo, however, preserves a respectable rank among the cities of the Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. The houses, as usual in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street; an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble; and an elegant fountain of the same in the middle. Aleppo, and its suburbs, are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, on the highest of which the citadel, or castle, is erected, but of no great strength. An old wall, and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which was estimated by the late Dr Russel to contain 230,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 were Christians and 5,000 Jews; but at present, according to Mr Eton, it does not contain more than 50,000, which depopulation has chiefly taken place since 1770. Whole streets are uninhabited, and bazaars abandoned. It is furnished with most of the conveniences of life, excepting good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. The gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and pistachio trees; but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanseras, or large square buildings, containing their warehouses, lodging-rooms, and compting houses. This city abounds in neat, and some of them magnificent mosques; public bagnios, which are very refreshing; and bazaars, or market-places,
which are formed into long, narrow, arched, or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. Their coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their sweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendor and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, in consequence of particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here, but persons of quality ride on horseback, with a number of servants before them, according to their rank. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction. Scanderoon, or Alexandretta, about 70 miles to the west of Aleppo, and the port of that city, is now almost depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood.

As the mosques and bagnios, or baths, mentioned above, are built in nearly the same manner in all the Mohammedan countries, we shall here give a general description of them.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone: before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, the roof of which is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mohammedans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque; nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the Koran and praying.

The bagnios in the Mohammedan countries are admirably well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white well-polished stone, or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms: the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he were dislocating every bone in his body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath, display their finest clothes.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is supposed, from the site of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular square, and rudely fortified; but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and western caravans. The houses of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the free circulation of the air; many of the windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have also a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange-trees. The number of houses is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the pasha, which is calculated to produce 300,000l. sterling. The bazaars, in which the tradesmen have their shops, are tolerably handsome, large, and extensive, filled with shops of all kinds of merchandise, to the number of 12,000. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the place, as were also their bagnios, and almost every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. The population of Bagdad has, however, greatly declined within these few years. The plague of 1773 carried off two-thirds of the inhabitants, who now scarcely amount to 20,000; for here, as at Aleppo, whole streets and bazaars are desolate. In this city are five mosques, two of which are well built, and have handsome domes, co-
tered with varnished tiles of several colours. Two chapels are permitted for those of the Romish and Greek persuasions. On the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains and bastions, on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each bastion; but in the year 1779 they were so honey-combed and bad, as to be supposed not to be able to support one firing. Below the castle, by the water-side, is the palace of the Turkish governor; and there are several summer-houses in the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians who inhabited this city under the caliphs were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Animals.] The breed of the Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to these countries, but they contain all that are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are here in much request; from their strength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camels hair and silk, though it is now often made with wool and silk. Their kids and sheep are exquisite eating, and are said to surpass, in flavour and taste, those of Europe; but their butchers meat in general, beef particularly, is not so fine.

As to birds, here are wild fowl in great perfection: the ostriches are well known by their tallness, swiftness in running, and stupidity. The Roman epicures prizéd no fish, except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, but those that were found in Asia.

Natural curiosities.] The natural curiosities of Asiatic Turkey, though no doubt they must be numerous, seem to have been little explored or described by travellers, who have in general been more attentive to the remains of antiquity with which almost all the provinces of this empire abound.

Metals and minerals.] The mountainous provinces of Turkey in Asia no doubt abound in a variety of valuable minerals and metals; but the ignorance and indolence of those who possess the country are so great that nature has lavished her gifts in vain.

Rivers, lakes, mineral waters.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are, the Euphrates, which rises in the mountains of Armenia and falls into the Persian Gulf, after a course of about 1400 English miles; the Tigris, which falls into the Euphrates about 60 miles to the north of Bassora, after a course of nearly 800 miles; the Maeander, the Sarabat, or ancient Hermus, the Orontes in Syria, and the Jordan.

The lake of Van, in Kurdistan, is about 80 miles long and 40 broad. The lake of Rackama, to the south of Hilla and the ancient Babylon, is about 30 miles in length, and has a communication with the Euphrates. The lake of Asphalitae, usually called the Dead Sea, in Palestine, into which the Jordan flows, is about 50 miles in length and 12 in breadth.

The mineral waters of Prusa or Byrsa, at the foot of Mount Olympus, are in great estimation. The water smokes, and is so hot as to scald the hand. There are several other hot and mineral springs in different parts of Asiatic Turkey.

Climate.] Though the climate of this country is delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the Author of Nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a fearful scourge to mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in predestination, which prevents them from using the proper precautions to defend themselves against this calamity.

Soil and produce.] As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, it is scarcely necessary to inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in these provinces, are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparagus is of-
ten as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in large-
ness. In short nature has brought all her productions here to the highest perfection.

The ancient cities of Damascus, Tyre, and Sidon, still retain part of their former
trade. Damascus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is inexpressibly
beautiful. It contains a fine mosque, which was formerly a Christian church. It still
is famous for its steel works, such as sword-blades, knives, and the like, the excellent
temper of which is said to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manu-
ufacture also those beautiful silks, called damasks from their city, and carry on a consi-
derable traffic in raw and worked silk, rose-water extracted from the famous damask roses,
fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is still beautiful, especially to the
Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewise lies
within the ancient Phœnicia, has still some trade, and a tolerable harbour.

Ancient Assyria is now called the Turkish Curdistan, though part of it is subject
to the Persians. The capital is Curdistan, the ancient Nineveh being now a heap of
ruins. Curdistan is said to be for the most part cut out of a mountain, and is the resi-
dence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfar, formerly Edessa, is the capital of the pro-
vince of Mesopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly supported by a manufacture
of Turkish leather. Mousul is also in the same province, a large place, situated on the
west shore of the Tigris, opposite where Nineveh formerly stood.

Bassorah or Basrah, situate on the Euphrates, about 40 miles from the Persian
Gulf, is a place of considerable trade, containing about 50,000 inhabitants; but it is
scarcely to be included in the Turkish dominions, since it belongs to an independent
Arab prince, who pays very little respect to the Ottoman court.

Georgia or Gurcistan, now no longer subject to the Turks, is chiefly inhabited
by Christians. The natives of this country are a brave warlike race of men. Their
capital, Teflis, is a handsome city, and makes a fine appearance; all the houses are of
stone, neat and clean, with flat-roofs, which serve as walks for the women; but the
streets are dirty and narrow. The number of inhabitants is about 30,000. It is situ-
ated at the foot of a mountain, by the side of the river Kur, and is surrounded by strong
walls, except on the side of the river. It has a large fortress on the declivity of a moun-
tain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrison consists of
native Persians. There are thirteen Greek churches in Teflis, seven Armenian, and
one Roman Catholic church; the Mohammedans who are here have no mosques. In
the neighbourhood of the city are many pleasant houses, and fine gardens. The Geor-
gians, in general, are, by some travellers, said to be the handsomest people in the world,
which is attributed to their having early received the practice of inoculation for the
small-pox. They make no scruple of selling and drinking wines in their capital, and
other towns; and their valour has procured them many distinguishing liberties and pri-
ileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Russia, under the brave prince He-
racleius; as has the czar or prince Solomon, sovereign of Immeretta, a district between
the Caspian and Black Seas, who is distinguished from his subjects (all of the Greek re-
ligion) by riding on an ass, and wearing boots.

In Natolia, or Asia Minor, is Smyrna, which may be considered as the third cit-
ty in Asiatic Turkey. It contains about 120,000 inhabitants. The excellence of
its harbour renders it the centre of all the traffic carried on between Europe and the
Levant, and preserves it in a flourishing state; but the rest of this country, comprehen-
sing the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia,
and Pontus, or Amasia, all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman his-
tory, are now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre
of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible; and so luxurious is nature in
those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. The
selfish Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themselves, and their gardens and
summer-houses fill up the circuit of their most flourishing cities. The most judicious
travellers, upon an attentive survey of those countries, fully vindicate all that has been
said by sacred and profane writers of their beauty, strength, fertility, and population.
Even Palestine and Judea, the most despicable at present of all those countries, lie bur-
ried within the luxuries of their own soil. The Turks seem particularly fond of repre-
senting the latter in the most gloomy colours, and have formed a thousand falsehoods concerning it, which, being artfully propagated by some among ourselves, have imposed upon weak Christians*. 

Tyre, now called Sur, about twenty miles distant from Sidon, so famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by scarcely any but a few miserable fishermen, who live among the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are strong walls on the land side, of stone, eighteen feet high, and seven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half, and Christians and Mohammedans make up the number of about five hundred. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are still visible. The pavements of the old city, Mr Bruce tells us, he saw, and observes that they were seven feet and a half lower than the ground upon which the present city stands. Passing by Tyre (says our author, who deserves much praise for some happy elucidations of Scripture), I came to be a mournful witness of the truth of that prophecy—

"That Tyre, Queen of Nations, should be a rock for fishers to dry their nets on."'

Two wretched fishermen, with miserable nets, having just given over their occupation, with very little success, I engaged them, at the expense of their nets, to drag in those places where the said shell fish might be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous purple fish. I did not succeed; but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fishermen had ever been. The purple fish at Tyre seems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as, had they depended upon the fish for their dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing else but fishing, they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year. 

ANTIQUITIES.] The remains of ancient edifices and monuments in Turkey in Asia are so numerous that they have furnished matter for many voluminous publications. The provinces which compose this country contained all that was rich and magnificent, in architecture and sculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have suffered from the Europeans, seem to have diminished the number of these valuable antiquities. They are more or less perfect, according to the air, soil, or climate, in which they stand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek churches, and are more disfigured than those which remain in ruins. Amidst such a vast variety of curiosities, we shall select some of the most striking. 

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ismir), contains many noble and beautiful antiquities. The same may be said of Aleppo, and a number of other places celebrated in ancient times. The site of old Troy cannot be distinguished by the smallest vestige, and is known only by its being opposite to the isle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble, built in honour of Augustus Caesar, at Milasso, in Caria, and a few structures of the same kind in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are still entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latakia, have suffered very little from time or barbarism; and some travellers think they discern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Ephesus. 

Balbec is situated on a rising plain, between Tripoli, in Syria, and Damascus, at the

* The late reverend Dr Shaw, professor of Greek at Oxford, who seems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the soundest philosophy to make the most just observations, says, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very best parts of Syria and Phcenicia, because the soil is generally richer, and, every thing considered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenness (says he) of which some authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulness of the country, but from the want of the inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who possess it, and the perpetual discord and depredations of the petty princes who share this fine country. Indeed, the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Palestine," says Mr Wood, "we have often seen the husbandman sowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the seed." And, after all, whoever sows is uncertain whether he shall ever reap the harvest.

‡ Ezek. chap. xxvi. 5.  
foot of mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Coelo-Syria. Its remains of antiquity display, according to the best judges, the boldest plan that ever was attempted in architecture.—The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpressibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish towers. The hexagonal court behind is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. The walls were adorned with Corinthian pilasters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the same taste and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now so ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces, joined together by iron pins, without cement. Some of those pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the sordid Turks are daily at work to destroy the columns for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every-where richly ornamented with figures in alto-relievo, and the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses.—The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon, but some make them so modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different ages; and though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some part of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian era, though we cannot refer them to the ancient times of the Jews, or Phoenicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at present a little city encompassed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the ancient ruins. A free-stone quarry in the neighbourhood furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one of the stones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet 5 inches deep: its weight must be 1135 tons. A coarse white marble quarry, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the desert, is situated in the wilds of Arabia Petraea, in about 33 degrees of north latitude, and 200 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and opening all at once, the eye is presented with the most striking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the access to it is through a vast number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it which have been drawn and published by Mr Wood, who, with his friends, visited it about fifty years ago, purposely to preserve some remembrance of such a curiosity. As those drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we must refer the reader to them, especially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonnade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticoes, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so separated and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man that so superb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabited sands. Nothing however is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom, that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eastern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans and the western nations, for the merchandises and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered situation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have turned the most fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Antony; and its most su-
perb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that Emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow, Zenobia, reigned in great glory for some time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Unwilling to submit to the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and, among others, the excellent Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of Zenobia's treasures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. None of the Palmyrene inscriptions reach above the Christian era, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendor, but without effect, for it dwindled, by degrees, to its present wretched state. It has been observed, very justly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to those of Bulbec.

Between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where some superstitious and visionary people have sought the situation of Paradise, there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in these immense regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for these thousand years past. It is, indeed, easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek; Roman, or Saracenc: but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shown by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often razed to the ground, and rebuilt anew, that no scene of our Saviour's life and sufferings can be ascertained; and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testament. They are, it is true, under severe contributions to the Turks, but the trade still goes on, though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, said to be built by Helena, mother to Constantine the great, is still standing, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different divisions, and the dispositions made round it, are chiefly calculated to support the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches built by the same lady are found in Palestine; but the country is so altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the most despicable of any in Asia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any vestiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But the most fertile country, abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, must in time become a desert. Thus oppression soon thinned the delicious plains of Italy; and the noted countries of Greece, and Asia the Less, once the glory of the world, are now nearly destitute of learning, arts, and people.

Origin and History of the Turks.] It has been the fate of the more southern and fertile parts of Asia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men who inhabit the vast country known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of these people, called Turks or Turcomans, extended its conquests under various leaders, and during several centuries, from the shore of the Caspian to the Straits of the Dardanelles. Being long resident, in the capacity of body-guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mohammed, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief residence was in the neighbourhood of Mount Caucasus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major; and after being employed as mercenaries by the sultans of Persia, they seized that kingdom about the year 1037, and spread their ravages all over the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mohammedianism, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were sometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declension of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themselves masters of Palestine; and the visiting of the holy city of Jerusalem being then part of the Christian exercises, in which they had been

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tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under such heavy contributions, and exercised such cruelties upon the Christian inhabitants of the country, as gave rise to the famous Crusades, which we have mentioned more fully in the introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progress of the Christians than the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were spilt, a Christian kingdom was erected at Jerusalem, under Godfrey of Boulogne, neither he nor his successors were possessed of any real power of maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1229, had extended their dominions on every side, and possessed themselves, under Othman, of some of the finest provinces in Asia, of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, first embodied them into a nation: hence they took the name of Othmans, from that leader; the appellation of Turks, signifying wanderers or banished men, being considered by them as a term of reproach. Othman is to be styled the founder of the Turkish or Ottoman empire, and was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes recorded in history. About the year 1357 they passed the Hellespont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath settled the seat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of janizaries was established. Such were their conquests, that Bajazet I., after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in hopes of subjecting all the Greek empire. His greatness and insolence provoked Timur, or Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was just then returned from his eastern conquests, to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates; when Bajazet's army was cut to pieces, and he himself taken prisoner, and shut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The successors of Tamerlane, by declaring war against each other, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the value of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mahomet II. took Constantinople, in 1453. Thus, after an existence of ten centuries, from its first commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire: an event which had been long foreseen, and was owing to many causes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts and families, and the dislike their subjects had to the popes and the western church,—one of the patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romish legate, "that he would rather see a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Constantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks still exist, as we have already observed, particularly in Constantinople and the neighbouring islands, where, though under grievous oppressions, they profess Christianity under their own patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, who are richer than those of the Greek church, on account of their people being more wealthy and more conversant in trade. It is said that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkish government, still retain somewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles, which distinguished their ancestors.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed by the submission of all Greece: and from this time the Turks have been considered as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bajazet II., who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as Persia and Egypt. Bajazet, falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harassed by family differences, and at last, by order of his second son Selim, was poisoned by a Jew physician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldest brother, Achmet, to be strangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Persians and the prince of mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned his arms against Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.
He was succeeded, in 1520 by his son Solomon the Magnificent, who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that island to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Christian powers, and generally successful, both by sea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Austria, and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He miscarried also in an attempt he made to take the isle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son Selim II. In his reign the Turkish marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. His defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkish power, had the blow been pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa from the Moors. He was succeeded in 1575 by his son, Amurath III., who forced the Persians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewise took the important fortress of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593 he was succeeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is distinguished by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the Christians, and died of the plague in 1604. Though his successor Achmet was beaten by the Persians, yet he forced the Austrians to a treaty in 1606, and to consent that he should keep what he was possessed of in Hungary. Osman, a prince of great spirit, but no more than sixteen years of age, being unsuccessful against the Poles, was put to death by the janizaries, whose power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Persians. His brother, Ibrahim, succeeded him in 1640; a worthless inactive prince, and strangled by the janizaries in 1648. His successor, Mahomet IV., was excellently well served by his grand visier, Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been besieged for thirty years. This conquest cost the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is said, 180,000. A bloody war succeeded between the Imperialists and the Turks, in which the latter were so successful, that they laid siege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raise it with great loss, by John Sobieski, king of Poland, and other Christian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, shut up in prison by his subjects, and succeeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unsuccessful in their wars during his reign, and that of his brother and successor, Achmet I.—but Mustapha II., who ascended the throne in 1694, headed his armies in person. After some active campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialists and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Mustapha was deposed, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Russians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Russian army was surrounded without hopes of escape, the czarina inclined the grand visier to the peace, by a present of all the money, plate, and jewels, that were in the army: but the Russians delivered up to the Turks Asop, Kaminiec, and Taiganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was transferred to Hungary, where the imperial general, prince Eugene, gave so many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace at Passarowitz, in 1718. An unsuccessful war with the Persians, under Kouli Khan, succeeding, the populace demanded the heads of the visier, the chief admiral, and secretary, which were accordingly struck off; but the sultan also was deposed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He likewise was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognize that usurper as king of Persia. He was afterwards engaged in a war with the Imperialists and Russians: against the former he was victorious; but the successes of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, forced
him to agree to a hasty treaty with the emperor, and, after that, another with the Russians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died in 1754.

He was succeeded by his brother, Osman III., who died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother Mustapha III., who died on the 21st of January, 1774, whilst engaged in an unsuccessful war with the Russians, of which some account has been already given in the history of that country. In the course of this war, a considerable Russian fleet was fitted out, which set sail from the Baltic, with a view of attacking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February, 1770, and shaped its course for the Morea. Count Orlow having debarked such land forces as he had with him at Maine, a little to the westward of Cape Metapan, and about fifty miles to the south-west of Misitra, the ancient Sparta, the Mainotes, the descendants of the Lacedaemonians, and who still possessed the country of their ancestors, under subjection to the grand-signor, immediately flew to arms in every quarter, and joined the Russians by thousands, from their aversion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear of the arrival of the Russians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea seemed everywhere in motion. The open country was quickly overrun, and the ancient Laconia, Arcadia, and several other countries, as speedily taken; while the Russian ships, that had been separated, or that put into Italy, arrived successively, and landed their men in different places, where every small detachment soon swelled into a little army, and the Turks were everywhere attacked or intercepted. In the mean time, the Greeks gave the utmost loose to their revenge, and every where slaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were seized extended itself to the islands, where also the Turks were massacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head against the Russians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within the fortresses. The malcontents had so much increased since the first debarkation of the Russians, that they invested Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the castle of Patras, with several other places of less note. But whilst they were employed in these enterprises, an army of thirty thousand men, composed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by the seraskier, pacha of Bosnia. This Turkish general recovered all the northern part of the peninsula as soon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The Russians were now driven back to their ships; but about the same time, another Russian squadron, commanded by admiral Elphinstone, arrived from England to re-inforce count Orlow's armament. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that island from Natolia, or the Lesser Asia. The Turkish fleet was considerably superior in force, consisting of fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, besides a number of chebeques and galleys, amounting in the whole to near thirty sail; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ships engaged with great resolution, while others on both sides found various causes for not approaching sufficiently near. But Spiritoff, a Russian admiral, encountered the captain-pacha, in the Sultana, of ninety guns. yard arm and yard-arm; they fought with the greatest fury, and at length ran so close, that they locked themselves together, with grappling-irons, and other tackling. In this situation, the Russians, by throwing hand-grenades from the tops, set the Turkish ship on fire; and as they could not now be disentangled, both ships were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of succour, they both at length blew up with a most terrible explosion. The commanders and principal officers on both sides were mostly saved; but the crews were almost totally lost. The dreadful fate of those ships, as well as the danger to those that were near them, produced a kind of pause on both sides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night without any material advantage on either side. When it became dark, the Turkish fleet cut their cables, and ran into a bay on the coast of Natolia; the Russians surrounded them thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were successfully conveyed among the Turkish fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service, who, though abandoned by his crew, himself directed the operations of
The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few galleys, that were towed off by the Russians, was totally destroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a castle that protected it, with such success, that a shot having blown up the powder-magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus was there scarcely a vestige left, at nine o'clock, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in existence at one the same morning.

Some of the principal military transactions by land, in the war between Russia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we shall here only add, that, after a most unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July 1774, a few months after the accession of Achmet IV. The emperor Mustapha III, left a son, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government in the then critical situation of the Turkish affairs, Mustapha appointed his brother, the late emperor, to succeed him in the throne; and to this prince, under the strongest terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant son.

The perseverance of the Turks, supplied by their numerous Asiatic armies, and their implicit submission to their officers, rather than an excellency in military discipline or courage in war, have been the great springs of those successes which have rendered their empire so formidable. The extension, as well as duration, of their empire, may indeed be in some measure owing to the military institution of the janizaries, a corps originally composed of children of such Christian parents as could not pay their taxes. These, being collected together, were formed to the exercise of arms under the eyes of their officers in the seraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and so excellent was their discipline, that they were deemed to be invincible; and they still continue the flower of the Turkish armies; but the Ottoman power is in a declining state. The political state of Europe, and the jealousies that subsist among its princes, is now, the surest basis of this empire, and the principal reason why the finest provinces in the world are suffered to remain any longer in the possession of those haughty infidels.

Notwithstanding the peace which was established in 1774, between Russia and the Porte, various sources of discord having been left open, very little tranquillity could subsist between them. For an account of these we refer our readers to our historical narrative of the former empire. Towards the latter end of the year 1786, the Turks seem to have adopted a regular system of indirect hostility against Russia, which was, continually making such encroachments as made the Turks resolve to try again the fortune of war. Scarcely had the empress returned from the splendid journey which she made to Cherson, before a declaration of Turkish hostilities was announced at St Petersburg. What part the emperor of Germany would take in this war was not at first known. The capriciousness of his character kept the spirit of curiosity in suspense for some little time; but he soon declared himself determined to support all the claims which Russia had upon the Porte.

Instead of being disheartened at the formidable appearance of the confederacy formed against them, the Turks applied themselves with redoubled ardour to prepare for resistance. But an event that seems greatly to have contributed to the ill success experienced by the crescent in the year 1789, was the death of Achmet the Fourth, on the 7th of April.

This prince, if we make suitable allowances for the disadvantages under which he laboured as a despotic monarch, and the prejudices of his country, may be allowed to have possessed some claim to our esteem. He filled the throne of Constantinople without reflecting disgrace upon human nature. His temper appears to have been mild and humane. He not only permitted Selim, his nephew, son of the late emperor, to live, but even publicly acknowledged him for his successor. His reign was not stained with so many arbitrary murders as those of his predecessors; nor did he think it necessary that a disgraced minister should part at once with his office and his life. He suffered his countrymen to improve by the arts and military discipline of Europe. Yssouf, his prime minister, during the last three years of his life, though by no means consistently great, must be allowed to deserve our applause, and will be better known to posterity as the
patron of the Turkish translation of the Encyclopedie, then as the victorious and skilful rival of the Austrian arms in the Battat of Transylvania.

Achmet died at the unenterprising age of sixty-four, and Selim the Third succeeded, at twenty-eight. In the vigour of youth, he thought it necessary to distinguish himself by something extraordinary, and at first purpose to put himself at the head of his forces. He was easily, as might be expected from his effeminate education, dissuaded from this rash and ridiculous project. But he conceived that at least it became him to discountenance the ministers of his predecessor, and reverse all their proceedings. These ministers had acquired in some degree the confidence of those who acted under their command; and it appeared in the sequel, that the fantastic splendor of a new and juvenile sovereign could not compensate for the capricious and arbitrary changes with which his accession was accompanied.

In the year 1788 Choczim and Oczakow surrendered to the arms of Russia, as will be found in the history of that country; and on the 12th of September, 1789, the Austrian forces sat down before Belgrade, and with that good fortune which seemed almost constantly to attend their commander, marshal Loudohn. The place, together with its numerous garrison, surrendered, after a vigorous resistance, on the 8th of October. The rest of the campaign was little else than a succession of the most important successes; and a circumstance that did not a little contribute to this, was the system adopted by the Austrians and Russians, of suffering the Turkish troops to march out of the several places they garrisoned without molestation. Bucharest, the capital of Walachia, fell without opposition into the hands of prince Cobourg; while Akerman, on the Black Sea, was reduced by the Russians; and Bender surrendered to prince Potemkin, not without suspicion of sinister practices, on the 15th of November. One only check presented itself to the allied arms. The garrison of Orsova displayed the most inflexible constancy, and marshal Loudohn was obliged to raise the siege of this place in the middle of December, after having sat down before it for a period of six weeks. In a short time after the siege was renewed, and Orsova was reduced the 16th of April, 1790.

After the reduction of Orsova, the war was carried on with languor, on the part of Austria; and in the month of June a conference was agreed upon at Reichenbach, at which the ministers of Prussia, Austria, England, and the United Provinces, assisted, and at which also an envoy from Poland was occasionally present. After a negotiation, which continued till the 17th of August, it was agreed that a peace should be concluded between the king of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte; that the basis of this treaty should be a general surrender of all the conquests made by the former, retaining only Choczim as a security till the Porte should accede to the terms of the agreement; when it was also to be restored. On the other hand, the king of Prussia gave up the Belgian provinces, and even promised his assistance in reducing them again to submit to the dominion of Austria.

The king of Prussia was less successful in his mediation with Russia. Catharine had not, like Leopold, an imperial crown at stake, which, unsubstantial as it is, has always its charms with those who are educated in the habitual adoration of rank and dignities. Her conquests also, on the side of Turkey, were too important to be easily relinquished; and she considered her dignity attacked by the insolent style of Prussian meditation. The substance of her answer to the Prussian memorial was, therefore, “That the empress of Russia would make peace and war with whom she pleased, without the interference of any foreign power.”

The campaign of 1791 opened, on the part of Russia, with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th of April, by prince Galitzin; and in a subsequent victory, on the 12th, by the same general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, the Turks lost not less than 4000 men, and upwards of 100 officers, besides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Russian arms experienced a check, by which they lost about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquish their intention of besieging Brailow. After reinforcing this place, the visier proceeded to the banks of the Danube, near Sissliska; and by means of a bridge which he threw across the river, his advanced posts were enabled to make incursions on the opposite side. The ability of the visier, and the valour of the Turks, were however exerted in vain against the discipline and experience of European armies. In the
month of June, 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under general Kutu-
sow. On the 3d of July the fortress of Anape was taken by general Gudowitsch; and
the garrison, to the amount of 6000 men, made prisoners This event was followed, on
the 9th of the same month, by a signal victory which prince Repnin obtained near
Maczin over a body of 70,000 men, the flower of the Turkish army. The Ottomans
left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and lost their entire camp-equipage,
colours, and 30 pieces of cannon. The Russians are said to have lost only 150 men
killed, and between 200 and 300 wounded.

While the war was thus vigorously carried on, the mediating powers were not inac-
tive. Great Britain and Prussia, in particular, declared themselves determined to sup-
port the balance of Europe, and to force the empress to peace upon the basis of a status
quo. Of the interference of Britain, in this dispute, we have treated more largely in
another place. To the first applications of the English minister, the empress answered
in nearly the same terms in which she had before replied to the memorial of Prussia—
"That the British court would not be permitted to dictate the terms of peace." In
the course of the negotiation, however, her demands became more moderate: and as the
northern powers, and particularly Denmark, began to exert themselves for the preven-
tion of hostilities, she confined her views to the possession of Oczakow, with the district
extending from the Bog to the Dniester, and even then providing for the free naviga-
tion of the latter river. The negotiation was protracted to the 11th of August, when
at length peace was concluded between the Czarina and the Porte, nearly upon these
terms—terms which, considering the ill success of the war, cannot be accounted very
disadvantageous to the Turks, who lost a fortress more useful for the purpose of annoy-
ing Russia than for defending their own territories; but certainly of considerable im-
portance to Russia, which, by this cession, secured the peaceable possession of the
Crimea.

It is computed that in this war Turkey lost 200,000 soldiers; Russia 100,000; the
Austrians, who fell in the battle, or in the unhealthy marshes, are supposed to exceed
130,000.

The treacherous and wanton invasion of Egypt by the French, in 1798, without even
the pretence that the Porte had given them any cause of offence, justly provoked the
Turks to declare war against France; but of the hostilities which took place between
these powers, and which have been almost entirely confined to the attack on Egypt,
and some towns in Syria, an account is given elsewhere: it is therefore unnecessary to
repeat it here.

Selim III., born in 1761, succeeded to the throne of Turkey on the death of his
uncle, the late sultan, April 7, 1789.

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ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in ASIA.

The greater part of the Grecian islands in the Archipelago are considered by geo-
ographers as situate in Europe; but those which are very near to the Asiatic coast, with
the island of Cyprus in that part of the Mediterranean called the Levant, or Eastern
sea, must be referred to Asia.

Scio, anciently CHIOS, lies about eighty miles west of Smyrna, and is about one
hundred miles in circumference. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces
excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and
about 3,000 Latins. It has 300 churches, besides chapels and monasteries; and a
Turkish garrison of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold
and silver stuffs. The island likewise produces oil and silk, and the lentisk-tree, or
mastic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and
almost all the other Greek islands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and
their persons have been the most perfect models of symmetry to painters and statuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr Richard Chandler, says, "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban, the linen so white and thin, it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were silk of various colours; and, their whole appearance so fantastic and lively as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and historians said to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and show a little square house, which they call Homer's school.

Tenedos is remarkable only for its lying opposite to old Troy, and being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal security. It has a town of the same name.

Metylin, the ancient Lesbos, the principal city of which was Mytilene, whence the modern name, is situate to the north of the Gulf of Smyrna, about ten miles from the coast of Africa. It is about forty miles long and twenty-four broad. It produces excellent oil and wine, the latter of which was anciently in high esteem, and still sells at a great price. It is famous for having been the native place of Sappho. The ancient Lesbians were accused of dissolute manners, and the modern inhabitants, it is said, too much resemble them in this respect.

Cyprus lies in the Levant Sea, about thirty miles distant from the coasts of Syria and Palestine. It is 160 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almost an equal distance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and during the time of the crusades, was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. Its wine, especially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the most palatable and the richest of all produced in the Greek islands. Nicosia is the capital, in the midst of the country, and the see of a Greek archbishop; indeed, most part of the inhabitants of the island are Greeks. Famagusta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the island is so rich, that many Europeans nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it; but the oppressions of the Turks have depopulated and impoverished it to an extreme degree, so that the revenue they get from it does not not exceed £250l. a year. The island produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made; and also cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, silk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their ancestors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient seat of pleasure and corruption, is one of the divisions of the island Richard I., king of England, subdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Lusignan king of Jerusalem, from whence it passed to the Venetians, who long held that empty honour.

Stanchio, the ancient Cos, on the coast of Lesser Asia, nearly twelve miles from the continent, is about twenty-five miles long and ten broad. It abounds with cypress and turpentine trees, and a variety of medicinal plants. This island has a town of the same name, situated in a bay, with a harbour defended by a castle. Cos is famous for having been the birth-place of the great father of medicine, Hippocrates, and the celebrated painter Apelles.

Samos lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of Lesser Asia, about seven miles from the continent. It is thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. This island gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Christians, who are well treated by the Turks, their masters. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also produces wool, which they sell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and silk. This island is supposed to have been the native country of Juno: and some travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the finest remains of antiquity in the Levant.
To the south of Samos lies Patmos, about twenty miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, a convenient haven: and the few Greek monks, who are upon the island show a cave where St John is supposed to have written the Apocalypse.

The island of Rhodes is situated in 28° 45' of east longitude, and 35° 30' north latitude about 20 miles south-west of the continent of Lesser Asia, being about thirty-six miles long, and fifteen broad. This island is healthful and pleasant, and abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town, which also bears the name of Rhodes, is situated on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is three miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour of Rhodes is the grand signor's principal arsenal for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the strongest fortresses belonging to the Turks. The Colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, and was fifty fathoms wide, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships passed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The face of the Colossus represented the Sun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

**ARABIA.**

**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 1400</td>
<td>between 36 and 60 East longitude.</td>
<td>700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 1260</td>
<td>12 and 32 North latitude.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Name.** It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word Arab, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or freebooter. The word Saracen, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert. These names justly belong to the Arabians; for they seldom let any merchandise pass through the country without extorting something from the owners, if they do not rob them.

**Boundaries.** Bounded by Turkey, on the north; by the gulf of Persia or Basrarah, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west.

**Divisions.**

1. Arabia Petrea, W.
2. Arabia Deserta, in the middle

**Subdivisions.**

Neged

**Chief Towns.**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neged Proper</td>
<td>Imama</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Salemia</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hedjaz</td>
<td>Meca, E. lon. 41° 0 N. lat. 21° 40'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Medina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Hadramaut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Arabia Felix, S. W. and S. E.</td>
<td>Hadramaut</td>
<td>Dofar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yemen</td>
<td>Saana, E. lon. 46° 35' N. lat. 17° 26'</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mocha, E. lon. 44° 25 N. lat. 14° 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>Rostak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lachs, Hadjar</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lachsa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mountains.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petraea, east of the Red Sea, and those called Gibel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most noted.

Rivers, seas, gulfs, and capes.] There are few springs, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Rosalgate and Musledon.

Climate, soil, and produce.] As a considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer passes over Arabia Felix, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those on the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly by night. Here (says Dr. Shaw) are no pastures clothed with flocks, nor valleys standing thick with corn; here are no vine-yards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome, desolate wilderness, no otherways diversified than by plains covered with sand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unless sometimes at the equinoxes, refreshed with rain; and the intenseness of the cold in the night is almost equal to that of the heat in the day-time. But the southern part of Arabia, deservedly called the Happy, is blessed with an excellent soil, and, in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the sea coast, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes, frankincense, spikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a small quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarcely any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

Inhabitants, manners, customs, and dress.] The Arabsians, like most of the nations of Asia, are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be, in general, a martial, brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds.

The Arabians, in general, are such thieves, that travellers and pilgrims are struck with terror on approaching the deserts. These robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told that, so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea-coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel they can make master, of whatever nation.
The dress of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-kins, over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahommedans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water and sherbet made of oranges, water, and sugar, is their usual drink; they have no strong liquors.

Natural curiosities.] The deserts, mountains, and places mentioned in Scripture may be considered as the principal of these. What is called the Desert of Sinai is a beautiful plain nearly nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-east, but to the southward is closed by some of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make such encroachments upon the plain as to divide it into two parts, each so capacious as to be sufficient to receive the whole camp of the Israelites.

From Mount Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush. On those mountains are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to show the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in Scripture happened.

Animals.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for traversing the dry and parched deserts of this country; for they are so formed that they can throw up the liquor from their stomacks into their throats, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800lbs. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel, with two bunches on its back, and remarkably swift. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Yemen, in which Mocha is situated.

Cities, chief towns, edifices.] Among the cities of Arabia Felix, Mecca and Medina deserve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahommed, is a mosque, the most magnificent of any in the Turkish dominions; its lofty roof being raised in fashion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, which make a delightful appearance, and are conspicuous at a great distance. The mosque has a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the finest gildings and tapestry. The number of pilgrims who yearly visit this place is almost incredible, every Mussulman being required, by his religion, to come hither once in his lifetime, or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahommed fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and where he was buried, is a stately mosque supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the "Most Holy," by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahommed, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the pasha of Egypt, by order of the grand-signor, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden crescent, curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

The other principal cities of Arabia are Saana, Mocha, Jedda, or Juddah, Muscat, and Lachsa. Saana is considered as the capital of Arabia Felix. It has a castle, and
contains a number of mosques and other elegant buildings. It is about four miles in circumference, and surrounded by a brick wall with seven gates. The environs produce abundance of fine grapes, of above twenty different species, and great quantities of dried raisins are exported from this city.

Mocha is well built: the houses are very lofty, and are, with the walls and forts, covered with a chimney or stucco, that gives a dazzling whiteness to them. The harbour is semicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Judah is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea; for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets, and is interchanged, the former sending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the way of Cairo. The revenues of these, with the profits of the port, are shared by the grand-signor and the sheriff of Mecca, to whom jointly this place belongs.

Muscat is a considerable town, with an excellent harbour, and has been, from early times, a staple of trade between Arabia, Persia, and the Indies. It was taken by the Portuguese in 1508, and held by them during a century and a half. English ships from Hindostan carry on a trade with this town.

Lachsa is a large and well-built town, situated on a rapid stream, which falls into a large bay opposite to the isle of Bahrein, celebrated for the pearl fishery.

Learning and Language.] Though the Arabian in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is the Arabesque, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are among Europeans, and used by Mahommedans in their worship: for, as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other; they look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be a master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word camel, and five hundred for that of a lion. But among these are reckoned the metaphorical expressions and images of their poets. The Lord's prayer in Arabic is as follows:

\textit{Abuna eliadhi fi-sramwut; jetkkadar ermac; tati malacucac: taoouri masiachtic, cama fi-sama; kedhaic ala lardi eating ciobzena kefaiina iauum bezauum; saassor lena donubea na wachataina, cama nogor nachina lenem aci dôina; suwta taladkhatina fikojarib; laken mejina me nneschorin. Amen.}

Government, Laws.] Arabia is under the government of many petty princes who are styled sériffs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the caliphs of the Saracens, the successors of Mohammed. These monarchs appear to be absolute both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by pachas residing among them; but receive large gratuities from the grand-signor, for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country, from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but their emirs command both the persons and the purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs requires.

Religion.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mohammed their countryman. Many of the wandering Arabs are still little different from Pagans; but in general they profess Mohammedanism.

History.] The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others; for, as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is entirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, " have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the va-
rious conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Towards the north, and the sea-coasts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves the subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mohammed, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia which, from the luxuriance of its soil and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest and most delightful region of the world, and distinguished by the epithet of the Happy

Mohammed was born in the year 569, in the reign of Justinian II., emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, he was endued with a subtle genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition peculiar to himself and much beyond his condition. He had been employed in the early part of his life, by his uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, upon whose death he married his widow, Khadija, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while, at the same time, there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully took advantage of these; by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among men, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which had hitherto been established. In this design he was assisted by Sergius, a monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Khadija, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mohammed was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly well qualified, by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mohammed turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal. Mohammed gave out, therefore, that these fits were trances into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the number and enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God into the world not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eastern countries were at this time much addicted to Arians, who denied that Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecutions of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and, like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the better
able to indulge in the gratification of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. The system of Mohammed was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been intrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end, to establish a kingdom upon earth, which should propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had designed utter ruin and destruction to those who should refuse to submit to him; but to his faithful followers he had given the spoils and possessions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradise of all sensual enjoyments, especially those of love; that the pleasures of such as died in propagating the faith would be peculiarly intense, and vastly transcend those of the rest. These, together with the prohibition of drinking strong liquors (a restraint not very severe in warm climates), and the doctrine of predestination, were the capital articles of Mohammed’s creed. They were no sooner published, than a great number of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the priest before mentioned, and compose a book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we say the Bible, which means the Book. The person of Mohammed, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; so that the greater part of them were sufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a design to cut him off; but Mohammed, getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina alsuhachi, or the City of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to custom, greater at a distance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622d year of Christ, the fifty fourth year of Mahommed’s age, and the tenth of his ministry, his followers, the Mahommedans, compute their time; and the era is called in Arabic, Hegira, or Hejira, i. e. the Flight.

Mohammed, by the assistance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his insinuation and address daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at least to an acquiescence, in his doctrines. The speedy propagation of his system among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the East, who were previously disposed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forsook their ancient faith, and became Mmohommedans. In a word, the contagion spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Persia; and Mohammed, from a deceitful hypocrite, became a powerful monarch. He was proclaimed king at Medina, in the year 627; and, after subduing part of Arabia and Syria, died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both esteemed divine among their subjects. These were the caliphs of Persia and of Egypt, under the last of which Arabia was included. The former of these turned their arms to the East, and made conquest of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and, under the name of Saracens or Moors, (which they obtained because they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors,) reduced the greater part of Spain, France, Italy, and the islands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the successors of that impostor spread their religion and conquests over the greatest part of Asia, Africa, and Europe; and they still give law to a very considerable portion of mankind.
MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND LAWS, &c.,
OF THE

TURKS.

[** The following articles were omitted in their proper place: but as, in a work of this kind, information so amusing and interesting could not with propriety be dispensed with, the reader, it is hoped, will not be displeased with their insertion in this place.]

POPULATION.] The population of this great empire is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the best geographers been able to ascertain it, because of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian era, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various causes, and, above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reasons; and particularly, because the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practised, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithstanding the rigid subjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cause of depopulation. According, however, to the latest and most probable estimates, European Turkey contains about 8,000,000 of inhabitants: Turkey in Asia 10,000,000; and Egypt, if it may, with propriety, be deemed a part of the Turkish empire, about 2,500,000; so that the whole population of the Turkish empire may be estimated at above 20,000,000.

INHABITANTS MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robust men: when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handsome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handsome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypocondriac, grave, sedate, and passive; but when agitated by passion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with dissimulation, jealous, suspicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, and morose. Though the generality seem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity, with regard to Jews, Christians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of social affections for those of their own religion. But interest is their supreme good; and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, consanguinity, or friendship, are with the generality speedily dissolved. The morals of the Asiatic Turks are far preferable to those of the European. They are hospitable to strangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewise said to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public spirit is most conspicuous in their building caravanserais, or places of entertainment, on roads that are destitute of accommodations, for the refreshment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the same laudable view they search out the best springs, and dig wells, which in those countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks sit cross-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are simple and confined, seldom reaching without the walls of their own houses; where they sit conversing with their women, drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own, or any other country. If a visier, bashaw, or other officer, is turned out, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion, than that there will be a new visier or governor, seldom enquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former minister. They are perfect strangers to wit and agreeable conversation. They have few printed books, and seldom read any other than the Koran.
and the comments upon it. Nothing is negotiated in Turkey without presents; and here justice may commonly be bought and sold.

The Turks dine about eleven o’clock in the forenoon, and they sup at five in the winter and six in the summer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always high seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and sometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags; and the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is high seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of high rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate and sober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the use of wine; though in private many of them indulge themselves in the use of strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses, and cover themselves with a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diversion. The most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise when they conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites, prescribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependents. Within doors, the chess or draught-board are their usual amusements; and, if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

Dress.] The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it on but when they sleep. Their shirts are without collar or wristband, and over them they throw a long vest, which they tie with a sash, and over the vest they wear a loose gown somewhat shorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their stockings; and instead of shoes they wear slippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or house. They suffer no Christians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear stiffened caps upon their heads with hoods something like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffed up as not to be known by their nearest relations. Such of the women as are virtuous make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with henna, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards.

Marriages.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a sum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or proper magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Accordingly, besides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of scraggly of women; but all these indulgences are sometimes insufficient to gratify their unnatural desires.

Funerals.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpse is attended by the relations, chanting passages from the Koran; and, after being deposited in a mosque (for so they call their temples) they are buried in a field by the iman or priest, who pronounces a funeral sermon at the time of the interment. The male relations express their sorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a husband they wear a particular head-dress, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

Religion.] The established religion is the Mohammedan, so called from Mohammed, the author of it; some account of whom the reader will find in the foregoing his-
MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, &c. OF THE TURKS.

I

ory of Arabia, the native country of that impostor. The Turks profess to be of the sect of Omar; but these are split into as many sectaries as their neighbours the Christians. The mufti or sheik islam is the supreme chief of the religion of Mohammed in Turkey, the oracle who is consulted, and who solves all the questions that are put to him: his decisions are called fettas. The sultan has recourse to him in all difficult and intricate cases, and he promulgates no law, makes no declaration of war, establishes no impost, without having obtained a fettas. It is the mufti who girds on the sultan’s sword on his accession to the throne, at the same time reminding him of the obligation of defending the religion of the prophet, and of propagating its creed. The ulmas, or doctors of the religion and the laws, constitute a powerful body sometimes formidable to the throne itself. They possess the most lucrative employments, are secure from the extortions of pashas and great men, and cannot legally be put to death without the consent of their chief the mufti. Their property, after their decease, passes as a right to their heirs, and cannot be appropriated by the imperial treasury, unless they have accepted some office under government. The imans, who serve the mosques, and the muessan, whose employment is to ascend the minaret five times a day to call the people to prayers, do not belong to this body: they may be dismissed from their office, or voluntarily resign it, and return into the class of simple private persons.

The toleration of the Turks has been much extolled, but they make this toleration a source of revenue. The Christians are tolerated where they are most profitable; but the hardships imposed upon the Greek church are such as must always dispose that people to favour any revolution of government. Constantinople, Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privileges, with a civil as well as an ecclesiastical authority over their votaries. The same may be said of the Nestorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for their privilege, has its archbishop or bishops. All male Christians pay also a capitation tax from seventeen years old to sixty, according to their stations.

The insulting distinction of Christian and Mohammedan (says Mr Eton) is carried to so great a length, that even the minutiae of dress are rendered subjects of restriction. A Christian must wear only clothes and head-dresses of dark colours, and such as Turks never wear, with slippers of black leather, and must paint his house black, or dark brown. The least violation of these frivolous and disgusting regulations is punished with death. Nor is it at all uncommon for a Christian to have his head struck off in the street, for indulging in a little more foppery of dress than the sultan or vizier, whom he may meet incognito, approves. If a Christian strikes a Mohammedan, he is most commonly put to death on the spot, or at least ruined by fines and severely bastinadoed; and if he strikes, though by accident, a sheriff, or descendant of Mohammed, who wears the green turban, of whom there are thousands in some cities, it is death without remission.

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths who are designed for the state, the army, or the navy; but they are seldom preferred till about 40 years of age, and they rise by their merit. They are generally the children of Christian parents, either taken in war, purchased, or presents from the viceroy and governors of distant provinces, the most beautiful, well-made, and sprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the grand-signor, before they are sent to the college of seminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the seraglio, are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands, most of them the children of Christian parents. The brave prince Heraclius hath, for some years past, abolished the infamous tribute of children of both sexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the harem depends on the taste of the reigning monarch. Sultan Selim had 2000. Aehmet had but 300, and the present sultan hath nearly 1600. On their admission, they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. They all sleep in separate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptress. Their chief governess is called Katon Kila. 

O o 2
or governess of the noble young ladies. There is not one servant among them, for they are obliged to wait upon one another by rotation: the last that is entered serves her who preceded her, and herself. These ladies are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand-signor removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats which are enclosed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land, they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converse by signs with great quickness; and some dwarfs, who are exhibited for the diversion of his majesty.

**Commerce and Manufactures.**] These objects are little attended to in the Turkish dominions. The nature of their government destroys that happy security which is the mother of arts, industry, and commerce; and such is the debasement of the human mind, when borne down by tyranny and oppression, that all the great advantages of commerce, which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their situation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all those countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. They command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the southern ocean, and presents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey, must admire the situation of their capital, upon a narrow strait that separates Europe from Asia, and communicates on the south with the Mediterranean sea, thereby opening a passage to all the European nations as well as the coast of Africa. The same strait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a passage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Russia.

In this extensive empire, where all the commodities necessary for the largest plan of industry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themselves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and soap. The most valuable of their commodities, such as silk, a variety of drugs, and dying stuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely small, and managed entirely by the Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe, the Turks are altogether passive. The English, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, resort hither with their commodities, and bring back those of Turkey, in the same bottoms. They seldom attempt any distant voyages, and are possessed of only a few coasting vessels in the Asiatic Turkey, their chief royal navy lying on the side of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the best security to their government. The balance of power established among the princes of Europe, and their jealousies of one another, secure to the Turks the possession of countries which in the hands of the Russians, or any active state, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, especially their trade with India.

**Constitution and Government.**] The Turkish government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is shocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the last accounts of Sir James Porter, who resided at the Porte, in quality of ambassa- dor from his Britannic majesty, it appears, that the rigours of that despotic government are considerably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary succession to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and secure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconsiderable expense. Even the Jews and Christians may in this manner secure the enjoyment of their lands to the latest posterity; and so sacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no instance of an attempt on the side of the prince to trespass or reverse it. Neither does the observance of this institution altogether depend on the superstition of the Sultan; he knows that any attempt to violate it would shake the foundations of his throne, which is solely supported by the laws of religion. Were he to trespass these laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceases to be the lawful sovereign. The same observation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was designed by Mohammed both as a political code, and as a religious system. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to support them, are inviolable; and by them
the civil rights of the Mohammedans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explains the law where it is obscure, or extend and complete what Mohammed had left imperfect, are conceived to be equally valid with the first institutions of the prophet; and no member of society, however powerful, can transgress them without censure, or violate them without punishment.

The Asiatic Turks, or rather subjects to the Turkish empire, who hold their possessions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their serving in the field with a particular number of men, think themselves, while they perform that agreement, almost independent of his majesty, who seldom calls for the head or the estate of a subject, who is not an immediate servant of the court. The most unhappy subjects of the Turkish government, are those who approach the highest dignities of state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the vizier, or prime minister; the chiaya, second in power to the vizier; the reis effendi, or secretary of state, and the aga of the janizaries, are the most considerable, These, as well as the mufti, or high priest, the bashaws or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised, by their application and assiduity, from the meanest stations of life, and are often the children of Tartar or Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thousand difficulties and dangers, these men are generally distinguished for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They possess all the dissimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in an humble rank, and they have a farther reason for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities to which they are arrived. The administration of justice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon very equitable principles.

Revenues.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire must be immense. The revenues arise from the customs, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Christians and other subjects, not of the Mohammedan religion. The rich pay a capitation tax of 30 shillings a year; tradesmen 15 shillings, and common labourers 6 shillings and ten-pence halfpenny. Another branch of the revenue arises from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All these, however, are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of state, under the names of presents. These harpies, to indemnify themselves, as we have already observed, exercise every species of oppression that their avarice can suggest, till, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries and people they are sent to govern, their riches frequently give rise to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accusers; but, without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy bashaw receives it with the highest respect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, says, "The will of God and the emperor be done," or some such expression, testifying his entire resignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has ready in his bosom, and having tied it about his own neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and, drawing the cord straight, soon dispatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to the court. The revenues of the whole Turkish empire is estimated at about 7,000,000l. sterling; while the expences do not usually exceed 5,000,000. This revenue has lately been considerably augmented by improvements in the administration of the different branches, and particularly the farms.

Army, navy.] The militia of the Turkish empire is of two sorts; the first-have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treasury. Those that have certain lands amount to about 268,000 effective men. Besides these, there are also certain auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Wallachians, Moldavians, and, till of late, the Georgians, who...
are commanded by their respective princes. The khan of the Crim Tartars, before his country was subjected to Russia, was obliged to furnish 100,000 men, and to serve in person, when the grand-signor took the field. In every war, besides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of succeeding the officers. These adventurers do not only promise themselves an estate if they survive, but are taught, that if they die in war against the Christians, they shall go immediately to Paradise. The forces which receive their pay from the treasury are called the spahis, or horse guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janizaries, or foot-guards, who are esteemed the best soldiers in the Turkish armies, and on whom they principally depend in an engagement. These amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Constantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded so far sometimes as to depose the sultan. They are educated in the seraglio, and trained up to the exercise of arms from their infancy; and there are not less than 100,000 foot soldiers scattered over every province of the empire, who procure themselves to be registered in this body, to enjoy the privilege of janizaries, which are very great, being subject to no jurisdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

Mr Éton states the number of janizaries at 113,400; the whole of the Turkish infantry at 207,400, and the cavalry at 181,000; making a total of 388,400. But, deducting from these the levantis, who belong to the fleet, and can only be employed near the coast where the fleet is; the garrisons of Constantinople, and the fortresses and frontiers in Europe and Asia; the bostangees, who only march when the grand-signor takes the field; the miklagis, and such as serve the visier, the beglerbegs, and pashas, and never go into the battle; the remainder of effective men will amount only to 186,400. Yet the Porte (adds he) has often found it difficult to assemble 100,000 men; and in 1774, with its utmost efforts, could only bring into the field 142,000.

The naval force of the Turks is very inconsiderable. In their last war with Russia, their grand fleet consisted of not more than seventeen or eighteen sail of the line, and those not in very good condition: at present their number is lessened. Their galleys now are of no use as ships of war; but there are about twenty large vessels called caravellas, which belong to merchants, and in time of war are frequently taken into the service of the Porte, and carry 40 guns.

**Titles and Arms.** The emperor’s titles are swellied with all the pomp of eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, the Shadow of a God, a God on earth, Brother to the Son and Moon, Disposer of all earthly Crowns, &c. The grand-signor’s arms are, vert, a crescent, argent, crested with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron’s quills, with this motto, Donce tutum implet orbem.

**Literature.** The Turks till of late professed a sovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and sciences, produces at present, besides Turks, numerous bands of Christian bishops, priests, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themselves, and are divided into various absurd sects of what they call Christianity. The education of the Turks seldom extends farther than reading the Turkish language and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Their jurisprudence and theology consist only of commentaries on the Koran; their astronomy is astrology, and their chemistry alchemy; of the history and geography of other countries they are perfectly ignorant. Some of them understand astronomy, so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse; but the number of these being very small, they are looked upon as extraordinary persons.
PERSIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

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<th>Miles</th>
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<td>Length 1300</td>
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<td>Breadth 1050</td>
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NAME.] PERSIA, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danae. Less fabulous authors suppose it derived from Pars, Pars, or Fars, which signify a horseman,—the Persians, and Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

BOUNDARIES.] Modern Persia is bounded by the mountains of Arrarat, or Daghestan, which divide it from Circassia and Georgia, on the north west; by the Caspian Sea, which divides it from Russia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the north-east; by India, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] This kingdom contains the following provinces:—

**Provinces.**  
**Ancient Names.**  
**Chief Towns.**

| Farsistan | Persis, or Persia propria. | Shiraz |
| Irae Agemi | Media | Isphahan |
| Aderbeitaan | Media Atropatena | Taurus |
| Khusistan | Susiana | Suster |
| Mazanderan | Margiana | Ferabad |
| Khorasan | Margiana and Aria | Herat |
| Ghilan | Gela | Reshd |
| Sablestan | Bactriana | Bost |
| Schirvan | Albania | Schamakie |
| Segestan | Arachosia | Zareng |
| Mekran | Gedrosia | Kidge |
| Laristan | | Lar |
| Kerman | Caramania | Kerman |

RIVERS.] It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rise in or near the mountains of Arrarat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian Sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Usbec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

The want of rivers in Persia, occasions a scarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts and canals.

MOUNTAINS.] These are Caucasus and Arrarat, which are called the mountains of Daghestan; and the vast chain of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, which run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and, above all, turquoise-stones, which are found in Khorasan. Sulphur, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have also been discovered near Taurus.

CLIMATE.] Those parts of Persia which border upon Caucasus and Daghestan, and the mountains near the Caspian Sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of these mountains, which are commonly covered with snow. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilarating; but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.
ANIMALS.] The breed of horses in the province of Fars is at present very indifferent, owing to the ruinous state of the country; but in the district of Dushtistan, lying to the south-west, it is remarkably good. The sheep are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of the pasturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are also celebrated for the fineness of their fleece: "They have tails of an extraordinary size, some of which I have seen weigh," says Mr Franklin, "upwards of thirty pounds; but those which are sold in the markets do not weigh above six or seven. Their oxen are large and strong, but their flesh is seldom eaten by the natives, who confine themselves chiefly to that of sheep and fowls."

SOIL, VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the mountains near the Caspian Sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the country abounds in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life. It produces oil in plenty, senna, rhubarb, and the finest drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially the dates, oranges, pista chio nuts, melons, cucumbers, and garden-stuff. Great quantities of excellent silk are likewise produced in this country, and the Gulf of Bassorah formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Isphahan, especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them particularly roses, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers, of Persia are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as much perfection as some nations of Europe, by transplanting, engraving, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assafedida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the necessities of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful spot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it is situate, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of every thing necessary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harvest is completed. Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are superior in size and flavour to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are several sorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly so than the rest: one is the large white grape, which is extremely luscious, and agreeable to the taste; the small white grape, as sweet as sugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made, which is really delicious, and well deserving of praise. It is pressed by the Armenians and Jews, in the months of October and November, and a great quantity is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Persian Gulf, for supplying the Indian market. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Persians call it the fruit of Paradise.

NATURAL CURiosITIES.] The baths near Gombroon are medicinal, and esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naptha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country is the burning phenomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, mentioned under the article of Religion.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies, in modern, as well as in ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; the men being fond of marrying Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexes towards the south are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; and religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them cost twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear calico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below their knee, girt with a sash, and
over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are very expensive, consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslins, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trousers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpose both of health and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent ablutions, which are the more necessary as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner upon fruits, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton or fowls, is so prepared that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat fast, and without any ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor and sit at the lower end of the room, they all give a strict attention to his words. They are temperate, but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They use great ceremony towards their superiors, and politely accommodate Europeans who visit them, with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross-legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, so as to be cool in the mouth, that, when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Persians are naturally fond of poetry, moral sentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and the national revolutions, have mingled the native Persians with barbarous nations, and are said to have taught them dissimulation; but they are still pleasing and plausible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for their hospitality. The great-foible of the Persians seems to be ostentation in their equipages and dresses; nor are they less jealous of their woman than the Turks and other eastern nations. They are fond of music, and take a pleasure in conversing in large companies; but their chief diversions are those of the field, hunting, hawking, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms; in all which they are very dexterous. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beasts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places of Shirauz (Mr. Franklin observes) distinguished by the name of Zoor Khana, the house of strength, or exercise, to which the Persians resort for the purpose of exercising themselves. These houses consist of one room, with the floor sunk about two feet below the surface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartments by means of several small perforated apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large square terrace of earth, well beaten down, smooth and even; and on each side are small alcoves, raised about two feet above the terrace, where the musicians and spectators are seated. When all the competitors are assembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately strip themselves to the waist; on which each man puts on a thick pair of woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the shape of a pear; these they rest upon their shoulders; and the music striking up, they move them backwards and forwards with great agility; stamping with their feet at the same time, and straining every nerve, till they produce a very profuse perspiration. After continuing this exercise about half an hour, upon a signal given they all leave off, quit their clubs, and, joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briskly in unison with the music, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this exercise for some time, they commence wrestling; in which the master of the house is always the challenger, and, being accustomed to the exercise, generally proves the conqueror. The spectators pay each a shahée in money, equal to threepence English, for which they are refreshed with a cælan to smoke, and coffee. This mode of exercise must
contribute to health, as well as add strength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. It seems to bear some resemblance to the gymnastic exercise of the ancients.

The Persians, with respect to outward behaviour, are certainly the most polished people of the East. While a rude and insolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish nation towards foreigners and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilized nations. They are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all strangers, without being guided by those religious prejudices so very prevalent in every other Mohammedan nation; they are fond of inquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and, in return, very readily afford any information in respect to their own country. The practice of hospitality is with them so grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly honoured if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a house without smoking a caleen, or taking any other refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say that every meal a stranger partakes with them brings a blessing upon the house.

The Persians, in their conversation, use extravagant and hyperbolical compliments on the most trifling occasions. This mode of address (which in fact means nothing) is observed not only by those of a higher rank, but even amongst the meanest artisans, the lowest of whom will make no scruple, on your arrival, to offer you the city of Shiraz and all its appendages, as a peishkush or present. This behaviour appears at first very remarkable to Europeans, but after a short time becomes equally familiar. Freedom of conversation is a thing totally unknown in Persia, as, that walls have ears, is proverbially in the mouth of every one. The fear of chains which bind their bodies has also enslaved their minds; and their conversation to men of superior rank to themselves is marked with signs of the most abject and slavish submission; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

In their conversation the Persians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verses and passages from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafez, Sadi, and Jami; a practice universally prevalent from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantage of reading and writing, or the other benefits arising from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive of whatever they have heard, are always ready to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their conversations, which is the strict attention they always pay to the person speaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a personable, and in many respects a handsome people; their complexions, except those who are exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The brightness and sparkling in the eyes of the women, a very striking beauty, are in a great measure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called surma) which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural lustre.

Funerals.] The funerals of the Persians are conducted in a manner similar to those in other Mohammedan countries. On the death of a Mussulman, the relations and friends of the deceased, being assembled, make loud lamentations over the corpse; after which it is washed, laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city-walls, attended by a Mullah, or priest, who chants passages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Mussulman should chance to meet the corpse during the procession, he is obliged, by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his assistance in carrying it to the grave, crying out, at the same time, Lab Allah, Ill Lillah! There is no God, but God. After interment, the relations of the deceased return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and spices, which they eat in memory of the deceased; sending a part of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they may also pay him a like honour. This custom seems to be derived from very great antiquity, as we read in Homer of sacrifices and libations being frequently made to the memory of departed souls.

Marriages.] When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him they look out among their kindred and acquaintance for a suitable match; they
then go to the house where the female they intend to demand lives. If the father of
the woman approves, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in; which is tak-
en as a direct sign of compliance. After this the usual presents on the part of the
bridegroom are made, which, if the person be in middling circumstances, generally con-
sist of two complete suits of apparel, of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a
small sum in ready money, of about ten or twelve toman, which is to provide for the
wife in case of a divorce. There is also provided a quantity of household stuff of all
sorts, such as carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing victuals, &c. The con-
tract is witnessed by the cadi, or magistrate. The wedding-night being come, the
bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot in a veil of red silk, or painted mus-
lin; a horse is then presented for her to mount, which is sent expressly by the bride-
groom; and when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her by one of
the bride-maids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition to her,
that it is the last time she will look into the glass as a virgin, being now about to enter
into the cares of the married state. The procession then sets forward in the following
order:—First the music and dancing-girls, after which the presents in trays borne upon
men's shoulders; next come the friends and relations of the bridegroom, all shouting,
and making a great noise; who are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all
her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle, and several
others on horseback close the procession. Rejoicings on this occasion generally con-
tinue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Per-
sia, as well as through all Tartary; and all travellers or merchants, who intend to
stay sometime in any city, commonly apply to the cadi, or judge, for a wife during the
time he proposes to stay. The cadi, for a stated gratuity, produces a number of girls,
whom he declares to be honest, and free from diseases; and he becomes surety for
them. A gentleman, who lately attended the Russian embassy to Persia, declares,
that amongst thousands, there has not been one instance of dishonesty during the time
agreed upon.

Cities, chief towns, edifices.] Isphahan or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is
seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with
water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and
crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses,
where they spend their summer evenings; and different families associate together.
The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth:
and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it,
is three miles in circumference. There are in Isphahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravanserais,
260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets, and palaces, in which
are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the people. This capi-
tal is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated
by Kouli Khan during his wars; so that we may easily suppose that it has lost great
part of its ancient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was
thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Shirazu lies about 225 miles to the south-east of Isphahan. It is an open town, but
its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in
gardens, the flowers and fruits of which are incomparable. The wines of Shirazu are
reckoned the best of any in Persia. The town is the capital of Persistan, or Persis
Proper, and has a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an uncommon
number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings; but its streets are narrow
and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited. Shirazu has many
good bazaars and caravanserais; that distinguished by the appellation of the Vakeel's
bazaar (so called from its being built by Kherim Khan) is by far the handsomest. It is
a long street, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed
something in the style of the piazzas in Covent-garden; it is lofty and well made; on
each side are the shops of the tradesmen, merchants, and others, in which are exposed
for sale a variety of goods of all kinds; these shops are the property of the Khan, and
are rented to the merchants at a very easy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazaar is
a spacious caravanserai, of an octagon form, built of brick, the entrance through a hand-
some arched gateway; in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandise, and on the sides, above and below, commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; these are also rented at a moderate monthly sum. About the centre of the above-mentioned bazar, is another spacious caravanserai of a square form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to represent China-ware, and has a pleasing effect to the eye.

The city of Shirauz is adorned (according to Mr. Francklin) with many fine mosques, particularly that built by the late Kherim Khan, which is a noble one. Being very well disguised, says our traveller, in my Persian dress, I had an opportunity of entering the building unobserved. It is of a square form; in the centre is a stone reservoir of water, made for performing the necessary ablutions, previous to prayer; on the four sides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotion, some of the fronts of which are covered with china tiles; but Kherim Khan dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls on each side, are engraved various sentences from the Koran in the Nushki character; and at the upper end of the square is a large dome, with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the vakeel, or for the sovereign; this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and three large silver lamps suspended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another mosque, which the Persians call the Musjidi Noô, or the New Mosque, but its date is nearly coeval with the city itself; at least, since it has been inhabited by Mohammedans; it is a square building, of a noble size, and has apartments for prayer on each side; in them are many inscriptions in the old Cufic character, which of themselves denote the antiquity of the place.

Provisions of all kinds are very cheap in this city; and the neighbouring mountains affording an ample supply of snow throughout the year, the meanest artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled without any expense worthy consideration. This snow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is sold in the markets. The price of provisions is regulated in Shirauz, with the greatest exactness, by the daroga, or judge of the police, who sets a fixed price upon every article; and no shop-keeper dares to demand more, under the severe penalty of losing his nose and ears.

The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Persia, is very strict. At sun-set, the gates of the city are shut; no person whatever is permitted either to come in or go out during the night; the keys of the different gates being always sent to the hakim or governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three tablas, or drums, are beaten at three different times; the first at eight o'clock, the second at nine, and the third at half past ten. After the the third tabla has sounded, all persons whatsoever found in the streets by the daroga, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are instantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the hakim; and if they cannot give a very good account of themselves, are punished, either by the bastinado or a fine.

The houses of men of quality in Persia are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks already described. They are seldom above one storey high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being built apart. Few of them have chimneys, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlets, with carpets under them.

Taurus, or Tebriz, the chief city of Aderbeitzan, was formerly the capital of Persia, and is said to contain 300 caravanserais, or inns, and 250 mosques. The number of inhabitants was estimated by Chardin at 550,000, besides a multitude of strangers who resorted therither from all parts of Asia. The bazaars, or market-places, are particularly grand and spacious; and it is said that the great square has held 30,000 men drawn up in the order of battle. The finest Persian turbans are made in this city; and its trade, which is very great in cloth, cotton, silks, gold and silver brocades, and shagreen leather,
extends not only all over Persia, but into Turkey, Russia, Tartary, and the East Indies.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English, and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabsians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans, which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE. The Persians equal, if they do not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in silk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste, and elegance, to richness, neatness, and show; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dyeing excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse-furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists; which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or the profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the English and other nations, by the Gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English in trading with the Persians through Russia promised great advantages to both nations, but it answered the expectations of neither. The court of Peters burg probably is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian-Sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians. The Caspian Sea is about 680 miles long, and 260 broad in the widest part; it has no tide, but is navigable by vessels drawing from nine to ten feet of water, with several good ports. The Russian ports are Kislar and Gurief. Derbent and Niezabah belong to Persia, as also Einzellee and Astrabed, with Baku, the most commodious haven in this sea, and which has a fortress surrounded with high walls. As the manufactures and silk of Ghilan are esteemed the best in Persia, Resched on the Caspian is one of the first commercial towns in this part of Asia, and supplies the bordering provinces with European merchandise.

RELIGION. The Persians are Moslemans of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if possible, in some things more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with some Brahmin superstitions. A comparison may be made between the Brahmins and the Persian Guebres or Gours, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaster. I that both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved: but the Indian Brahmins and Perses accuse the Gours, who still worship the fire, of having sensualised those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the devotions of the Guebres. This ground is impregnated with inflammatory substances, and contains several old little temples; in one of which the Guebres pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end of a large hollow cane struck into the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. The Mohammedans are the declared enemies of the Gours, who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. Their sect, however, is said to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion: Some of them, called Souseses, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabean Christians have, in their religion,
mixture of Judaism and Mohammedanism; and are numerous towards the Persian Gulf.

The Armenians and Georgians are very numerous in Persia.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramazan (the 9th month of the Mahomedan year) with great strictness and severity. About an hour before day-light, they eat a meal which is called sehre, and from that time until the next evening at sun-set they neither eat nor drink of any thing whatever. If, in the course of the day, the smoke of a calean, or the smallest drop of water, should reach their lips, the fast is in consequence deemed broken, and of no avail. From sun-set until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Ramazan falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do (the Mahomedan year being lunar), is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the day-time; and is still rendered more so, as there are also several nights during its continuance, which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died, from a wound which he received from the hands of an assassin, three days before; which night is the 21st of Ramazan, the day of which is called by the natives the Day of Murder. The other is the night of the 25th, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from Heaven by the hands of the Angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mohammed: wherefore it is denominated the 'Night of Power.'

Military force.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought into the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000: but, according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built some armed vessels; but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

Revenues.] The king claims one third of the cattle, corn, and fruits, of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxation and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expenses of the court, king’s household, and great officers of state. The water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mohammedans, pay each a ducat a head.

Arms and titles.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant, looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or Sovereign; Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner: “This act is given by him whom the universe obeys.”

Constitution, government, and laws.] These are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despotic and often capricious monarch. The Persians, however, had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king’s will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahomedan kings of Persia are almost incredible, especially during the last two centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man on account of his high station expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

The laws of Persia, where the will of the sovereign does not interfere, are, like those of other Mohammedan countries, founded on the Koran. Civil matters are all deter-
or head of the faith, an office answering to that of Mufti in Turkey. Justice is administered in Persia in a very summary manner; the sentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of the nose and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which situation he is exposed upon a gibbet in one of the most public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment: a dreadful punishment, but it renders robberies in Persia very uncommon. The punishments in this country are so varied and cruell, that humanity shudders at them.

Language. The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian sea, speak the Turkish; and the Arabic, probably introduced into Persia under the Caliphate, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as a modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persic is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian Gulf, and in Isfahan; but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuscripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible.

The Lord's prayer in Persian is as follows: Ei Padere ma kib der osmoni; pac barched mam tu; hay ayed padeslhabi tu; shekwad clewaaste tu benzjunaakib der osmon viz derzemin; beh mara jarouz nan kef af rows mara; xondarguasae mara konahon ma xjunaakilma viz mig sarim orman mara; wador ozmajisch minezassmara; ilikin chalas kun mara ez efcherir. Amen.

Literature.] The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for polite literature, and their poets renowned all over the East. There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of a hundred and thirty-five of the finest Persian poets Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are said by Mr Jones to be "a glorious monument of eastern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shiranz, and flourished in the thirteenth century, and wrote many elegant pieces both in prose and in verse. Shemzeddin was one of the most eminent lyric poets that Asia has produced; and Nakhshheb wrote in Persian a book called the "Tales of a Parrot," not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whose beautiful compositions, on a great variety of subjects, are preserved at Oxford in twenty-two volumes. Hariri composed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several fine pieces of poetry.

Of the sprightly and voluptuous bard of Shiranz, the name and character are sufficiently known to Orientalists. It may, however, excite the curiosity of the English reader, that the poet Hafez, here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended Emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and elegance of his verses; that the most powerful monarchs of the East sought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchase the praises of his Muse by all the honours and splendor of a court; and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of mystic piety to the superstitious Mohammedan; the oracle which, like the Sortes Virgiliane, determined the councils of the wise, and prognosticated the fate of armies and of states. Seventeen odes have already been translated into English by Mr Not, with which he has published the originals, for the purpose of promoting the study of the Persian language. The 21st ode has also appeared in an English dress, by the elegant pen of Sir William Jones.

The tomb of this celebrated and deservedly admired poet stands about two miles distant from the walls of the city of Shiranz on the north-east side. It is placed in a large garden, and under the shade of some cypress trees of extraordinary size and beauty; it is composed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breadth. This was built by Kerm Khan, and covers the original one. On the top and sides of
the tomb are select pieces from the poet's own works, most beautifully cut in the Persian Nustaleek charcher. During the spring and summer season, the inhabitants visit here, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess and other games, reading also the works of Hafez, who is in greater esteem with them than any other of their poets; and they venerate him almost to adoration, never speaking of him but in the highest terms of rapture and enthusiasm. A most elegant copy of his works is kept upon the tomb, on purpose, for the inspection of all who go there. The principal youth of the city assemble here; and show every possible mark of respect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shiraz to his memory. Close by the garden runs the stream of Roanabad, so celebrated in the works of Hafez, and within a small distance is the sweet bower of Mosseiy.

At present learning is at a very low ebb among the Persians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer; which often defeats the ends of the prescriptions. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the praclices of Galen and Avicenna. The plague is but little known in this country; and almost equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

Antiquities.] The monuments of antiquity in Persia are more celebrated for their magnificence and expense, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia but they are void of that elegance and beauty displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern monuments is a pillar to be seen at Isphahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah-Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls; but, upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

History.] The Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian. Cyrus laid its foundation about 536 years before Christ, and restored the Israelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, whose descendants, in less than three centuries, were conquered by the Romans. The latter, however, never fully subdued Persia; and the natives had princes of their own, from Arsaces, called Arsacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Timur-Leng, or Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mohammed himself. His successors, from him sometimes called Sophis, though some of them were valiant and politic, proved in general to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into such a disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that Hussein, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Thamas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and, assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret
Ambition of Nadir broke out; and, after assuming the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded. he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. He made an expedition into Hindooostan, from which country he carried off an amazing booty in money, precious stones, and other valuables; but it has been remarked, that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his plunder from India, losing great part of it upon his return by the Mahrrattas and accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghsthan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He vanquished the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, and particularly his attempt to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar, and strangling the chief priests who resisted, that it was thought his brain was disordered; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; and it may naturally be supposed, that a chronological and accurate account of these various and rapid revolutions is very difficult to be obtained. The confusion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir, until the settlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and sciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Persia was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties in different provinces of the kingdom struggling for power, and each endeavouring to render himself independent of the other, torrents of blood were shed, and the most shocking crimes were committed with impunity. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Russia, presents to the view thousands of instances of the misery and devastation which has been occasioned by these commotions.

From the accounts we have been able to collect, the number of pretenders to the throne of Persia, from the death of Nadir Shah until the final establishment of Kerim Khan's government, was no less than nine, including himself. Kerim Khan Zund was a most favourite officer of Nadir Shah, and at the time of his death was in the southern provinces; Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at last, after various encounters with doubtful success, completely to subdue all his rivals; and finally to establish himself as ruler of all Persia. He was in power about 30 years, the latter part of which he governed Persia under the appellation of Vakeel or regent, for he never would receive the title of Shah; he made Shirauz the chief city of his residence in gratitude for the assistance he had received from its inhabitants, and those of the southern provinces. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his subjects, who esteemed and honoured him as the glory of Persia. His character is most deservedly celebrated for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained, so that, during his whole reign, there was not in Shirauz a single riot productive of bloodshed: besides these merits, his aversion to severe punishments, his liberality and kindness to the poor, his toleration of people of different persuasions, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities and personal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own subjects, but greatly respected by foreign powers.

After the death of Kerim Khan his kinsman Zikea, or Saki, seized the government, but on account of his cruelties was soon murdered by the soldiers, who raised Abul Futtab, the son of Kerim, to the throne. He was soon after deposed by his uncle Sadick, who was besieged in Shirauz, taken and put to death by Ali Murad, another relation of Kerim's Khan's. A eunuch, however, of the name of Nazi Mahmet, or Akau Mohammed Khan, refused to acknowledge the conqueror as sovereign. Ali Murad marched against him, but on his way died by a fall from his horse. Jaafar Khan, who had been made governor of Kom by Ali Murad, then assumed the regal authority, but being defeated by Akau, the latter retained possession of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Isphahan, Hamadan, and Tauris, where he was acknowledged as sovereign. Jaafar Khan held possession of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces or districts of Beaboon and Shuster: he also received an annual present.
from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd: Abushehr and Lar also send him tribute. The southern provinces are in general more fruitful than those to the northward, they not having been so frequently the scenes of action during the late revolutions.

In 1792, however, Akau Mahommed Khan assembled an army, and advanced against Jaaffar Khan, who was slain at Shiraz, in an insurrection; after which Akau became sole sovereign of Persia, except that part in the west included in the dominions of the Afghan sovereign of Cabul and Candahar.

Akau Mohammed Khan, in 1800 was about sixty years of age, tall in stature, but of a disagreeable countenance. He is said to possess great art and dissimulation, and equal avarice and ambition. Being a cunning, he had nominated for his successor his nephew Baba Serdar.

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**INDIA.**

**Situation and Boundaries.** This vast country is situated between the 60th and 109th degrees of East longitude, and between 1 and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded on the North, by the countries of Usbec Tartary and Thibet; on the South, by the Indian Ocean; on the East by China and the Chinese sea; and on the West, by Persia and the Indian sea.

**Name.** The name of India, is derived from the river Indus, and is extended to all countries to the south of Tartary, between that river and China. This region has been divided into India within, and India beyond the Ganges, the former comprehending the northern part of Hindoostan, and the southern, improperly called the Peninsula or the Hither Peninsula; the latter all the countries from the Ganges to the frontiers of China, with the Peninsula of Malacca, or the farther Peninsula. But it is necessary, in order to save many repetitions, to premise an account of some particulars that are in common to those numerous nations, which shall be extracted from the most enlightened of our modern writers who have visited the country in the service of the East India Company.

**Population, Inhabitants, Religion, and Government.** Mr Orme, an excellent and authentic historian, comprehends the two latter divisions under the title of Hindoostan. The Mahometans (says he) who are called Moors of Hindoostan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about a hundred millions. Above half the empire is subject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their descent from the old princes of India, and exercise all rights of sovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and observing the treaties by which their ancestors recognised his superiority. In other respects, the government of Hindoostan is full of wise checks upon the overgrowing greatness of any subject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the administration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroyals, have rendered them fruitless.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindoostan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legislator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he existed many thousand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was some great and good genius, whose beneficence, like that of the pagan legislators, led his people and their posterity to pay him divine honours. The Brahmins (for so the Gentoo priests are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Viddan,
INDIA.

containing his doctrines and institutions; and that though the original is lost, they are still possessed of a commentary upon it, called the Shahsta, which is wrote in the Sanscrit, a dead language, and known only to the Brahmins, who study it.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine consisted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, some superior, and some inferior to man; and in the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments, which is to consist of a transmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-existent state. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempsychosis took its rise in India. The necessity of inculcating this sublime, but otherwise complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Brahmins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourse to sensible representations of the Deity and his attributes; so that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worship of different animals, and various images, and of the most hideous figures, either delineated or carved.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The first and most noble tribe are the Brahmins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Levites among the Jews. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are strictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws. The second in order is the Sittiri tribe, who, according to their original institution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of Beisc, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias or shopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial servants; and they are incapable of raising themselves to any superior rank. If any one of them should be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every body in the nation, excepting that of the Harri cast, who are held in utter detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices. This circumstance renders excommunication so dreadful, that any Hindoo will suffer the torture, and even death itself, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Besides this division into tribes, the Gentoo are also subdivided into casts of small classes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these casts, though some have supposed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the casts, in a particular city or province, is generally indisputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himself honoured by adopting the customs of a superior cast; but this would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives; the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior cast with respect, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior cast. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourses; and hence, besides the national physiognomy, the members of each cast preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one another. There are some casts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their ugliness.

The members of each cast, says Dr Robertson, adhere invariably to the profession of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the same families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life. To this may be ascribed that high degree of perfection conspicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their ancestors may check the spirit of invention, yet, by adhering to these, they acquire such an exactness and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of superior science, and the aid of more complete instruments, have never been able to equal the exquisite execution of their workmanship. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce, of other nations, the separation of professions in India, and the early distributions of the people into classes, attached to particular kinds of labour, secured such abundance of the more common and useful commodities, as not only supplied their own wants, but ministered to those of the countries surrounding them.
To this early division of the people into casts, we must likewise ascribe a striking peculiarity in the state of India, the permanence of its institutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and is still likely to continue: neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticism of its Mohammedan conquerors, nor the power of its European masters, have affected any considerable alteration. The same distinctions of condition take place, the same arrangements in civil and domestic society remain, the same maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the same sciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the same: gold and silver have uniformly been carried thither, in order to purchase the same commodities with which it now supplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the present times, it has always been considered and executed as a gulf which swallows up the wealth of every other country that flows incessantly towards it, and from which it never returns *

All these casts acknowledge the Brahmins for their priests, and from them derive their belief of transmigration, which leads many of them to afflict themselves even at the death of a fly, although occasioned by inadvertence.—But the greater number of casts are less scrupulous, and eat, although very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indiscriminately. Their diet is chiefly rice and vegetables, dressed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter spices, which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happiness consists in the solaces of a domestic life; and they are taught by their religion that matrimony is an indispensable duty in every man who does not entirely separate himself from the world, from a principle of devotion. Their religion also permits them to have several wives; but they seldom have more than one; and it has been observed, that their wives are distinguished by a decency of demeanour, a solicitude in their families, and fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the most civilized countries. The amusements of the Hindoos consist in going to their pagodas, in assisting at religious shews, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed to them by the Brahmins. Their religion forbids them to quit their own shores; nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might therefore have lived—in great tranquillity and happiness, if others had looked on them with the same indifference with which they regard the rest of the world.

The soldiers are commonly called Rajah-roots, or persons descended from rajahs, and reside chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the southern provinces, who are quite black. These rajah-roots are a robust, brave, faithful people, and enter into the service of those who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finished, and they run off the field without any stain upon their reputation.

The custom of women burning themselves upon the death of their husbands still continues to be practised, though much less frequently than formerly. The Gentooos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chinese; and there scarcely is an instance of a robbery in all Indostan, though the diamond-merchants travel without defensive weapons.

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* Dr Robertson's historical disquisition concerning India, Appendix, p. 261. 252.
† The Gentooos are persuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kistna, and Indus, have the sacred virtue of purifying those who bathe in them, from all pollutions and sins. This religious idea seems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to restrain the natives from emigrating into distant countries: for it is remarkable, that the sacred rivers are so situated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of washing away their sins. The Ganges, which rises in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohileund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kistna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Visiapore into the interior parts of the Deccan. And the Indus bounding the Guarat provinces, separates Hindoostan from the dominions of Persia.
RELIgION. The institutions of religion, publicly established in all the extensive countries stretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, present to view an aspect nearly similar. They form a regular and complete system of superstition, strengthened and upheld by every thing which can excite the reverence and secure the attachment of the people. The temples, consecrated to their deities, are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the most exquisite works in painting and sculpture, which the artists, highest in estimation among them, were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their worship are pompous and splendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in all the transactions of common life, but constitutes an essential part of them. The Brahmans, who, as ministers of religion, preside in all its functions, are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be sacred. They have established among themselves a regular hierarchy and gradation of ranks, which, by securing subordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more absolute dominion in the minds of the people. This dominion they support by the command of the immense revenues with which the liberality of the princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched their pagodas.

It is far from my intention to enter into any minute detail with respect to this vast and complicated system of superstition. An attempt to enumerate the multitude of deities which are the objects of adoration in India; to describe the splendour of worship in their pagodas, and the immense varieties of their rites and ceremonies; to recount the various attributes and functions which the craft of priests, or the credulity of the people, have ascribed to their divinities; especially if I were to accompany all this with a review of the numerous and often fanciful speculations and theories of learned men on this subject, would too much swell this part of our work.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are stupendous but disgusting stone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Brahmans. To this, however, there are some exceptions; for in proportion, (says Dr Robertson, the philosophical historian of India), to the progress of the different countries of India in opulence and refinement, the structure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings they became highly ornamented fabrics, and, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taste of the people by whom they were erected. In this highly finished style there are pagodas of great antiquity in different parts of Hindoostan, particularly in the southern provinces, which were not exposed to the destructive violence of Mohammedan zeal. In order to assist my readers in forming a proper idea of these buildings, I shall briefly describe two, of which we have the most accurate accounts. The entry to the pagodas of Chillumbrum, near Ponto Nova, on the Coromandel coast, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, is, by a stately gate under a pyramid an hundred and twenty-two feet in height, built with large stones above forty feet long, and more than five feet square, and all covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immense variety of figures nearly executed. The whole structure extends one thousand three hundred and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-six in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finished with an elegance entitled to the admiration of the most ingenious artists.

The pagoda of Seringham, superior in sanctity to that of Chillumbrum, surpasses it as much in grandeur; and fortunately I can convey a more perfect idea of it, by adopting the words of an elegant and accurate historian. This pagoda is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island of Seringham, formed by the division of the great river Caveri into two channels. "It is composed of seven square inclosures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. These inclosures are three hundred and fifty feet distant from one another, and each has four large gates with a square tower, which are placed, one in the middle of each side of the enclosure, and opposite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is near four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the south is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single stones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and those which form the roof are still larger; in the innermost inclosures are the chapels. Here,
as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Brahmans live in a subordination which knows no resistance, and slumber in a voluptuousness which knows no wants *.

If the Brahmans are masters of any uncommon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton says, that they know how to calculate eclipses; and that judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days, the head astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mohammedans likewise encourage these superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo industry as belonging to themselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive under all their oppressions, and, by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that resentment in their nature that animates the rest of mankind; yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money; and rather than discover it, put themselves to death by poison or otherwise. This practice, which it seems is not uncommon, accounts for the vast scarcity of silver that of late prevailed in Hindoostan.

The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual use of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on decay at eighteen; at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind; and it is with them a frequent saying, that it is better to sit than to walk, to lie down than to sit, to sleep than to wake, and death is the best of all.

The Mohammedans, who in Hindoostan are called Moors, are of Persian, Turkish, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the califs of Bagdad, to invade Indostan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They settled colonies in several places, whose descendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which still subsists. Those princes being strict Mohammedans, received under their protection all that professed the same religion, and who being a brave, active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are said to have introduced the division of provinces, over which they appointed soubahs; and those provinces, each of which might be styled an empire, were subdivided into nabobships, each nabob being immediately accountable to his soubah, who in process of time became almost independent of the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vast resort of Persian and Tartar tribes has likewise strengthened the Mohammedan government; but it is observable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all those adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horses and their swords, degenerated into all eastern indolence and sensuality.

Of all those tribes the Maharrattas at present make the greatest figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Hindoostan and Persia. They commonly serve on horseback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold, active spirits, and pay no great respect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton says, that the Mohammedans or Moors are of so detestable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and those were among the Tartar and Persian officers of the army. They are void, we are told, of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hospitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will stab him to the heart. But it is probable that these representations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The people of Hindoostan are governed by no written laws; nor is there a lawyer in their whole empire; and their courts of justice are directed by precedents. The Mo-

* Orme's Hist. of Milt. Transact. of Indostan, vol. 4. p. 175.
hammedan institutes prevail only in their great towns, and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demesne lands are those of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his successors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are bestowed by the crown on the great lords or omrabs, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the subtenants, even of those lands, are indefeasible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted, without almost the semblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was shaken, however, after the invasion of Mohammed Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soufbals and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and support their power; so that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, those soufbals and nabobs, and other Mohammedan governors, employ the Gentoo themselves, and some even of the Brahmins, as the ministers of their rapaciousness and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Hindostan, from being a well regulated government, is become a scene of mere anarchy or stratocracy; every great man protects himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private assassinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worse estate, concern themselves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above causes are owing the late successes of the English in Hindostan. The reader, from this representation, may perceive, all that the English have acquired in point of territory has been gained from usurpers and robbers; and their possession of it being guarantied by the present lawful emperor, is said to be founded upon the laws and constitutions of that country. We are, however, sorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the servants of the East India Company towards the natives, and not properly punished or checked by the directors, or the British legislature, has in too many instances been highly dishonourable to the English name, and totally inconsistent with that humanity which was formerly our national characteristic.

It may be here proper just to observe, that the complexion of the Gentoo is black, their hair long, and the features of both sexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Persians and Tartars, on account of the fairness of their complexion, resembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane, and his great generals.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

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<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
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<tr>
<td>2000</td>
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<td>742,500</td>
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<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>92 and 109 East longitude.</td>
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BOUNDARIES] THIS peninsula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the North; by China and the Chinese sea, on the East: by the same sea and the straits of Malacca, on the South; and by the Bay of Bengal and the Hither India on the West. The space between Bengal and China, is now called the Province of Mecklus, and other districts subject to the king of Ava or Burmah.

P p 4
### Grand Divisions, Subdivisions, Chief Towns, Sq. M.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>On the north-west,</th>
<th>Subdivisions</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
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<td>Acham</td>
<td>Chamdara</td>
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<td>Ava</td>
<td>Ava</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arakan</td>
<td>Arakan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the south-west,</td>
<td>Pegu</td>
<td>Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17. 30</td>
<td>50,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Martaban</td>
<td>Martaban</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Siam</td>
<td>Siam, E. lon. 100-55. N. lat. 14. 16.</td>
<td>170,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malacca</td>
<td>Malacca, E. lon. 101. N. lat. 2-12.</td>
<td>48,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the north-east,</td>
<td>Tonquin</td>
<td>Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 103. N. lat. 21-30.</td>
<td>112,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laos</td>
<td>Lanchang</td>
<td>59,400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On the south-east,</td>
<td>C. China</td>
<td>Thoanoa</td>
<td>61,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Chambodia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chiampa</td>
<td>Padram</td>
<td>60,200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NAME.** The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was the best known to the Persians. The whole of this peninsula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly so to the moderns.

**AIR AND CLIMATE.** Authors differ concerning the air of this country, some preferring that of the southern, and some that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in some places moist, and consequently unhealthy. The climate is subject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, so that the people build their houses upon high pillars to defend them from floods, and they have no other idea of seasons, but wet and dry. Easterly and westerly monsoons (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

**MOUNTAINS.** These run from North to South almost the whole length of the country; but the lands near the sea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy seasons.

**RIVERS.** The chief are Sanpoo or Burrampoot, Domea, Mecon, Menan and Ava, or the great river Nou Kian.

Of these the Burrampooter, called Sanpoo, in the upper part of its course, is by far the most considerable. This rival sister of the Ganges issues from the same mountains that give birth to that river; but taking a contrary, i.e. an easterly direction, through Thibet, winds to the south-west through Assam, and entering Hindoostan, flows to the south, assumes the name of Megna, and joins the western branch of the Ganges with an immense body of water, equal if not superior to the Ganges itself.

These two noble rivers, when they approach the sea, divide into such a multitude of channels, and receive such a number of navigable streams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to G. Britain, in extent, enjoys by their means the finest inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives constant employment to 30,000 boatmen. These channels are so numerous that very few places in this tract are even in the dry season 25 miles from a navigable stream; and in the season of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertilizes the soil to the extent of more than 100 miles *.

**BAYS AND STRAITS.** The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China, the straits of Malacca, and Sincapara. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and the Bansac.

**SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS.** The soil of this peninsula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delightful fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as roots and vegetables: also salt-petrre, and the best teck timber or Indian oak, which for ship building in warm climates is superior to any European oak. It abounds likewise in silks, elephants, and quadrupeds, both domestic and wild, that are common in the southern kingdoms of Asia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethysts, and other precious

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* Major Rennel's Memoir, p. 255.
stones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the most healthy country of all the peninsula. In some places, especially towards the north, the inhabitants have swellings in their throats, said to be owing to the badness of their water.

Inhabitants, customs, and diversions.] The Tonquinese are excellent mechanics and fair traders; but greatly oppressed by their king and great lords. His majesty engrosses the trade, and his factors sell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquinese are fond of lacquer-houses, which are unwholesome and poisonous. The people in the south are a savage race, and go almost naked, with large silver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or shell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochinchina, the two sexes are scarcely distinguishable by their dress, which resembles that of the Persians. The people of quality are fond of English broad-cloth, red or green: and others wear a dark coloured cotton cloth. In Azemese, which is thought one of the best countries in Asia, the inhabitants prefer dog's flesh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, because the king is sole proprietor of all the gold and silver and other metals found in his kingdom. They live, however, easily and comfortably. Almost every housekeeper has an elephant for the convenience of his wives and women; polygamy being practised all over India.

It is unquestionable, that those Indians, as well as the Chinese, had the use of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally ascribed to the Azemese. The inhabitants of the southern division of this peninsula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious superstitions that prevail in this peninsula are extremely gross, yet the people believe in a future state; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and such vessels of gold and silver as they think can be of use to them in their future life. The people in the peninsula are commonly very fond of show, and often make an appearance beyond their circumstances. They are delicate in no part of their dress but in their hair, which they buckle up in a agreeable manner. In their food they are loathsome; for besides dogs, they eat rats, mice, serpents, and stinking fish. The people of Arracan are equally indecorous in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to consummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women most when in a state of pregnancy. Their treatment of their sick is ridiculous beyond belief, and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is exposed on the bank of some river, where he is either drowned or devoured by birds or beasts of prey.

The diversions common in this country are fishing and hunting, the celebrating of festivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

Language.] The language of the court of Delhi is Persian, but in this peninsula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already observed, interspersed with other dialects.

Learning and learned men.] The Brahmans, who are the tribe of the priesthood, descend from those Brachmans, who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by antiquity: and although much inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, as priests, their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Indostan. But the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowledge seems to be the calculation of eclipses. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatises on rhetoric; their ideas of music, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their historians very diffuse and verbose: but though the manner of Eastern compositions differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr Dow observes, that in the Sanscrita or learned language of the Brahmans, which is the grand repository of the religion, philosophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in prose, which treat of the ancient Indians and their history. The same writer also remarks, that the Sanscrita records contain accounts of the affairs of western Asia ve-
ry different from what any tribe of the Arabians have transmitted to posterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally so much prejudiced against the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow observes, that the small progress which correctness and elegance of sentiment and diction have made in the East did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patronized men of letters with more generosity and respect than the Mohammedan emperors of Hindostan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which must astonish Europeans, but an infallible road for rising to the first offices of the state. The character of the learned was at the same time so sacred, that tyrants, who made a pastime of embroiling their hands in the blood of their other subjects, not only abstained from offering violence to men of genius, but stood in fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] These vary in the different countries of this peninsula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in some parts, are obliged to manufacture their salt out of ashes. In all handicraft trades that they understand, the people are more industrious, and better workmen, than most of the Europeans; and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, and some other manufactures, it is said that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineness of their linen, and their fillagree works in gold and silver, are beyond any thing of those kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all the trading nations of the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time, and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their highest materials of luxury. The greatest share of it, through events foreign to this part of our work, is now centered in England; the Dutch, together with the French, having lost their possessions in that part of the world; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, RARITIES, AND CITIES.] The Europeans seem to have been totally ignorant of India beyond the Ganges, until the enterprising genius of Emanuel at the close of the 15th century, opened a new world; from the testimony of the Portuguese historians, it appears, that in the middle of the 16th century, four powerful states divided amongst them the regions that lie between the south east province of British India, Yunan in China, and the Eastern Sea; their territories extended to Cassay and Assam, on the N. W. as far S. E. as the island of Junkseylon. These nations were known to Europeans by the names of Arracan, Ava, Pegue, and Siam. Arracan borders on the S. E. province of British India, and includes the sea coast, with what is called the Broken Islands, as far south as Cape Negrais. Ava, the name of the ancient capital of the Birmans, has been usually accepted as the name of the country at large. This empire is situated eastward of Arracan, from which it is divided by a ridge of lofty mountains, called by the natives Anou-pect-tou-miou, or the great western hilly country. On the N. W. it is separated from the kingdom of Cassay by the river Keen-duem, on the north it is bounded by mountains and petty principalities, that lie contiguous to Assam; on the north-east and east, it touches on China, and north Siam; on the south its limits have so often varied that it is difficult to ascertain them with any precision. The city of Prome seems to be the original and natural boundary of the Birmans empire; although conquest has stretched their dominions several degrees farther south. Pegue is the country southward of Ava, which occupies the sea coast as far as Martaban. Prome was its northern frontier, and Siam adjoined on the east. The kingdom of Siam or Shaan, comprehended as far south as Junkseylon, east to Cambodia and Laos, and north to Dzemee and Yunan in China. These boundaries, however may be considered rather as the claim of each state than its actual possession; vicissitudes of victory and defeat alternately extended and contracted their dominions. It is generally agreed, that the Birmans, though formerly subject to the king of Pegue, became afterwards masters of Ava, and caused a revolution in Pegue, about the middle of the 16th century. The Birmans were assisted in their wars against the Peguers.
by the Portuguese, who continued to exercise an influence in the Birman and Pegue countries, and a still greater in Arracan, so long as they maintained an ascendency over other European nations in the east; but on the seizure of their settlements by the Dutch they sunk into insignificance. In the beginning of the 17th century, both the English and Dutch had obtained settlements in various quarters of the Birman dominions, which were afterwards forfeited by the misconduct of the latter, and Europeans of all nations were banished from Ava.

The supremacy of the Birmans over the Peguers continued throughout the 17th, and during the first forty years of the 18th century, when the Peguers in the provinces of Dalla, Martaban, Tonga and Prome, revolted; a civil war ensued, which was prosecuted on both sides with savage ferocity. In the year 1744, the British factory at Syriam was destroyed by the contending parties, and the views of commerce were suspended by the precautions of personal security. Success long continued doubtful; at length the Peguers, by the aid of Europeans trading to their ports, gained several victories over the Birmans, in the year 1750 and 1751. These advantages they pursued with so much vigour, that early in the year 1752, the capital of Ava was invested. The Birmans, disheartened by repeated defeats, after a short siege, surrendered at discretion.

The king of Pegue, having completed the conquest of Ava, returned to his own country, leaving his brother to govern the late capital of the Birman king, whom he carried with him a prisoner to Pegue. Matters at first bore the appearance of tranquillity and submission: the landholders and principal inhabitants of the country round Ava, acknowledged themselves vassals of the conqueror, and accepted the prescribed oath. But this appearance was deceitful. Under the conduct of Alompra, a Birman of low extraction, but possessed of a spirit of enterprise and boldness equal to the most arduous undertakings, the Birmans having made themselves masters of Monchaboo, flew to arms, and, after having defeated the Peguers in several bloody battles, they invested Pegue the capital of their empire. In this desperate situation of their affairs, the Peguers were obliged to conclude a treaty, by which their king agreed to do homage for his dominions to the Birman monarch. The Peguers, however, being incensed at the discovery of a treacherous scheme which was to have been put in execution by Alompra, flew to arms, and hostilities were recommenced with greater fury than ever. The city was treacherously delivered into the hands of Alompra, and given up to indiscriminate plunder. A treaty was concluded between Alompra and the East India Company, by which the former agreed to cede to them the possession of the island of Negrais, together with a piece of ground opposite to the old town of Persaim, for the purpose of erecting a factory, and on the 22d of August 1757, the allotted portion of ground was measured out, on which British colours were hoisted, and three volleys of small arms fired, to solemnize the act of occupancy. Having subjected the Peguers, Alompra turned his arms against the Cassayers and the Siamese, whose subjection was probably only prevented by his death. The same schemes of ambition and aggrandisement were carried on by the successors of Alompra against the Cassayers, the Siamese, and the inhabitants of Arracan. The Birmans were obliged, however, to relinquish their ambitious views, and to employ their forces in defence of their own country, which was in the year 1761 menaced by a Chinese army of 50,000 men, which approached by unremitting marches. They defeated the Birmans in a partial action, and, encouraged by their first success, they continued their march with confidence into the heart of their territories, when, being hemmed in on all sides by the judicious manoeuvres of the Birmans, they found a retreat impracticable. They were vigorously attacked and made a resolute defence; the conflict lasted for three days, when the harassed Chinese sinking under superior numbers, were all massacred, except 2500, who were detained in rigorous imprisonment. Being left at liberty by this success to prosecute their schemes of foreign conquest, long and bloody wars were undertaken against the Siamese, which were prosecuted with various success; the Cassayers were subjected, and in 1783 the invasion of Arracan was finally determined on. The trade of Arracan was never very considerable; it is confined to salt, bee's wax, elephant's teeth, and rice. This latter article is produced in such abundance, that it might be improved, by proper policy, into a lucrative branch of commerce; the soil is luxuriant and well-watered, and the contiguous islands are un-
commonly fruitful. The Arracaners were in no condition to cope with the Birmans, and the reduction of their kingdom was completed in a few short months. Since that time the Birmans were engaged in wars with the Siamese till the year 1793, when a treaty was concluded, by which they ceded the western maritime towns as far as Mergui; thus yielding to them the entire possession of Tenasserem, and the two important ports of Mergui and Tavoy. Since that time they have been involved in a dispute with the East India Company, which has, however, been amicably settled, and, to prevent the recurrence of a like misunderstanding, a formal deputation was sent by Lord Teignmouth to the Birman court. From the account of this embassy we shall extract the following particulars.

The Birmans, under their present monarch, are rising fast in the scale of oriental nations; and, it is to be hoped, that a long respite from foreign wars will give them leisure to enjoy their natural advantages. Knowledge increases with commerce, and, as they are not shackled by any prejudices of cast, restricted to hereditary occupations, or forbidden from participating with strangers in every social bond, their advancement will in all probability be rapid. At present, so far from being in a state of intellectual darkness, although they have not explored the depths of science, or reached to excellence in the finer arts, yet they have an undeniable claim to the character of a civilized and well instructed people. Their laws are wise, and pregnant with sound morality; their police is better regulated than in most European countries; their natural disposition is friendly, and hospitable to strangers; and their manners rather expressive of manly candour, than courteous dissimulation; the gradations of rank, and the respect due to station, are maintained with a scrupulosity which never relaxes. A knowledge of letters is so widely diffused, that there are no mechanics, few of the peasantry, or even the common watermen, who cannot read and write in the vulgar tongue.

The peninsula of Malacca is a large country, and contains several kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are said to be the real masters and sovereigns of the whole peninsula, being in possession of the capital (Malacca). The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living: and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the purest of any spoken in all the Indies. We are told by the latest travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes, and gums. Some missionaries pretend that it is the Golden Chersonesus or Peninsula of the ancients, and the inhabitants used to measure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent situation of this country admits of a trade with India; so that when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the East, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at present, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chinese. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an industrious, ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whose interest it is they that should never recover from their present state of ignorance and slavery.

The English carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their country ships, from the coast of Coromandel and the bay of Bengal to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their superiors, provided they can enrich themselves.

Cambodia, or Comboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but, according to the best information, its greatest length, from north to south, is about 520 English miles: and its greatest breadth, from west to east, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a spacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its sultry air and the pestiferous gnats, serpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its soil, commodities, trade, animals, and its products by sea and land, are much the same with the other kingdoms of this vast peninsula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they say, an excellent remedy for all those diseases that are common to the inhabitants of the East Indies, is the highest luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peasant; but is very unpalatable and disagreeable to the Europeans. The same barbarous magnificence, the despotism of
their king, and the ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the rest of the peninsula. Between Cambodia, and Cochin-China, lies the little kingdom of Champa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chinese, and seem therefore to be somewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the Western China, is situated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to some authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much less extensive in its breadth from east to west. Laos, Cambodia, and Champa, as well as some other smaller kingdoms, are said to be tributary to Cochin-China. The manners and religion of the people seem to be originally Chinese; and they are much given to trade. Their king is said to be immensely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the East Indies; but at the same time we are told that this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, are subject to the Chinese emperor. It is reasonable to suppose that all those rich countries were peopled from China, or at least that they had, sometime or other, been governed by one head, till the mother empire became so large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reserving to itself a kind of feudal superiority over them all.

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and little can be added to what has been said, unless we adopt the fictions of the popish missionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquinese had revolted from the Chinese, which was attended by a civil war. A compromise at last took place between the chief of the revolt and the representative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, should retain the royal titles, and be permitted some inconsiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can stir without the permission of the chouah.

The chouah resides generally in the capital Cachao, which is situated near the centre of the kingdom. The Bua’s palace is a vast structure, and has a fine arsenal. The English have a very flourishing house on the north side of the city, conveniently fitted up with store-houses and office-houses, a noble dining-room, and handsome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The possession of rubbies, and other precious stones of an extraordinary size, and even of white and party-coloured elephants, convey among those credulous people a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and has sometimes occasioned bloody wars. After all, it must be acknowledged, that however dark the accounts we have of those kingdoms may be, yet there is sufficient evidence to prove, that they are immensely rich in all the treasures of nature; but that those advantages are attended with many natural calamities, such as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempests, and above all, rapacious and poisonous animals, which render the possession of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

INDIA WITHIN THE GANGES,
or
HINDOOSTAN,
late the empire of the great Mogul.

Situation and Extent, including the Peninsula West of the Ganges.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 2000</td>
<td>between 8 and 40 North latitude</td>
<td>870,910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 1500</td>
<td>66 and 92 East longitude</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Boundaries. This empire is bounded by Usbec Tartary and Thibet on the North; by Thibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the East; by the Indian Ocean on the South; by the same and Persia on the West. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Hindoostan properly so called.
NAME.] The name of Hindoostan is not a native term, the Hindus calling their country Bharata. It is supposed to have a reference to the river Indus, or Sinde, with the Persian termination Stan, signifying country. Mr Fraser says Hindoo signifies swarthy or black; and Hindoostan the country of the swarthy people.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grand Divisions</th>
<th>Provinces</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The north-east division of India, containing the provinces of Bengal on the mouths of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut.</td>
<td>Naugracut</td>
<td>Calcutta</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Jesuar</td>
<td>Fort William</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Patna</td>
<td>Hugley</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Necbal</td>
<td>Dacca</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gore</td>
<td>Malda, English and Dutch</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rotas</td>
<td>Chattigan</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Soret</td>
<td>Cassumbazar</td>
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<tr>
<td>The north-west division on the frontiers of Persia, and on the river of Indus.</td>
<td>Navar</td>
<td>Naugracut</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Bucknor</td>
<td>Rajapour</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Moulta</td>
<td>Patna</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Haican</td>
<td>Neckal</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kabul</td>
<td>Gore</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Candish</td>
<td>Rotas</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Berar</td>
<td>Soret</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Chitor</td>
<td>Jagganath</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratipor</td>
<td>Jasselmere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Navar</td>
<td>Tata</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Guleor</td>
<td>Bucknor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agra</td>
<td>Moultan</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Delbi</td>
<td>Haican</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lahor or Pencab</td>
<td>Kabul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hendowns</td>
<td>Medipour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cassimere</td>
<td>Berar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jengapour</td>
<td>Chitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Asmer or Bandp</td>
<td>Ratipor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The British nation possess in full sovereignty, the whole soubah of Bengal, and the greatest part of Bahar. In Orissa or Oria, only the districts of Midnapour. The whole of the British possessions in this part of Hindoostan, contain about 150,000 square British miles of land; to which if we add the district of Benares, the whole will be 162,000, that is, 30,000 more than are contained in Great Britain and Ireland; and near eleven millions of inhabitants. The total net revenue, including Benares, is about 287 lacks of Sicca rupees, which may be reckoned equal to 3,050,000l. *. Rennel. With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable course of the Ganges from its entry on the plains to the sea, which by its winding course is more than 1350 miles.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; and in some dry seasons, the hurricanes which,

* A considerable addition both to the territory and revenue of the East India Company was obtained by the cessions in the late treaty of peace with Tippoo Sultan, to the amount of 15,734 square miles, affording a revenue of 16,170,765 Rupees per annum...
tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are excessively disagreeable. The English, and consequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Hindoostan, are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux or fever in their different appearances; but, when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

Mountains.] The most remarkable mountains are those of Caucasus and Nau- gractus, which divide India from Persia, Usbec Tartary, and Thibet; and are inhabited by Mahrattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. As to the mountains of Balesgaut, which run almost the whole length of India, from north to south, they are so high as to stop the western monsoon; the rains beginning sooner on the Malabar, than they do on the Coromandel coast.

Rivers.] These are the Indus, called by the natives Sinda and Sindel, and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and, as observed in p. 596, held in the highest esteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Besides those rivers, many others water this country.

Seas, Bays, and Capes.] These are the Indian Ocean; the Bay of Bengal; the Gulf of Cambaya; the Straits of Ramanakoei; Cape Comorin, and Diu.

Inhabitants.] I have already made a general review of this great empire, and have only to add, to what I have said of their religion and sects, that the fakirs are a kind of Mohammedan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practising the greatest austerities; but many of them are impostors. Their number is said to be 800,000. Another set of mendicants are the Joghis, who are idolaters, and much more numerous, but most of them are vagabonds and impostors, who, by amusing the credulous Gentoos with foolish fictions. The Banians, who are so called from their affected innocence of life, serve as brokers, and profess the Gentoo religion, or somewhat like it.

The Perses, or Parsees, of Hindoostan, are originally the Gours, described in Persia, but are a most industrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be possessed of the works of Zoroaster, whom they call by various names, and which some Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw light upon ancient history, both sacred and profane. This opinion is countenanced by the few parcels of those books that have been published; but some are of opinion that the whole is a modern imposture, founded upon sacred, traditional, and profane histories. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is said only as an emblem of the divinity.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the sports of the field. They affect shady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous music, both in wind and string instruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houses make no appearance, and those of the commonality are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them subject to fire; but the manufacturers choose to work in the open air; and the inside of houses belonging to principal persons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleasant, and many of them magnificent.

Commerce of Hindoostan.] I have already mentioned this article, as well as the the manufactures of India; but the Mohammedan merchants here carry on a trade that has not been described, I mean that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the western parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular species of vessels called junks, the largest of which, we are told, besides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mohammedan pilgrims to visit the tombs of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver; so that a Mohammedan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000l.

Provinces, Cities, and other Buildings, Public and Private.] The province of Agra, is the largest in all Hindoostan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greatest city, and its castle the largest fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the English have none.
The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewise the capital of Hindoostan. It is described as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the usual magnificence of the East. Its stables formerly contained 12,000 horses, brought Arabia, Persia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the season, as is often the case, these horses are said to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and sugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindia, is a large city; and it is said that a plague which happened there in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in silk and cotton. It is still famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repose when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a-day; 10 being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at first cost, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten shillings a month each, out of which they maintain themselves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

The province of Cassimere being surrounded with mountains, is difficult of access, but when entered, it appears to be the paradise of the Indies. It is said to contain 100,000 villages, to be stored with cattle and game, without any beasts of prey. The capital (Cassimere) stands by a large lake; and both sexes, the women especially, are almost as fair as the Europeans, and are said to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian history, and is still one of the largest and finest provinces in the Indies, producing the best sugars of any in Hindoostan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Hindoostan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who seem never to have been conquered, and though they submit to the Moguls, live in an easy, independent state. In some of these provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native soil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the most interesting to an English reader. It is esteemed to be the storehouse of the East Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile, and the produce of its soil consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, sesame, small mulberry, and other trees. Its calicoes, silks, salt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world; and provisions here are in vast plenty, and incredibly cheap, especially pullets, ducks, and geese. The country is intersected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near 100 leagues on both sides of the Ganges, full of cities, towns, castles, and villages.

In Bengal, the worship of the Gentoo is practised in its greatest purity, and their sacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas to temples. The women, notwithstanding their religion, are said by some to be lascivious and enticing.

The principal English factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William: it is situated on the river Hugley, the most westerly branch of the Ganges. It is about 100 miles from the sea; and the river is navigable up to the town for the largest ships that visit India. The fort itself is said to be irregular, and untenable against disciplined troops; but the servants of the company have provided themselves with an excellent house, and most convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itself has been in fact for some time in possession of the Company, an English civil government, by a mayor and alderman, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the Company. But in 1773, an act of parliament was passed to regulate the affairs of the East India Company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act, a governor-general and four counsellors were appointed, and chosen by the parliament, with whom was vested the whole civil and military government of the presidency.
or wall. After embracing them, he led them, one in each hand, into the tent, where chairs were placed for his lordship, themselves, and his suite. The eldest boy, now seated on his lordship's right hand, appeared less serious than on the former day, and when he spoke was not only graceful in his manner, but had a most affable, animated appearance. Each of the princes presented his lordship with a fine Persian sword, and in return he gave the oldest a fuzee, and the youngest a pair of pistols, of very fine and curious workmanship.

Thus ended the Indian war; the justice and policy of which has been very much doubted by those who must be allowed to be competent judges of Indian politics: Others however are of a different opinion, and defend this war, which, says Major Dirom, "has vindicated the honour of the nation, has given the additional possessions and security to the settlements in India which they required; has effected the wished for balance among the native powers on the peninsula; has, beyond all former example, raised the character of the British arms in India; and has afforded an instance of good faith in alliance and moderation in conquest, so eminent, as ought to constitute the English arbiters of power; worthy of holding the sword and scales of justice in the east."

However different our opinions may be with regard to the justice of the war, none can withhold their approbation from Lord Cornwallis in every thing that respects the conduct of the military operations; and his moderation and sound policy in the concluding scenes cannot be too highly extolled.

By the ambition of Tippoo, a war has been since kindled in India, which by the abilities and valour of those entrusted with its conduct, has been terminated in a manner highly advantageous to the commercial and political interests of Britain. By the taking of Seringapatam, and death of Tippoo, the British power in India rests on a more solid foundation, and only requires to be exercised with justice and moderation to be rendered permanent.

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**PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.**

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<tr>
<th>Grand Divisions</th>
<th>Provinces</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
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<td>Masulipatan, English and Dutch</td>
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<td>Grand Divisions</td>
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<td>Vizigapatan, English</td>
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<td>West side of Biska-gar, or Carnatic</td>
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<td>Raocondo, diamond mines</td>
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**Rivers.** The Cattack or Mahanada, the Soane and Nerbudda, the Pudder, and the famous Kistna.

**Climate, seasons, and produce.** The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to south, renders it winter on one side of this peninsula, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June, a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rains, lasts four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel (the western and eastern coasts being so denominated). Towards the end of October, the rainy season and the change of the monsoons begins on the Coromandel coast, which being destitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ships to remain there, during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of the English shipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coast. The air is naturally hot in this peninsula, but it is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is tolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which last proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast. The produce of the soil is the same with that of the other parts of the East Indies. The like may be said of their quadrupeds, fish, fowl, and noxious creatures and insects.

**Inhabitants.** The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion than those of the other peninsula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes some suspect them to be the descendants of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greatest part of them have but a faint notion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Hindoostan, whose tribute from hence has been, ever since the invasion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their soubahs and nabobs, who now exercise an independent power in the government; but, besides those soubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many estates in
sequence of which was that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the British, as well as several other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced to the westward, within 25 miles of Agra: north westward to the upper part of the navigable course of the Ganges; and south westward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas: on which occasion a brigade, consisting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by British officers, traversed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the western ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting assistance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For some time he carried every thing before him; and, having the good fortune to defeat or rather destroy a detachment of the British army under colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would have soon been annihilated. By the happy exertions of Sir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed the progress of this formidable adversary was stopped, and he soon became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expence to himself, without any reasonable prospect of success. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was sincerely desirous of peace, but died before it was brought to a conclusion; and his rival Sir Eyre Coote did not survive him above five months; a very remarkable circumstance, that the commanders in chief of two armies opposed to each other, should both die natural deaths, within so short a space of time.

To Hyder Ally succeeded his son Tippoo Sultan, whose military prowess is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the most formidable to the British government, and the most hostile to its authority. The peace of Mangalore in 1784, had, it was supposed, secured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the splendid embassy which, not long after that event, he dispatched to France, afforded much reason to apprehend that some plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Mysore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian possessions, but the good sense of the unfortunate Louis XVI. induced him to refuse entering into these visionary schemes.

Disappointed in the hopes of assistance from this quarter, Tippoo, either impelled by real or imagined injuries, commenced a hostile attack upon one of the allies of Great Britain. An engagement took place, and the British conceived themselves bound to take an active part, and to unite with two of the most powerful states of India, the Nizam and the Mahrattas, to crush the rising power of Mysore. The transactions of the British army have been as fully detailed as is necessary for the entertainment of the reader in the History of England: They were almost invariably crowned with success: Tippoo was at last reduced to the greatest distress, and on the 24th of February, when the preparations for a general assault of his capital were in great forwardness, it was announced that preliminaries of peace were settled. Nothing could equal the disappointment of the soldiers at this news, who expected to make fortunes by the plunder of this wealthy capital. After the cessation of arms, which then took place, the conduct of Tippoo Sultan was so equivocal and suspicious, as to make it necessary on our part, to renew the preparations for the siege. Overawed, at length, by the firmness and decision of lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the discontent of his own people the reluctant Sultan submitted to all the terms proposed; and on the 19th of March, the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in form by his sons to lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied princes. The Nizam's son, prince Secunder Jah, and the Mahratta plenipotentiary Hurry Punt, thought it beneath their dignity to be present on this occasion in person, and were represented by their vakëels.

The substance of the treaty was, 1st, That Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d, That he was to pay three crores, and thirty lacs of rupees. 3d, That all prisoners were to be restored. 4th, That two of the Sultan's three eldest sons were to become hostages for the due performance of the treaty.

Tippoo is said to have been prevailed upon with infinite difficulty to submit to the terms of peace; and now that all was settled, the uneasiness in the seraglio became extreme in parting with the boys, who were to be sent out as hostages. The sultan was
again intreated to request they might be allowed to stay another day, in order to make suitable preparations for their departure: and lord Cornwallis, who had dispensed with their coming at the time the treaty was sent, had again the goodness to grant his request.

When the princes left the fort, which appeared to be manned as they went out, and every where crowded with people, who, from curiosity or affection, had come to see them depart, the sultan himself was on the rampart above the gateway. They were saluted by the fort, when leaving it, and with twenty-one guns from the park as they approached our camp, where the part of the line they passed was turned out to meet them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents, which had been sent from the fort for their accommodation, where they were met by Sir John Kennaway, the Mahratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head quarters.

The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly caparisoned, and seated in a silver canopied seat, and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the persons already mentioned, also on elephants. The procession was led by several camel harcarras, [messengers] and seven standard-bearers, carrying small green flags suspended from rockets*, followed by one hundred pikemen, with spears inlaid with silver. Their guard of two hundred sepoys, and a party of horse, brought up the rear. In this order they approached head-quarters, where the battalion of Bengal sepoys, commanded by captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a street to receive them.

Lord Cornwallis, attended by his staff, and some of the principal officers of the army, met the princes at the door of his large tent, as they dismounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent; the eldest, Abdul Kalick, was about ten, the youngest Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were seated on each side of lord Cornwallis, Gullam Ally, the head vakeel, addressed his lordship as follows: These children were this morning the sons of the sultan my master; their situation is now changed, and they must now look up to your lordship as their father.

Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own sons, anxiously assured the vakeel and the young princes themselves, that every attention possible would be shown to them, and the greatest care taken of their persons. Their little faces brightened up; the scene became highly interesting; and not only their attendants, but all the spectators, were delighted to see that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would soon be reconciled to their change of situation, and to their new friends.

The princes were dressed in long white muslin gowns, and red turbans. They had several rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was suspended an ornament consisting of a ruby and an emerald of considerable size, surrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans, each had a sprig of rich pearls. Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and instructed in their manners to imitate the reserve and politeness of age, it astonished all present to see the correctness and propriety of their conduct. The eldest boy, rather dark in his colour, with thick lips, a small flattish nose, and a long thoughtful countenance, was less admired than the youngest, who is remarkably fair, with regular features, a small round face, large full eyes, and a more animated appearance. Placed too, on the right hand of lord Cornwallis, the youngest was said to be the favourite son, and the sultan's intended heir. His mother (a sister of Burham-ud-Deen's, who was killed at Sattimungulam), a beautiful delicate woman, had died of fright and apprehension, a few days after the attack of the lines. This melancholy event made the situation of the youngest boy doubly interesting, and, with the other circumstances, occasioned his attracting by much the most notice. After some conversation, his lordship presented a handsome gold watch to each of the princes, with which they seemed much pleased.

Next day, the 27th, lord Cornwallis, attended as the day before, went to pay the princes a visit at their tents, pitched near the mosque redoubt, within the green canaut

* Rocket is a missile weapon, consisting of an iron tube of about a foot long, and an inch in diameter, fixed to a bamboo rod of ten or twelve feet long.
Omrahs conspired against him, and raised to the throne one of his nephews, who struck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whose name was Furruckshir, was governed at last enslaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abused his power so grossly, that being afraid to punish them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately assassinated. They discovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whose place they raised a grandson of Aurerzgebe, by his daughter, a youth of seventeen years of age, after imprisoning and strangling Furruckshir. The young emperor proved disagreeable to the two brothers, and being soon poisoned, they raised to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Hindoostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called pacta conventa, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire, but died in 1719. He was succeeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mohammed Shah, and entered into private measures with his great rajahs for destroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Nisam al Muluck, one of Aurerzgebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is said, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himself against the brothers, and to proclaim himself soubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was assassinated by the emperor's order, and who immediately advanced to Delhi to destroy the other brother; but he no sooner understood what had happened, than he proclaimed the sultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle ensued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is said to have used his conquest with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the prison from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewise a prisoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took possession of his vast riches. Seyd did not long survive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himself to the same course of pleasures that had been so fatal to his predecessors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed against the Mahrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almost made themselves masters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his soubahship, and was considered as the first subject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwise Koali Khan, the Persian monarch, to invade Hindoostan. It is thought, that he had intelligence of a strong party formed against him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have success, and at first wanted to make himself useful by opposing him. The success of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immense treasures which he carried from Hindoostan in 1739. Besides those treasures he obliged the Mogul to surrender to him all the lands to the west of the rivers Attuck and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyshor, Kabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almost equal in value to the crown of Persia itself.

This invasion cost the Gentoo 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, some accounts, and those too strongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible sum of two hundred and thirty-one millions sterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of those times. The most moderate say that Nadir's own share amounted to considerably above seventy millions. Be that as it will, the invasion of Nadir Shah may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Tamerlane. However, when Nadir had raised all the money he could in Delhi, he re-instated the Mogul, Mohammed Shah, in the sovereignty, and returned into his own country A general defection of the provinces soon after ensued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-west of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being assassinated in 1747, Achmet Abdallah, his treasurer, an unprincipled man, but possessed of great intrepidity, found means in the general confusion occasioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himself at the head of an army, and to march against Delhi with fifty thousand horse. Thus was the wealth drawn from Delhi made the means of continuing those miseries of war which it had at first brought upon them. Prince Ahmed Shah, the Mogul's
eldest son, and the vizier, with other leading men, took the field, with eighty thousand horse, to oppose the invader. The war was carried on with various success, and Mohammed Shah, died before its termination. His son, Ahmed Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary. The Maharratas, a warlike nation, possessing the south-western peninsula of India, had, before the invasion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout or tribute from the empire, arising out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld in consequence of the enfeebled state of the empire, the Maharratas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghires* and to districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic confusion. Ahmed Shah reigned only seven years, after which much disorder and confusion prevailed in Hindoostan, and the people suffered great calamities. At present, the imperial dignity is vested in Shah Zadah, who is universally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble: the city of Delhi, and a small territory round it, is all that is left remaining to the house and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the English, and whose interest it is to support him, as his authority is the best legal guarantee.

We shall now conclude the history of Hindoostan with some account of the British transactions in that part of the world, since 1765, when they were quietly settled in the possession of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orriza; not indeed as absolute sovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This state of tranquillity, however, did not last long; for in 1767 they found themselves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ali the sovereign of Mysore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and in the year 1753, had distinguished himself in their service. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Mysore, he deposed his sovereign, and usurped the supreme authority under the title of regent. In a short time he extended his dominions on all sides, except the Carnatic, until at last his dominions equalled the island of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue of not less than four millions sterling annually. The discord which took place in various parts of Hindoostan, particularly among the Maharratas, enabled him to aggrandize himself in such a manner, that his power soon became formidable to his neighbours; and in 1767 he found himself in danger of being attacked on one side by the Maharratas, and on the other by the British. The former were fought off with a sum of money, and the latter were in consequence obliged to retire. Having soon, however, assembled all their forces, several obstinate engagements took place; and the British now, for the first time, found a steady opposition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various success during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a strong detachment of his army, passing by that of the British, advanced within a little distance of Madras, when he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly lost by an unfortunate war with the Maharratas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a most dreadful defeat, almost his whole army killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the necessity of allowing his enemies to desolate the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perseverance and diligence, so that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Maharratas made some attempts to get possession of the provinces of Corah and some others, but were opposed by the British; who, next year, defeated and drove them across the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occasion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowlaw, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promised to pay 40 lacs of rupees for the protection offered them; but when the money came to be paid, it was under various pretences refused; the con-

*Jaghire means a grant of land from a sovereign to a subject, revokable at pleasure; but generally, or almost always, for a life-rent.
of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government, of all the territorial acquisitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, so long as the Company should remain possessed of them. The governor-general and council so appointed, are invested with the power of superintending and controlling the government and management of the presidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correspond with them. The governor-general and councillors are likewise empowered to establish a court of judicature at Fort William; to consist of a chief justice and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majesty: these are to exercise all criminal, admiralty, and ecclesiastical jurisdiction: to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory of Fort-William, and its limits; and the factories subordinate thereto. But the establishment of this supreme court does not appear to have promoted either the interests of the East India Company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and customs of the natives; acts of great oppression and injustice have been committed; and the supreme court has been a source of great dissatisfaction, disorder, and confusion. For the subsequent regulations of the East India territories and company, we refer to our account in the History of England.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The nabob, or viceroy, quarrelled with the Company, and invested Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and some of the principal persons of the place, threw themselves, with their chief effects, on board the ships in the river; they who remained for some hours, bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they surrendered upon terms. The soubah, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr Holwel, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a little but secure prison called Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet square, and shut up from almost from all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrenzy. Among those saved was Mr Holwel himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe. The insensible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the English out of his dominions; but the seasonable arrival of admiral Watson and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with some difficulty, in possession of Calcutta; and the war was concluded by the battle of Plassey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Suraja Dowla, in whose place Mhir Jafféir, one of his generals, who had previously signed a secret treaty with Clive, to desert his master, and amply reward the English, was advanced of course to the soubahship.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna or Moosshedabad; and Benares, lying in the same province, is the Gentoo university, and celebrated for its sanctity.

Chandernagore was the principal place possessed by the French in Bengal; it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though strongly fortified, furnished with a garrison of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the English admirals Watson and Pococke, and Colonel Clive, and also was taken the last war, but restored at the peace. Since the beginning of the present war it has been taken possession of by the English. Hoogly, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richest of all Indian commodities. The Dutch had here a well fortified factory. The search for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogly, for about fifty miles farther. Dacca is said to be the largest city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. The other chief towns are Cassumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagna, and Maldo; besides a number of other places of less note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province or soubah of Malva, which lies to the west of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and that its chief cities are Katispor, Ougin, and Indoor. The province of Canbish includes that of Berar and
part of Oria, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhampoor, a flourishing city, which carries on a vast trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered stuffs. Cattac is the capital of Oria.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire to the north of what is properly called the Peninsula within the Ganges. Those that lie to the southward fall into the description of the Peninsula itself.

HISTORY.] The first invader of this country, worthy to be noticed, was the famous Alexander of Macedon. Zinghis Khan also directed his force there in the year 1221, and made the emperor forsake his capital; he is said to have given the name of Mogul to India. Long before Tamerlane descended in the female line from that conquerer, Mohammedan princes had entered, made conquests, and established themselves in India. Valid, the sixth of the caliphs, named Ommiades, who ascended the throne in the 708th year of the Christian æra, and in the 90th of the hegira, made conquests in India; so that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, son of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province separated by mountains from the north-west parts of India, and situated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the sword into Hindoostan, in the year 1000 or 1200 of the Christian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering idolators throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Hindoostan is represented to be immense. The successors of this Mahmoud are called the dynasty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themselves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Kosrou Schah, the 13th and last prince of the Gaznavide race, was depos'd by Kussain Gauri, who founded the dynasty of the Gaurides, which furnished five princes, who possessed nearly the same dominions as their predecessors the Gaznavides. Sheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predecessor Gaitsheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moulton and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treasures. But an Indian, who had been rendered desperate by the pollutions and insults to which he saw his gods and temples exposed, made a vow to assassinate Sheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finished in the year 1212, in the person of Mahmoud, successor and nephew to Sheabbedin, who was also cut off by the swords of assassins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, descending more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucasus. This invincible barbarian met with no resistance sufficient to justify even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But, after an immense slaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himself lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges. The history of the successors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Hindoostan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variously represented, but all agree in the main, that they were magnificent and despotic princes; that they committed their provinces, as has been already observed, to rapacious governors, or to their own sons, by which their empire was often miserably torn in pieces. At length, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngest among many sons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Hindoostan, and may be considered as the real founder and legislator of the empire. He was a great and politic prince, and the first who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the Peninsula within the Ganges, which is at present so well known to the English. He lived so late as the year 1707, and it is said that some of his great officers of state were alive in the year 1750. From what has been already said of this empire, Aurengzebe seems to have left too much power to the governors of his distant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful despotism, which, while in his hands, preserved the tranquillity of his empire; but when it descend'd to his weak indolent successors, occasioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandsons disputed the empire, which, after a bloody struggle, fell to the eldest, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shai. This prince was a slave to his pleasures, and was governed by his mistress so absolutely, that his great
Jaghire, called also Fort St George. It is ill situated, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants.—Fort St David, in the territory of Cuddalore, is rich, flourishing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants.—Masulipatam, in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Kistna, was formerly the most flourishing and commercial city on this coast, and, though much declined, is still considerable.

The Northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Ciccacele, Rajamundry, Elore, and Condapily, are defended inland by a strong barrier of mountains and extensive forests, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a considerable space.

**Government of Bombay.**] This government is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and seat of government is Bombay, in a small island, and an unhealthy situation, but it is well fortified, and has a fine harbour. Surat on the Tapee, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the most rich and commercial cities in Hindoostan.—Tellycherry, on the Malabar coast, is dependent on Bombay.

### ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

**Dominions of the nabob of Oude.**

- Fyzabad.
- Lucknow, the present capital of Oude.
- Arcot on the Paliar in the capital, through the nabob usually resides at Madras.
- Gingee, the strongest Indian fortress in the Carnatic.
- Tritichinapoly near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almost ruined by the numerous sieges it has sustained.
- Seringham Pagoda, in an island of the Caveri, is famous throughout Hindoostan for its sanctity, and has no less than 40,000 priests who constantly reside here in voluptuous idleness.
- Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzingua, formerly rich, powerful, and populous; near it is the famous pagoda of Tripetti, the Loretto of Hindoostan. The offerings of the numerous pilgrims who resort hither, bring in an immense revenue.
- Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly, are the capitals of small states of the same name, which, with Marwar, are dependent on the nabob of Arcot.

**Dominions of the nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eastern part only of the ancient Carnatic.**

- Amedabad.
- Cambay.
- Gwallor, a celebrated fortress.

**Territory of Futty Sing, Guicker in the soubah of Guzerat.**

- Territory of the raja of Ghod.

**MAHRATTA STATES,**

**In alliance with the British, and their Tributaries.**

This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs whose obedience to their paisewah or head is merely nominal; as they often go to war against each other, and are seldom confederated, but on occasions that would unite the most discordant states, that is, for their mutual defence.
Southern Poomah Mahrattas, or the territories of Paiswah, are naturally strong, being intersected by the various branches of the Gouts. The Concan or tract between the Gouts and the sea, is sometimes called the Pirate coast, as it was subject to the celebrated pirate Angria, and his successors, whose capital was the strong fortress of Gheria, taken by the English and Mahrattas, in 1755: by the acquisition of this coast the Mahrattas have become a maritime power.

By the treaty of peace, Tippoo Sultan ceded to the Mahrattas:

\[\text{Koonteyar Pagodas}\]

- In the Doob, being the circur of Bancapour, with part of Moodgul, &c. affording a revenue of 13,06,666
- In Gooty, the district of Sundoor 10,000

**Total**: 13,16,666

**TERRITORIES OF THE NIZAM, AN ALLY TO THE BRITISH.**

The possessions of the Nizam or Soubah of the Deccan, (a younger son of the famous Nizam-al-Mulack), comprise the province of Golconda, that is, the ancient province of Tellingana, or Tilling, situated between the lower parts of the Kistna and Godavery rivers, and the principal part of Dowlatabad; together with the western part of Berar, subject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its net revenue, to the Berar Mahratta. The Nizam has the Paiswah, or Poomah Mahratta on the west and north-west; the Berar Mahratta on the north; the northern circars on the east; and the Carnatic, and Tippoo Sultan, on the south. I am not perfectly clear, says Major Renkel, in my idea of his western boundary, which, during his wars with the Mahrattas, was subject to continual fluctuation; but I understand generally, that it extends more than 40 miles beyond the city of Aurungabad, westwards; and comes within 80 miles of the city of Poonah, and that on the S. W. it goes considerably beyond the river Beemah, and to the borders of Sanore Bancapour. His capital is Hydrabad, or Bagnagur, situated on the Moussy river near the famous fortress of Golconda.

The districts of Adoni and Rachore, which were in the hands of Bazalet Jung, (brother to the Nizam) during his lifetime, are now in the hands of the Nizam. The Sourapour or Sollapoor rajah, on the W. of the Birmah river, together with some other rajahs are his tributaries. The Nizam's dominions are supposed to be no less than 430 miles in length from N. W. to S. E. by 300 wide. Till he took possession of the Guntoor Circar, his dominions no where touched the Sea.

To the above we have now to add those which Tippoo Sultan ceded to him in the treaty of peace, signed March 18, 1792, viz.

\[\text{Koonteyar pagodas}\]

- Keprah (or Cuddapah) Cummum, Ganjecotta, and, 971,390
- Canoul, affording a revenue of
  - In Gooty 51,782
  - In Adoni (Mooka) 12,162
  - In the Doob, being parts of Rachore, and Mogul 2,81,332

**Total**: 13,16,666

**BERAR MAHRATTAS.**

- Nagpour is the capital.
- Balasore has considerable trade.
- Cuttack, on the Mahanada, an important post which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the British, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

This country is very little known to Europeans.
Before we close our account of Hindoostan, it may be proper to describe its present division, according to the different powers among whom it is shared; and this is the more necessary, as it may serve to give the reader a clearer idea of these extensive regions, and at the same time shew him how very considerable a portion belongs to the British, and their allies.

The celebrated Persian usurper Thamas Kouli Khan, having, in the year 1738, defeated the emperor Mohammed Shaw, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treasure to the amount of more than 70 millions sterling, restored the unhappy prince his dominions, but annexed to Persia all the countries westward of the Indus.

This dreadful incursion so weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the East India Companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted, as traders, to form establishments on the coasts: These, from the great superiority of European discipline, from allies became in a short time principals in an obstinate contest, that at length terminated in the expulsion of the French from Hindoostan; and thus a company of British merchants have acquired, partly by cessions from the country powers, and partly by injustice and usurpation, territories equal in extent, and superior in wealth and population, to most of the kingdoms in Europe.

The Malratties originally possessed several provinces of Hindoostan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors: they were never wholly subjected, but retiring to the northern parts of the Gauts, made frequent incursions from these inaccessible mountains: taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at present possessed of a tract of country 1000 British miles long, by 700 wide.

Hyder Ally*, a soldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war among the Europeans, having possessed himself of that part of the ancient Carnatic, called the kingdom of Mysore, had within a few years acquired, by continual conquests, a considerable portion of the southern part of the Peninsula. This able and active prince, the most formidable enemy that the English ever experienced in Hindoostan, dying in 1751, left to his son Tippoo Saib the peaceful possession of his dominions, superior in extent to the kingdom of England.

These extraordinary revolutions, with others of less importance, render the following account of the present division of property, in this unhappy empire, absolutely necessary, in order to understand its modern history.

PRESENT DIVISION OF HINDOOSTAN.

Such is the instability of human greatness, that the present Mogul, Shah Aflum, the descendant of the Great Tamerlane, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Hindoostan: he is permitted to reside at Delhi, which, with a small

* The character of the late Hyder Ally appearing to me (says Major Rennell) to be but little understood in this part of the world, I have ventured to attempt an outline of it. His military success, founded on the improvement of discipline; attention to merit of every kind; conciliation of the different tribes that served under his banners; contempt of state and ceremony, except what naturally arose from the dignity of his character, and his consequent economy in personal expenses (the different habits of which form the chief distinction of what is called character among ordinary princes), together with his minute attention to matters of finance, and the regular payment of his army: all these together raised Hyder as far above the princes of Hindoostan as the great qualities of the late Prussian monarch raised him above the generality of European princes; and hence I have ever considered Hyder as the FREDERIC OF THE EAST. Cruelty was the vice of Hyder: but we are to consider that Hyder's ideas of mercy were regulated by an Asiatic standard; and it is not improbable that he might rate his own character for moderation and clemency, as far above those of Tamerlane, Nadir Shah, and Abdallah, as he rated his discipline above theirs.
adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of that vast empire, which his ancestors governed for more than 550 years.

The principal divisions of this country, as they stood at the peace with Tippoo in 1792, are as follow: viz. The British possessions; States in alliance with Britain; Tippoo Saib's territories; Mahratta states and their tributaries; and the territories of the Soubah of the Deccan.

**BRITISH POSSESSIONS.**

The British possessions contain about 177,374 square British miles †. They consist of three distinct governments, viz.

Government of Calcutta or Bengal. \{ Benga  
Bahr and part of Orissa \} on the Ganges.  
\{ Benares \}

Northern Circars. - - on the coast of Orissa.

Government of Madras. \{ The Jaghire  
Territory of Cuddalore \} on the coast of Coromandel.  
\{ - - - of Devicotta \}

\{ - - - of Negipatam \}

Government of Bombay, - - - on the Gulf of Cambay.

To these we have now to add the districts ceded by Tippoo Sultan in his treaty, signed at Seringapatam on the 18th of March 1792, viz.

Koonteyr pagodas.

Calicut and Palgaunt-cherry, yielding a revenue of - - - 9,36,765
Dindigul, Pyalny, and Verapachry, - - - 90,000
Salim, Kooch, Namecool, and Sunkagberry - - - 88,000
Ahtoor, Permuttee, Shadmungul, and Vamloor - - - 68,000
Barra Mohul, Raycottah, Darampoure, &c. - - - 1,34,000

**At the rate of 3 rupees to each pagoda, and the rupees reckoned at 2s. 1d. each, the annual value of the late British acquisitions will be 411,450l., according to Major Renell, in his Memoir of a Map of the Peninsula of India, p. 33. For the revenue of the other British possessions, see this Grammar, p. 606.**

GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.] This government was rich, flourishing, and populous, before the late usurpations in Hindoostan. It is finely watered by the Ganges and Burrampooter, with their numerous navigable channels, and the several navigable rivers they receive: it is fertilized by their periodical inundations, and by its natural situation is well secured against foreign enemies. But for a more particular description of this province, we refer our readers to the account we have already given of it.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS.] The great defects of this government are not only the want of connection between its parts, which are scattered along an extensive coast, and separated from each other by states frequently hostile, but being totally devoid of good harbours. Hopes, however, have been entertained of removing this last defect, by removing the bar at the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the sea at Devicotta. The capital and seat of government is MADRAS in the

† See page 606.
the English and Dutch have factories. The English have also factories at Ganjam and Vizigapatan, on this coast; and the Dutch at Narsipore. The province of Orissa, from whence the English company draw some part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from east to west about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moadjee Booslah, and his brother, allies to the Mahrattas. In this province stands the temple of Jagaryunt, which they say is attended by 500 priests. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black stone, of about 4 or 500lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to represent the eyes, and the nose and mouth painted with vermillion.

The country of Deccan * comprehends several large provinces, and some kingdoms; particularly those of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Visiapour. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and government of those provinces, are extremely unsettled; they having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, and subject to almost annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their situation and extent, but we are told, that the principal towns are Aurengabad, and Doltabod, or Dowlet-abad; and the latter is the strongest place in all Hindoostan. Near it lies the famous pagod of Elora, in a plain about two leagues square. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and the many thousand figures that surround it, are said to be cut out of the natural rock, and to surpass all other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the east of Golconda; and its capital, Beder, contains a garrison of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province speak a language peculiar to themselves.

Baglani lies to the west of Telenga, and forms the smallest province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portuguese territory begins here at the Port of Daman, twenty one leagues south of Surat, and extends almost twenty leagues to the north of Goa. Visiapour is a large province, the western part is called Concun, which is intermingled with the Portuguese possessions. The rajah of Visiapour is said to have had a yearly revenue of six millions sterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 soldiers. The capital is of the same name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coast are, Daman, Bassaim, Trapar, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi, Rajahour, Dabul Rajupur, Ghiria, and Vingurla. The Portuguese have lost several valuable possessions on this coast, and those which remain are on the decline.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is said to contain 35 cities. Amed-Abad is the capital of the province, where there is an English factory, and is said, in wealth, to vie with the richest towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues distant lies Surat, where the English have a flourishing factory.

Among the islands lying upon the same coast is that of Bombay, belonging to the English East India Company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being destitute of almost all the conveniences of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to the English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preservatives against its unwholesomeness. The best water there is preserved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy seasons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. Many black merchants reside here. This island was part of the portion paid with the infantas of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the East India Company; and the island is still divided into three Roman Catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and what are called popish Mestizes and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the Aborigines of the country. The English have fallen upon methods to render this island and town,

* This name Deccan signifies the South, and in its most extensive signification, includes the whole Peninsula south of Hindoostan Proper. However, in its ordinary signification, it means only the countries situated between Hindoostan Proper, the Carnatic, and Orissa; that is, the provinces of Canchi, Amednagur, Visiapour, and Orissa.

Kennet’s Introduction to the Memoirs of his Map of Hindoostan, p. cxii.
under all these disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The reader scarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative posts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over the East Indies, called Senoys. The inhabitants of the island amount to near 60,000, of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmolested.

Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a stupendous temple, hewn out of the solid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portuguese. Besides the temple, are various images, and groups on each hand cut in stone; one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance of the judgment of Solomon; besides a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of resemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The island and city of Goa, the capital of the Portuguese settlements in the East Indies, lies about thirty miles south of Vingurla. The island is about twenty-seven miles in compass. It has one of the finest and best fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a most superb settlement, and was surpassed, either in bulk or beauty, by few of the European cities. It is said that the revenues of the Jesuits upon this island, equalled those of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the rest of the Portuguese possessions of this coast, is under a viceroy, who still keeps up the remains of the ancient splendour of the government. The rich Peninsula of Salsett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies south of the Portuguese territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul. The English factory of Corwar is one of the most pleasant and healthy of any upon the Malabar coast. Kanaro lies about forty miles to the south of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its soil is famous for producing rice, that supplies many parts of Europe, and some of the Indies. The Kanorines are said generally to be governed by a lady, whose son has the title of Rajah; and her subjects are accounted the bravest and most civilised of any in that Peninsula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the Peninsula, yet it is confined at present to the country so called, lying on the west of Cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic; and the country itself is rich and fertile, but pestered with green adders, whose poison is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itself. The most remarkable places in Malabar are Kannamore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tellicherry, where the English have a small settlement, keeping a constant garrison of thirty or forty soldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portuguese have small factories, besides various other distinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the southernmost part of this Peninsula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the same garden the two seasons of the year; the trees being loaded with blossoms and fruit on the one side, while on the other side they are stripped of all their leaves. This surprising phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains so often mentioned, which traverse the whole Peninsula from south to north. On the opposite sides of the Cape, the winds are constantly at variance; blowing from the west on the west side, and from the east on the eastern side.

It may be proper to observe, that in the district of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found some thousands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manasseh, and to have records engraven on copper-plates in Hebrew characters. They are said to be so poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like discoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Asia, which have occasioned various speculations among the learned.
his peninsula belong to rajahs, or lords, who are descendants of their old princes, and look upon themselves as being independent on the Mogul, and his authority. On the subject of eastern manners, we cannot pass over the dreadful austerities practised by the Hindoo-devotees that they may obtain a certain and speedy admission into the delights of paradise. Animated by the desire of obtaining that glorious reward, the patient Hindoo smiles amidst unutterable misery, and exults in every variety of voluntary torture: He equally braves the raging flood and the devouring fire: His courage is not to be shaken by the sharpest pangs of torture, or by the approach of death in its most ghastly and appalling form. In the hope of expiating former crimes by adequate penance, and of regaining speedily that fancied elysium, he binds himself to the performance of vows which make human nature shudder and human reason stagger. He passes whole weeks without the smallest nourishment, and whole years in painful vigils. He wanders about naked as he came from the womb of his parent, and suffers, without repining, every vicissitude of heat and cold, of driving storm and beating rain. He stands with his arms crossed above his head, till the sinews shrink and the flesh withers away. He fixes his eye upon the burning orb of the sun, till its light be extinguished and its moisture entirely dried up.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] From what has been said above, this Peninsula is rather to be divided into great governments, or soubahships, than into provinces. One soubah often engrosses several provinces, and fixes the seat of his government, according to his own convenience. I shall speak of those provinces, as belonging to the Malabar, or Coromandel coast, the two great objects of English commerce in that country; and, first, of the Eastern, or Coromandel coast.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the southermost point of the Peninsula. It is about the bigness of the kingdom of Portugal, and is said to have been governed by a sovereign king, who had under him seventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax: now the case is much altered, the prince being scarcely able to protect himself and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off; the capital is Trichinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom seems to consist of a pearl-fishery upon its coast. Tanjour is a little kigdom, lying to the east of Madura. The soil is fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and some British subjects connected with him. Within it lies the Danish East India settlement of Tranquebar, and the fortress of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch last war, and confirmed to the English by the late treaty of peace; the capital city is Tanjour.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the English. It is bounded on the east by the bay of Bengal; on the north by the river Kistna, which divides it from Golconda, on the west by the Visapur; and on the south by the kingdoms of Messaur and Tanjour; being in length, from south to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from east to west. The capital of the the Carnatic is Bissanagar, and of our ally the nabob Arcot. The country in general is esteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coast, lies Fort St David’s, or Cuddalore, belonging to the English, with a district round it. The fort is strong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the East Indies, but which has been repeatedly taken by the English, and as often restored by the treaties of peace. Since the beginning of the present war it was again taken by the English, and has since remained in their possession.

Fort St George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the English East India Company’s dominions in that part of the East Indies, and is distant eastward from London, about 4,800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the situation of this fort; but no pains have been spared by the Company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought against it by the natives. It protects two

* Maurice, Indian Antiquities.
towns, called, from the complexions of their several inhabitants, the White and Black. The White town is fortified, and contains an English corporation of a mayor and alderman. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badness of its situation, which seems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey distant. These mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeasurement, enclosing the contents by palisadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The district belonging to Madras, extending about 40 miles round, is of little value for its product; 80,000 inhabitants of various nations are said to depend upon Madras; but its safety consists in the superiority of the English by sea. It carries on a considerable trade with China, Persia, and Mecha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immense fortunes acquired by the English, upon this coast, within these thirty years; but some of these fortunes appear to have been obtained by the most iniquitous practices. There seems to have been some fundamental errors in the constitution of the East India Company. The directors considered the riches acquired by their governors and other servants as being plundered from the Company, and accordingly sent out superintendents to control their governors and overgrown servants; and have from time to time changed their governors, and members of the council there. As this is a subject of the greatest importance, that ever perhaps occurred in the history of a commercial country, the reader will indulge us in one or two reflections.

The English East India Company, through the distractions of the Mogul empire, the support of our government, and the undaunted, but fortunate successes of their military officers, have acquired so amazing a property in this Peninsula, and in Hindostan, that it is superior to the revenues of many crowned heads; and some of their servants pretend, that when all their expenses are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions sterling; out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while suffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it arises, is best known to the Company; part of it, however, has been granted in property, and part of it is secured on mortgages, for discharging their expenses in supporting the interests of their friends, the emperor, and the respective soubahs and nabobs they have assisted.

Be this as it may, this Company has exercised many rights appropriated to sovereignty; such as those of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Those powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and therefore the English ministry and parliament have repeatedly interfered, in order to regulate the affairs of the Company, and a Board of Control at home is at length established. By the success which attended the British arms in the late war, and by the extent of territory which was ceded to the Company, their possessions being more safe from the inroads of Tippoo Sultan, are now rendered permanent and secure. It is much to be dreaded, however, that the natives are not sufficiently protected from the oppression, injustice, and cruelty, of which the servants of the East India Company have been too often guilty.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the servants of the Company often embroiled them, shared the Carnatic with the nabob or Arcot. In the last war he took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the Company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the conclusion of the war. He is said to have been a native of the province of Messar, or Mysore, which lies to the south-west of the Carnatic; and the Christians of the apostle St Thomas live at the foot of the mountains Getti, that separate Messar from Malabar. Pellicate, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. I have already mentioned the kingdom of Golconda, which, besides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapness of its provisions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golconda is subject to a prince, called the Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raise 100,000 men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagar, or Hydrabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda. East-south-east of Golconda lies Masulipatal, where
HINDOOSTAN.

NORTHERN POONAH MAHARATTAS.

They are governed at present by Sindia Holkar, and some other less considerable princes.

TIPPOO SULTAN'S TERRITORIES

Were diminished one half in consequence of the treaty of peace in 1792. The dominions left him at that time were,

Provinces.                     Chief towns.
Kingdom of Mysore              Seringapatam on the Caveri.
Bednore                        Bednore, or Hyder Nugger.
Canara                         Mangalore.

Chitteldroog, Harponelly, Roydroog, &c. are the capitals of territories of the same name.

Country of the Abdalli: This government, which includes the soubah of Cabul, and the neighbouring parts of Persia, was formed by Abdalla, one of the generals of Thomas Kouli Khan, when, on the death of that usurper, his empire was dismembered; its capital is Candahar in Persia.

Country of the Seiks: They are said to consist of a number of small states independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jats or Gets, very little known to Europeans.
Country of Zabeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.
Territory of the Agra on the Jumna.
Ferrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, surrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund.
Travancore, near Cape Comorin.

Since the conquest of Mysore, and the defeat and death of Tippoo, his territories have been partitioned between the British, the Nizam, and the Maharrattas. To the Company naturally fell the province of Canara, and the district of Coimbatoo and Deoramporam, with all the territory lying between the possessions of the Company in the Carnatic, and those in the Malabar province, together with the fortress, city, and island of Seringapatam. To the Nizam were allotted the district of Gooty and Gurumoon dah, together with a tract of country, the frontier of which should be drawn nearly along the line of Chitteldroog, Sera, Nundidroog, and Kolar. To the Maharrattas a portion was ceded which contained Harponelly, Soonda above the ghauts, and other districts. A new government was erected in Mysore, from which the family of Tippoo were altogether excluded, and the lineal descendants of the Rajah of Mysore were restored to the throne of their ancestors.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

THIS Empire includes China Proper, Chinese Tartary, and Tibet. We shall treat of each of these divisions separately.
**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Provinces</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
<th>Acres.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pe-che-see</td>
<td>35,000,000</td>
<td>55,049</td>
<td>27,727,360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiang-nan</td>
<td>32,000,000</td>
<td>92,961</td>
<td>59,495,040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 provinces</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kiang-seee</td>
<td>19,000,000</td>
<td>72,176</td>
<td>46,192,640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tche-kiang</td>
<td>21,000,000</td>
<td>39,150</td>
<td>25,056,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loo-ch'en</td>
<td>15,000,000</td>
<td>58,480</td>
<td>34,227,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hou-pe</td>
<td>11,000,000</td>
<td>144,770</td>
<td>92,652,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hou-nan</td>
<td>13,000,000</td>
<td>65,104</td>
<td>41,665,560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Po nan</td>
<td>24,000,000</td>
<td>65,104</td>
<td>41,665,560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shang-tung</td>
<td>27,000,000</td>
<td>55,268</td>
<td>35,371,520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shan-seee</td>
<td>13,000,000</td>
<td>154,093</td>
<td>88,565,120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shen-tee</td>
<td>12,000,000</td>
<td>106,800</td>
<td>50,652,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kan-sore</td>
<td>27,000,000</td>
<td>79,156</td>
<td>40,531,810</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So-chuenen</td>
<td>21,000,000</td>
<td>78,250</td>
<td>40,080,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canton</td>
<td>10,000,000</td>
<td>107,909</td>
<td>69,100,160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quang-seee</td>
<td>8,000,000</td>
<td>64,554</td>
<td>41,531,560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ifong-cheou</td>
<td>9,000,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 3,38,000,000 1,297,099 830,719,360

With respect to this statement, Sir George Staunton, who compiled the judicious and authentic account of the late English embassy to China, observes, that "the extent of the provinces is ascertained by astronomical observations, as well as by admeasurement. The number of individuals is regularly taken in each division of a district by a surveyor, or every tenth master of a family. Those returns are collected by officers resident so near as to be capable of correcting any gross mistake; and all the returns are lodged in the register at Pekin. Though the general statement is strictly the result of those returns added to each other, which seem little liable to error, or, taken separately, to doubt, yet the amount of the whole is so prodigious as to stagger belief. It must, however, be recollected, that population in China is not subject to be materially diminished by war. No private soldiers, and a few officers only, natives of the ancient provinces of China, were engaged in the conquest of Western Tartary, or in the Tibet war. Celebrity is rare, even in the military professions, among the Chinese. The number of manufacturers, whose occupations are not always favourable to health, whose constant confinement to particular spots, and sometimes in a close or tainted atmosphere, must be in-
jurious, and whose residence in towns exposes them to irregularities, bears but a very small proportion to that of husbandmen in China. In general there seem to be no other bounds to Chinese populousness than those which the necessity of subsistence may put to it. These boundaries are certainly more enlarged than in other countries. The whole surface of the empire is, with trifling exceptions, dedicated to the production of food for man alone. "There is no meadow, and very little pasture, nor are fields cultivated in oats, beans, or turnips, for the support of cattle of any kind. Few parks or pleasure-grounds are seen, excepting those belonging to the emperor. Little land is taken up for roads, the chief communication being by water. There are no commons or lands suffered to lie waste by the neglect or caprice, or for the sport, of great proprietors. No arable land lies fallow. The soil, under a hot and fertilizing sun, yields double crops, in consequence of adapting the culture to the soil, and supplying its defects by mixture with other earths, by manure, watering, and careful and useful industry of every kind. The labour of man is little diverted from that industry, to minister to the luxuries of the opulent and powerful, or in employments of no real use. Even the soldiers of the Chinese army, except during the short intervals of the guards which they are called to mount, or the exercises or other occasional services which they perform, are mostly employed in agriculture. The quantity of subsistence is increased also by converting more species of animals and vegetables to that purpose than is usual in other countries. From a consideration of the influence of all these causes, the great population of China, asserted in this statement, will not, perhaps, appear surprising, though it appears from it that every square mile in that vast empire contains, upon an average, about one third more inhabitants, being upwards of three hundred, than are found upon an equal quantity of land, also upon an average, in the most populous country in Europe."

FORESTS.] Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests or woods, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] The appearance of the country in China is very diversified, though in general it is level and most assiduously cultivated, yet, according to Du Halde, the provinces of Yunan, Kooicheou, Secheuen, and Kuchen, are so mountainous as greatly to obstruct cultivation; and that of Tchekiang has lofty precipitous mountains on the west. These mountains do not appear to be known to Europeans by any appropriate names.

LAKES.] China contains several extensive lakes, as that of Tong-tint-hoo, in the province of Hou-quang, more than eighty leagues in circumference, and that of Poyang-hoo, in the province of Kiang-see, thirty leagues in circuit. The lakes of Woo-chuang-hoo and Tai-hoo are also remarkable for their picturesque scenery. On some of these lakes a singular method of fishing is practised. Thousands of small boats are sometimes seen on them, and in each boat about ten or a dozen of birds, which, at a signal from the owner, plunge into the water, and bring out in their bills fish of an enormous size. They are so well trained that it does not require either ring or cord round their throats to prevent them from swallowing any portion of their prey, except what the master is pleased to return them for encouragement and food. The boat used by these fishermen is of a remarkable light make, and is often carried to the lake, together with the fish-birds, by the men who are there to be supported by it.

METALS, MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe some naturalists) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper, called by the Chinese petang, is peculiar to itself, but we know of no extraordinary quality it possesses. Tutenag is another peculiar metal, a mine of which, in the province of Hou-quang, yielded many hundred weight in the course of a few days. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of diminishing industry. Their gold mines, therefore, are but slightly worked, and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains the people pick up in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Honan.

Iron, lead, and tin, are sold at a low rate throughout the empire. Coals are found in
great plenty in the provinces of Shen-see, Shan-see, and Pe-che-lee; they are used by
workmen in their furnaces, in all kitchens, and in the stoves with which the Chinese
warm their apartments during the winter.

RIVERS.] The two principal rivers of China are the Hoan-ho and the Kian-ku; the
former has its sources among the mountains of Tibet, and falls into the yellow Sea af-
after a course of two thousand one hundred and fifty miles. The Kian-ku rises near the
source of the Hoan-ho, and, after passing the city of Nanking, falls into the sea about
one hundred miles to the south of the mouth of the Hoan-ho, having traversed a course
of two thousand two hundred miles. These two rivers are considered as the longest in
the world. There are many other rivers of inferior note in China; but the water of
this country is in general very indifferent, and, in some places must be boiled to make
it fit for use.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AGRICULTURE. The climate of China varies according to the si-
tuation of the places. Towards the north it is cold, in the middle mild, and in the south hot.
The soil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can minister to the ne-
cessities, conveniences, or luxuries of life. Agriculture, in this country, according to
the testimony of all travellers, is carried to the utmost degree of perfection. The cul-
ture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed
and fed, is ingenious almost beyond description.

CANALS.] These are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of a
most wise and industrious people. The commodiousness and length of their canals are
incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn stone on the sides; and they are so
deep, that they carry large vessels, and sometimes extend above one thousand miles in
length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been
thought by some, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land.
They are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing con-
struction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels sometimes drawn by men. No precau-
tions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the
passengers, in case a canal is crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the
mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, render Chi-
na delightful in a very high degree, as well as fertile, in places that are not so by nature.

VEGETABLES.] Many of the rare trees and aromatic productions, either ornamental
or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and
some are peculiar to itself.

The tallow-tree has a smooth bark, red leaves, shaped like a heart, and is about the
height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tal-
low; and when manufactured with oil, serves the natives as candles; but they smell
strong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are some which
yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is pois-
oneous, but affords the finest varnish in the world. After all that can be said of these,
and many other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry,
are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all melliorated by
cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far
from being so delicious as those of Europe, and indeed of America.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw silk, which so much abounds
in China; and, above all, the tea-plant, or shrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to
prevent luxuriance. "Vast tracts of hilly land (says Sir George Staunton) are planted
with it, particularly in the province of Fochen. Its perpendicular growth is impeded
for the convenience of collecting its leaves, which is done first in spring, and twice
afterwards in the course of the summer. Its long and tender branches spring up al-
mast from the root without any intervening naked trunk. It is bushy like a rose-tree,
and the expanded petals of the flower bear some resemblance to that of the rose. Every
information received concerning the tea-plant concurred in affirming that its qualities
depended both upon the soil in which it grew, and the age at which the leaves were
plucked off the tree, as well as upon the management of them afterwards. The largest
and oldest leaves, which are the least esteemed, and destined for the use of the lowest
classes of the people, are often exposed to sale with little previous manipulation, and
still retaining that kind of vegetable taste which is common to most fresh plants, but which vanishes in a little time, while the more essential flavour, characteristic of each particular vegetable, remains long without diminution. The young leaves undergo no inconceivable preparation before they are delivered to the purchaser. Every leaf passes through the fingers of a female, who rolls it up almost to the form it had assumed before it became expanded in the progress of its growth. It is afterwards placed upon thin plates of earthen-ware or iron, made much thinner than can be executed by artists out of China. It is confidently said, in the country, that no plates of copper are ever employed for that purpose. Indeed, scarcely any utensil used in China is of that metal, the chief application of which is for coin. The earthen or iron plates are placed over a charcoal fire, which draws all remaining moisture from the leaves, rendering them dry and crisp. The colour and astrigency of green tea is thought to be derived from the early period at which the leaves are plucked, and which, like unripe fruit, are generally green and acrid.”

The Portuguese had the use of tea long before the English; but it was introduced among the latter before the Restoration, as mention is made of it in the first act of parliament that settled the excise on the king for life, in 1660. Catharine of Lisbon, wife to Charles II., rendered the use of it common at his court. The ginseng, so famous among the Chinese as the universal remedy, and monopolised even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in North America. When brought to Europe, it is little distinguished for its healing qualities; and this instance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginseng, however, is a native of the Chinese Tartary.

Curiosities, natural and artificial.] Some volcanoes, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linesung sometimes makes so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air; and some of their lakes petrify fishes when put into them.

The artificial mountains present, on their tops, temples, and other edifices. The Chinese bridges are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and consist only of one arch; that over the river Seffirany is four hundred cubits long and five hundred high, though a single arch, and joins two mountains; and some in the interior parts of the empire are still more stupendous. The triumphal arches of this country are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vast labour and expence. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe, under the name of pagodas, are vast embellishments to the face of their country. They seem to be constructed by a regular order, and all of them are furnished with exquisite carvings and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is two hundred feet high, and forty in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelain Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, and the ugliness of the idols they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell at Peking weighs one hundred and twenty thousand pounds, but its sound is disagreeable. Their buildings, except the pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance, not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

Animals.] The lion, according to Du Halde, is not found in China, but there are tigers, rhinoceroses, bears, buffaloes, and wild boars. A very small breed of camels, some of which are not higher than horses, is found here. There are also several species of deer, among which the musk deer is a singular animal, which is likewise a native of Tibet.

National character, manners, customs.] The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized, their faces broad, their eyes black and small, their noses blunt, and turned upwards; they have high cheek-bones, and large lips. The Chinese have particular ideas of beauty; they pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots
with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mohammedans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion, towards the north, is fair, but towards the south swarthy; corpulence is esteemed a beauty in a man, but considered as a palpable blemish in the fair sex, who aim at preserving a slimness and delicacy of shape. Men of quality and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately complexioned; and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to show that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate, though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accomplishment; so that, when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather than walk.

"Of most of the women we saw (says Sir George Staunton), even in the middle and inferior classes, the feet were unnaturally small, or rather truncated. They appear as if the fore-part of the foot had been accidentally cut off, leaving the remainder of the usual size, and bandaged like the stump of an amputated limb. They undergo, indeed, much torment, and cripple themselves in a great measure, in imitation of ladies of higher rank, among whom it is the custom to stop by pressure the growth of the uncle as well as foot from the earliest infancy; and, leaving the great toe in its natural position, forcibly to bend the others, and retain them under the foot, till at length they adhere to, as if buried in the sole, and can no more be separated. It is said, indeed, that this practice is now less frequent than formerly, at least among the lower sort in the northern provinces."21

"The exterior demeanour of the Chinese (observes the same writer) is very ceremonious. It consists of various evolutions of the body, and inclinations of the head, in bending or stiffening the knee, and in joining or disengaging the hand; all which are considered as the perfection of good-breeding and deportment; while the nations who are not expert in such discipline are thought to be little better than barbarians. When, however, those Chinese ceremonies are once shown off, the performers of them relapse into ease and familiarity.—In their address to strangers, they are not restrained by any bashfulness, but present themselves with an easy, confident air, as if they considered themselves as the superiors, and as if nothing in their manners or appearance could be deficient or inaccurate."

The Chinese, in general, have been represented as the most dishonest, low, thieving set in the world; employing their natural quickness only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, especially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great ease, particularly the English: but they observe that none but a Chinese can cheat a Chinese. They are fond of law disputes, beyond any people in the world. Their hypocrisy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practise the most avowed bribery, and the lowest meanness, to obtain preferment. It should, however, be remembered, that some of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by those who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the sea-port towns, in which they probably met with many knavish and designing people. But it seems not just to attempt to characterise a great nation by a few instances of this kind, though well attested; and we appear not to be sufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China, to form an accurate judgment of the manners and character of the inhabitants. By some of the Jesuit missionaries, the Chinese seem to have been too much extolled, and by later writers too much degraded.

Marriages.] The parties never see each other in China till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when they are perfect children. When the nuptials are celebrated, the lady is carried (as yet unseen by the bridegroom) in a gilt and gaudy chair, hung round with festoons of artificial flowers; and followed by relations, attendants, and servants, bearing the paraphernalia, being the only portion given with a daughter in marriage by her parents. Next to being barren, the greatest scandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of poor family happens to have three or four girls successively, it not unfrequently happens that she will expose them on
the high roads, or throw them into a river: for, in China, parents who cannot support their female children are allowed to cast them into the river; but they fasten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compassionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to save them from death.

Dress.] This varies according to the distinction of ranks; and is entirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours that distinguish the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarins are entitled to wear satin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony; in general they are clothed in black, blue, or violet.—White is only worn for mourning; and cannot be too much soiled for the occasion, to avoid every appearance of personal care and ornament. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dress is always composed of plain cotton cloth. The men wear caps on their heads, of the fashion of a bell; those of quality are ornamented with jewels. The rest of their dress is easy and loose, consisting of a vest and sash, a coat or gown thrown over them, silk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. Dress is seldom altered in China from fancy or fashion. Even among the ladies there is little variety in their dresses; except, perhaps, in the disposition of the flowers or other ornaments of the head. They generally wear over a silk netting, which is in lieu of linen, a waistcoat and drawers of silk, trimmed or lined in cold weather with furs. Above this is worn a long satin robe, which is gracefully gathered round the waist, and confined with a sash. These different parts of their apparel are usually each of a different colour, in the selection and contrast of which the wearers chiefly display their taste. They suffer their nails to grow, but reduce their eye-brows to an arched line.

FUNERALS.] The Chinese, among other superstitions, are particularly scrupulous about the time and place of burying their dead. The delay occasioned before these difficult points are ascertained, has often long detained the collins of the rich from their last repository; many are seen in houses and gardens under temporary roofs, to preserve them in the mean time from the weather: but necessity forces the poor to overcome many of their scruples in this respect; and to deposit at once, and with little ceremony, the remains of their relations in their final abode.

The following is the description of a Chinese funeral procession, observed by Sir George Staunton, passing out at one of the gates of Peking: “The procession was preceded by several performers on solemn music; then followed a variety of insignia, some of silken colours, and painted boards with devices and characters, displaying the rank and office of him who was no more. Immediately before the corpse the male relations walked, each supported by friends, occupied in preventing them from giving way to the excesses and extravagance of grief, to which the appearance of their countenance implied that they were prone. Over the mourners were carried umbrellas with deep curtains hanging from the edges. Several persons were employed to burn circular pieces of paper, covered chiefly with tin foil, as they passed by burying-grounds and temples. These pieces, in the popular opinion, like the coin to Charon for being conveyed to the Elysian fields, are understood to be convertible, in the next stage of existence, into the means of providing the necessaries of life.”

Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather; before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves: and, when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceased is added.

The public burying-grounds are extremely extensive, owing to the respect paid to the dead by the Chinese, which prevents them from opening a new grave upon any spot where the traces of a former one remained upon the surface.

CHIEF CITIES, EDIFICES.] The empire is said to contain 4400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary residence of the emperors, is situated in a very fertile plain, twenty leagues distant from the great wall. It is an oblong square, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor’s palace is called the Tartar city, because the houses were given to the Tartars when the present family came to the throne; and they, refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it, forced them to live with-
out the walls, where they in a short time built a city; which, by being joined to the
other, renders the whole of an irregular form, six leagues in compass. The walls and
gates of Peking are of the surprising height of fifty cubits, so that they hide the whole
city: and are so broad, that sentinels are placed upon them on horseback; for there are
slopes within the city of considerable length, by which horsemen may ascend the walls,
and in several places there are houses built for the guards. The gates, which are
nine in number, are neither embellished with statues, nor other carving, all their beauty
consisting in their prodigious height, which at a distance gives them a noble appearance.
The arches of the gates are built of marble; and the rest with large bricks, cemented
with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line; the largest are
about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The shops where they sell silks and
China-ware generally take up the whole street, and afford a very agreeable prospect.
Each shopkeeper places before his shop, on a small kind of pedestal, a board about
twenty feet high, painted, varnished, and often gilt, on which are written, in large
characters, the names of the several commodities he sells. These, being placed on each
side of the street, at nearly an equal distance from each other, have a very pretty ap-
pearance: but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low; most of them having
only a ground-floor, and none exceeding one story above it. Of all the buildings in
this great city, the most remarkable is the imperial palace; the grandeur of which does
not consist so much in the nobleness and elegance of the architecture, as the multitude
of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly disposed: for within the walls are
not only the emperor's house, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court,
and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houses of the
courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Arthur, a French Jesuit, who was
indulged with a sight of the palace and gardens, says that the palace is more than three
miles in circumference; and that the front of the building shines with gilding, paint,
and varnish, while the inside is set off and furnished with every thing that is most beau-
tiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are
large tracts of ground, in which are raised, at proper distances, artificial mountains;
from twenty to sixty feet high; which form a number of small valleys, plentifully
watered by canals; which, uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent
banks sail on these pieces of water; and the banks are ornamented with ranges of build-
ings, not any two of which are said to have any resemblance to each other: which di-
versity produces a very pleasing effect. Every valley has its house of pleasure, large
enough to lodge one of our greatest lords in Europe, with all his retinue: many of
these houses are built with cedar, brought, at a vast expense, the distance of 500
leagues. Of these palaces, or houses of pleasure, there are more than 200 in this vast
inclosure. In the middle of a lake, which is nearly half a league in diameter every way,
is a rocky island, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apart-
ments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent structure. The
mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and
aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with
such art as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature.
The estimated population of Peking was carried in the last century, by the Jesuit
Grimaldi, as quoted by Gimelli Carreri, to sixteen millions. Another missionary re-
duces at least that of the Tartar city to one million and a quarter. According to the
best information given to the late English embassy, the whole was about three millions.
The low houses of Peking seem scarcely sufficient for so vast a population; but very
little room is occupied by a Chinese family, at least in the middling and lower classes
of life. A Chinese dwelling is generally surrounded by a wall of six feet high. Within
this inclosure a whole family of three generations, with all their respective wives and
children, will frequently be found. One small room is made to serve for the indivi-
duals of each branch of the family; sleeping in different beds, divided only by mats
hanging from the ceiling. One common room is used for eating.
Canton is the largest port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented
by Europeans. The city wall is above five miles in circumference, with very pleasant
walks around it. From the top of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you
have a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills, and valleys, all green; and these again pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river Ta: on which are numberless boats and junkes, sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by several iron gates, and within of each is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, but generally narrow, paved with flag stones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked with images. The streets of Canton are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any fashion is seldom to be seen, unless by chance when coming out of her chair. There are great numbers of market places for fish, flesh, poultry, and vegetables, and all kinds of provisions, which are sold very cheap. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses; which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only shops and warehouses. Few of the Chinese traders of any substance keep their families in houses where they do business; but either in the city, in the more remote suburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all such a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the streets, but in shops and places of public business, nor do any of their windows look towards those of their neighbours. The shops of those that deal in silk are very neat, make a fine show, and are all in one place; for tradesmen ordain in one kind of goods herd together in the same street. It is computed that there are in this city, and its suburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading vessels lying before the city.

Nanking, which was the royal residence till the fifteenth century, (its name signifying the southern court, as Peking does the northern,) is said to be a considerably more extensive city than Peking, the walls being about seventeen miles in circuit; but its population does not correspond to its extent. The most remarkable of its edifices is the famous porcelain tower already mentioned. The well-known stuff called nankeen derives its name from this city.

Public roads.] The security of travellers, and an easy mode of conveyance for passengers and merchandise of every kind, are objects to which particular attention seems to have been paid by administration in China. The manner in which the public roads are managed, greatly contributes to the former.

These roads are paved in all the southern provinces, and some of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and passages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preserve them as nearly as possible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees; and sometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a passage into cross-roads that conduct to different villages. On all the great roads, covered seats are erected at proper distances, where the traveller may shelter himself from the inclemency of the winter, or the excessive heats of the summer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and even on the cross roads. The former are very spacious, but they are badly supplied with provisions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to sleep on a plain mat. Government requires of those who inhabit them, to give lodging only to those who ask and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets (says Mr Bell) called post houses, erected at certain distances one from another, with a flag-staff, on which is hoisted the imperial pendant. These places are guarded by soldiers, who run from one post to another with great speed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in sight of one another, and by signals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By these means the court is informed in the speediest manner of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote parts of the empire.

Constitution and Government.] The original plan of the Chinese government was patriarchal, almost in the strictest sense of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the most rigorous manner;
but, at the same time, the emperor was considered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of state, were looked upon as his substitutes, and the degrees of submission which were due from the inferior ranks to the superior were settled and observed with the most scrupulous precision, and in a manner that to us seems highly ridiculouis. This simple claim of obedience required great address and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chinese legislators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of mystical appearances, so as to strike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had peculiar modes of speaking and writing, and the people were taught to believe that the princes partook of divinity; so that they were seldom seen, and more seldom approached. "In the great palace of Pekin (says Sir George Staunton) all the mandarins resident in the capital assembled about noon, on his imperial majesty's birth-day, and, dressed in their robes of ceremony, made the usual prostrations before the throne; incense of sandal and rose woods burning upon it at the same time, and offerings being made of viands and liquors, as if, though absent, he were capable of enjoying them. Mr Barrow (a gentleman of the embassy) was present whilst the same ceremonies were observed at Yuen-min-yuen; and he was informed that they likewise took place on that day in every part of the empire, the prostrators being every where attentive to turn their faces towards the capital. On all the days of new and full moon, similar incense is burnt, and offerings are made before the throne by the officers of the household in the several palaces of the emperor.

Though this system preserved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect, that often convulsed and at last proved fatal to the state, because the same attention was not paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chinese had passions like other men; and sometimes a weak or wicked administration drove them to arms, and a revolution easily succeeded, which they justified by saying that their sovereign had ceased to be their father. During these commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours, the Tartars, to their assistance; who, possessing great sagacity, became acquainted with the weak side of their constitution, and availed themselves of it accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire, and conforming to the Chinese institutions.

Besides the great doctrine of patriarchal obedience, the Chinese had sumptuary laws and regulations for the expenses of all degrees of subjects, which were very useful in preserving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their institutions, likewise, the mandarins might remonstrate to the emperor, but in the most submissive manner, upon the errors of his government; and, when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the most salutary effects. No country in the world is so well provided with magistrates for the discharge of justice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China, but they are often ineffectual, though want of public virtue in the execution.

Manufactures and commerce.] China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be said to be the native land of industry; but it is an industry without taste or elegance, though carried on with great art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink for the use of drawing is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lamp-black. The manufacture of that earthen-ware generally known by the name of China, was long a secret in Europe, and brought immense sums to that country. Though the Chinese affect to keep that manufacture still a secret, yet it is well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverised earth, and that several European countries far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity. The Chinese silks are generally plain and flowered gauzes; and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing silk-worms was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind; and their cotton and other cloths are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for such is the pride and avarice of the Chinese, that they think no
manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain that, since the discovery of the porcelain manufacture, and the vast improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chinese commerce has been on the decline.

Revenues.] The public revenues of China Proper (says Staunton) are said to be little less than two hundred millions of ounces of silver, which may be equal to about sixty-six millions of pounds sterling, or about four times those of Great Britain, and three times those of France before the late revolution. From the produce of the taxes, all the civil and military expences, and the incidental and extraordinary charges, are first paid upon the spot, out of the treasuries of the respective provinces where such expences are incurred; and the remainder is remitted to the imperial treasury at Pekin. This surplus amounted in the year 1792, according to an account taken from a statement furnished by Chow-ta-Zhin, to the sum of 36,614,328 ounces of silver, or 12,204,776/. A land-tax was substituted in the last reign to the poll-tax, as better proportioned to the faculties of individuals. Most imports, and all luxuries, are likewise taxed; but the duty, being added to the original price of the article, is seldom distinguished from it by the consumer. A transit duty is laid likewise on goods passing from one province to another. Each province in China, which may be compared to an European kingdom, is noted chiefly for the production of some particular article; the conveyance of which, to supply the demand for it in the others, raises this duty to a considerable sum, and forms the great internal commerce of the empire. Presents from the tributaries and subjects of the emperor, and the confiscations of opulent criminals, are not overlooked in enumerating the revenues of the public treasury. Taxes, such as upon rice, are received in kind. The several species of grain, on which many of the poorer classes of the people principally subsist, are exempted from taxation; so is wheat, to which rice is always preferred by the Chinese.

Royal Title.] The Emperor is styled, Holy Son of Heaven, sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his people.

Military and Marine Strength.] China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the Eastern Tartars, in 1644. This is owing to the consummate policy of Chuntchi, the first Tartarian emperor of China; who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tarter dress and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated: The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the seat of his government; and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition, which was so much in their favour.

According to the information given to the gentlemen of the English embassy by Van-ta-Zhin, who was himself a distinguished officer, and appeared to give his account with candour, though not always, perhaps, with sufficient care and accuracy, the total of the army in the pay of China, including Tartars, amounted to one million infantry, and eight hundred thousand cavalry. From the observation made by the embassy, in the course of their travels through the empire, of the garrisons in the cities of the several orders, and of the military posts at small distances from each other, there appeared nothing improbable in the calculation of the infantry; but they met few cavalry. If the number mentioned really do exist, a great proportion of them must be in Tartary, or on some service distant from the route of the embassy. As to the marine force, it is composed chiefly of the junks we have already mentioned; and other small ships that trade coast-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent sudden descents.

A treatise on the military art, translated from the Chinese into the French language, was published at Paris, in 1772, from which it appears that the Chinese are well versed in the theory of the art of war: but caution, and care, and circumspection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themselves.

Religion.] There is in China no state religion. None is paid, preferred, or encouraged, by it. The Chinese have no sabbath, nor even such a division as a week; the temples are, however, open every day for the visits of devotees. Though the ancient Chinese worshipped idols, yet their philosophers and legislators had juster sentiments of the Deity, and indulged the people in the worship of sensible objects, only to make
them more submissive to government. The Jesuits made little opposition to this when they attempted to convert the Chinese, and suffered their proselytes to worship Tein, pretending that it was no other than the name of God. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chinese legislators, introduced a most excellent system of morals among the people, and endeavoured to supply the want of just ideas of a future state, by prescribing to them the worship of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Christianity; but as we know little of their religion but through the Jesuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous instances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chinese with the Christian religion. Those fathers, it must be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progress above a century ago in their conversations; but they mistook the true character of the emperor, who was their patron; for he no sooner found that they were in fact aspiring to the civil direction of the government than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exercise of their religion; since which time Christianity has made no figure in China.

Genius, Learning, and Arts. The genius of the Chinese is peculiar to themselves: they have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting; and yet, in their gardening and planning their grounds, they exhibit the true sublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickness, but differently from the Europeans. Till the later came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning and all its depending arts; they had no proper apparatus for astronomical observations; and the metaphysical learning which existed among them was only known to their philosophers. But even the arts introduced by the Jesuits were of very short duration among them; and lasted very little longer than the reign of Hang-hi who was contemporary with our Charles II.—nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally said, that they understood printing before the Europeans: but that can only be applied to their method of block-printing, by cutting their characters on blocks of wood; for the fusile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chinese, however, had almanacks which were stamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was discovered in Europe.

The difficulty of mastering and retaining such a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chinese written language, greatly retards the progress of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with such honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and pursue it. The literati are reverenced as another species, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever so mean and low, they become mandarins of the highest rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly sink into poverty and obscurity, if they neglect those studies which raised their fathers. It has been observed, that there is no nation in the world where the first honours of the state lie so open to the lowest of the people, and where there is less hereditary greatness. The Chinese range all their works of literature into four classes. The first is the class of King, or the sacred books, which contain the principles of the Chinese religion, morality, and government, and several curious and obscure records relative to these subjects. History forms a separate class: yet, in this first class, there are placed some historical monuments, on account of their relation to religion and government; and among others, the Tekun-ficou, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Loo, the native country of that illustrious sage. The second class is that of the Su or Che; that is, of history and the historians. The third class, called Tzu, or Tse, comprehends philosophy and the philosophers: and contains all the works of the Chinese literati; the productions also of foreign sects and religions, which the Chinese consider only in the light of philosophical opinions; and all books relative to mathematics, astronomy, physics, military science, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth is called Tse or Miscellanies; and contains all the poetical books of the Chinese, their pieces of eloquence, their songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chinese literati, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the study of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, than to moral inqui-
CHINA PROPER.

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ties, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners. It is said that it was not before the dynasty of the Song, in the tenth and eleventh centuries after Christ, that the Chinese philosophers formed hypotheses concerning the system of the universe, and entered into discussions of a scholastic kind; in consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse they had long maintained with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle. And since the Chinese have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder appears to be justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it against Zinghis Khan and Tamerlane. They seem to have known nothing of small-fire arms, and to have been acquainted only with cannon, which they call the firepan. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, porcelain, and japanning, and the like sedentary trades, is amazing; and can be equalled only by their labours in the field in making canals, levelling mountains, raising gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

LANGUAGE.] The Chinese language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one syllable; but then each word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters as well as they can to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language, being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and therefore their learning is all comprised in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about eighty thousand. This language being wholly addressed to the eye, and having scarcely any oral affinity with the latter, has still continued in its original rude uncultivated state, while the former has received all possible improvement.

The Chinese characters, Mr Astle observes, which are by length of time become symbolic, were originally imitative; they still retain so much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words, like letters or marks for sounds, but we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third for a dog, and, in short, a separate and distinct mark for each thing which has a corporeal form. The Chinese use a great number of marks entirely of a symbolic nature, to impress on the eye the conceptions of the mind which have no corporeal forms; though they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds or letters; but a separate mark is made to represent or stand for each idea, and they use them as they do their abridged picture characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chinese books begin from the right hand; their characters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page. They are read downwards beginning from the right hand side of the paper; sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this likewise reads from the right hand.

ANTIQUITIES.] The most remarkable of the remains of antiquity in the Chinese empire, the great wall separating China from Tartary, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars, is supposed to extend from twelve hundred to fifteen hundred miles. It is carried over mountains and valleys; and reaches from the province of Shenssee to the Whang-Hay, or yellow Sea. It is in most places built of brick and mortar, which is so well tempered, that though it has stood more than two thousand years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Petchele, to the east of Peking, and almost in the same latitude; it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraced and cased with bricks; and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high; it is flanked with towers at the distance of almost every hundred yards, which add to its strength, and render it much easier to be defended. One third of the men capable of labour in China, were, it is said, employed in constructing this wall, which was begun and completely finished in the short space of five years; and it is further reported, that the workmen stood so close for many miles, that they could hand the materials from one to another. P. Regis, and the other gentlemen who took a map of these provinces, often
stretched a line on the top, to measure the bases of triangles, and to take distant points with an instrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or six horsemen to travel abreast with ease.

History.] The Chinese pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all measure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan Kou is said by them to have been the first man; and the interval of time between him and the death of their celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, has been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But, upon an accurate investigation of this subject, it appears that all the Chinese historical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears also, that the origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. Even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, but it is certain that the materials for the Chinese history are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in six hundred and sixty-eight volumes; and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters and transactions of its sovereigns. It is said, that all the facts which concern the monarchy, since its foundation, have been deposited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of time, under the inspection of government, and with all the precautions against illusion or partiality that could be suggested. These precautions have been carried so far, that the history of the reign of each imperial family has only been published after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound secret during the dynasty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is asserted, that many of the Chinese historians exposed themselves to exile, and even to death, rather than disguise the defects and vices of their sovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoang-ti, at whose command the great wall was built, in the year 213 before the Christian era, ordered all the historical books and records which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppose his authority, and the changes he proposed to introduce into the monarchy. Four hundred literati were burnt, with their books: yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; several books were concealed, and escaped the general ruin. After this period, strict search was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but, though much industry was employed for this purpose, it appears that the authentic historical sources of the Chinese, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Christ, are very few, and that they are still in smaller numbers for more remote periods. But, notwithstanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chinese history, it is still immensely voluminous, and has been judged by some writers superior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to six hundred and sixty-eight volumes, a copy is preserved in the library of the French nation. A chronological abridgment of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was published in the forty-second year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgment. From these materials the abbé Grosier proposed to publish at Paris, in the French language, a General History of China, in twelve volumes quarto, some of which have been printed; and a smaller work, in twelve volumes octavo, by the late Father de Mailla, missionary at Peking, has been published.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon so copious a subject as that of the Chinese history; and which, indeed, would be very uninteresting to the generality of European readers. A succession of excellent princes, and a duration of domestic tranquillity, united legislation with philosophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whose history is enveloped in mysteries; their Li-Luokum; and, above all, their Kong-foo-tse, or Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the most dreadful effects, in proportion as its constitution was pacific; and they were attended with the most
bloody exterminations in some provinces: so that, though the Chinese empire is hereditary, the imperial succession has been more than once broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynasties, or different tribes and families of succession, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zingis Khan, nor Timur, though they often defeated the Chinese, could subdue their empire; and neither of them could keep the conquests they made there. Their celebrated wall proved but a feeble barrier against the arms of those famous Tartars. After their invasions were over, the Chinese went to war with the Manchew Tartars; while an indolent worthless emperor, Tsongching, was upon the throne. In the mean while, a bold rebel, named Li cong-tse, in the province of Szechuen, dethroned the emperor; who hanged himself, as did most of his courtiers and women. Ou-san-quey, the Chinese general, on the frontier of Tartary, refused to recognise the usurper; and made a peace with Tsongate, or Chun-tchii, the Manchew prince, who drove the usurper from the throne, and took possession of it himself, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himself in his authority; and, as has been already mentioned, wisely incorporated his hereditary subjects with the Chinese, so that in effect Tartary became an acquisition to China. He was succeeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities; who was the patron of the Jesuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About the year 1661, the Chinese, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the island of Formosa, which the latter had taken from the Portuguese.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars who composed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the settlements which they had under the Russian government on the banks of the Volga, and the Iaick, at a small distance from the Caspian Sea, and, in a vast body of fifty thousand families, passed through the country of the Hasacks. After a march of eight months, in which they surmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontiers of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily; and offered themselves as subjects to Kien-Long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty sixth year of his reign. He received them graciously; furnished them with provisions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and pasturage. The year following, there was a second emigration of about thirty thousand other Tartar families; who also quitted the settlements which they enjoyed under the Russian government, and submitted to the Chinese sceptre. The emperor caused the history of these emigrations to be engraved upon stone in four different languages.

The hopes which were lately indulged of the great and manifold advantages to be derived from the embassy of lord Macartney to the court of Peking, ended in disappointment. Never, perhaps, was there a character better qualified for the management of an embassy of such delicacy and importance than lord Macartney: but, notwithstanding his lordship's adroitness, he found it utterly impossible to obtain permission for the residence of an Englishman at the capital of China, as ambassador, consul, or in any other character; or any exclusive settlement for the English within the Chinese dominions, even on a temporary grant, and solely for the purposes of trade. According to a fundamental principle in Chinese politics, innovation, of whatever kind, is held to be inevitably pregnant with ruin; and, on this principle, the emperor declined to admit a foreign resident at the court of Peking, or to expand the principles on which our commercial intercourse with this country are at present regulated and confined.

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**CHINESE TARTARY.**

**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 3000</td>
<td>between 72 and 148 East longitude.</td>
<td>944,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 1050</td>
<td>85 and 53 North latitude.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
BOUNDARIES.] Chinese Tartary is bounded on the north by Siberia, or Asiatic Russia; on the east by the sea of Japan, and the channel of Tartary; on the south by China Proper, and Tibet; and on the west by Independent Tartary.

The name of Tartary was formerly given vaguely to all the countries to the north of Persia, Hindostan, and China, quite to the Northern Ocean; and from the Black Sea and the limits of European Russia to the Eastern Ocean.

NAME.] The origin of the name of Tartary or Tartary has been conjectured to be derived from the Chinese, who call all their neighbours, without distinction, Tata or Ta-are.

DIVISION.] The only division of this country in general, arises from the different tribes by which it is inhabited; of these the principal are the Manchews, or Mandshurs in the east; the Tronguls, or Moguls, in the middle; and the Fluts, or Calmucus, in the west. The country of the Manchew Tartars, who are more immediately under the authority of China (having given to the latter country the present imperial family), has been divided by the Chinese into three great governments, Chinyang, Kirim, and Tsitchicar; which take their names from those of their chief towns. The Russians call the latter Dacoria; from the tribe Tajouri, who inhabit a great part of this district. To these may be added the province or peninsula of Corea, which has been for several centuries under the dominion of the Chinese.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] A great part of this extensive country is a vast elevated plain, supported like a table by the mountains of Tibet on the south, and the Alatian on the north. This most elevated level on the face of the globe, is intersected by several chains of mountains; and by the vast deserts of Cobi and Chamo, which have been supposed to be the same, the former being the Tartarian, and the latter the Chinese name. To the west of this great country are the mountains of Belur Tag, the Imaus of the ancients, which separate the Chinese empire from Baik and great Bucharia, and the Calmucus subject to China from the Kirguses of Independent Tartary.

ANIMALS.] Among the various animals of this country, the most remarkable are the wild horses, and wild asses, which are very numerous. The horses and cattle are in great plenty, and sold at low prices. The bos grumius of Linnaeus, or grunting ox, which inhabits Tartary and Tibet, has a tail of uncommon beauty, full and flowing, of a glossy and silky texture. These tails are a considerable article of exportation from Tibet: the Indians fasten small bundles of the hair to a handle, which they use for fly flaps; the Chinese dye tufts of it with a beautiful scarlet, to decorate their caps; and the Turks employ it as ornaments to their standards.

RIVERS.] The principal of these is the Amur; called by the Tartars, Sagalian Oula, or River Sagalian, because it falls into the Eastern Ocean opposite the island Sagalian; the length of its course is above one thousand eight hundred miles. The other rivers are the Songari, the Nonni, the Yarkand, and the Ili, which latter falls into the lake of Balkash.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The great elevation of this country renders the climate much colder than in others under the same parallel; even in summer it freezes so hard as to produce ice in considerable thickness, which is caused as much by the northeast wind blowing continually over this vast plain, but little sheltered with trees, as by the prodigious quantities of salt-petre which impregnate the earth at the depth of four or five feet; and it is not uncommon to dig up clods of frozen turf and heaps of icicles. The trees are neither numerous nor well grown, but there are some forests. Here are immense tracts of pasturage; and the soil, were it cultivated, would be found sufficiently productive of most kinds of grain; agriculture, however, is not entirely neglected by the Southern Manchaws, who raise some wheat.

LAKES.] There are several lakes in this country; among which are those of Balkash or Tengis, and Zaizan, each about one hundred and fifty miles in length; as also Koko-nor, or the Blue Lake, which has given its name to a tribe of Mogul Tartars.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The Mogul Tartars are in their persons generally short and stout; with broad faces, flat noses, small oblique eyes, thick lips, and a scantly beard, as they continually thin it by plucking out the hairs by the roots. Their ears are very large and prominent, their hair black, and their complexion of a
reddish or yellowish brown; but that of the women is fair; and of a healthy ruddiness; they are extremely quick of sight and apprehension, are naturally easy and cheerful, and scarcely ever experience either care or melancholy. They are very hospitable to each other, and likewise to strangers who put themselves under their protection. Their dress consists of a flat yellow bonnet, the whole head being shaven except one lock of hair; wide trousers; a vest of light stuff, with narrow sleeves; and the girdle which supports the sabre, knife, and implements for smoking tobacco: the outer garment is of cloth, with wide sleeves, and linen is wound about the feet, over which are drawn buskins of leather, generally black or yellow: shirts are unknown. The dress of the women is the same with that of the men, only that, instead of the outer garment, they wear a gown without sleeves. They have generally long hair, which they plait in tresses.

The various tribes of these Tartars in general form wandering hordes, and live in tents, which they remove from one place to another, according as the temperature of the seasons, or the wants of their flocks require. They are naturally enemies of labour, and will not take the trouble of cultivating the earth; it even appears that they neglect agriculture from pride. When the missionaries asked them why they did not cultivate at least some gardens, they answered, that "the grass was for beasts, and beasts for man." During the summer, they live only on milk, which they obtain from their flocks, using indiscriminately that of the cow, mare, ewe, goat, and camel.

The Moguls are extremely dextrous in handling the bow and arrow, managing their horses, and hunting wild beasts. Polygamy is permitted among them, but they generally have only one wife. They burn the bodies of their princes and chief priests, with many solemnities, and bury the ashes on eminences, where the tombs are sometimes walled round, and ornamented with a great number of small standards.

The whole nation of the Moguls, under the Chinese government, may be divided into four principal tribes; the Moguls, properly so called, the Kalkas, the Ortous, and the Eluts, of which branch are the Tartars of Kokonor; all of whom have a great resemblance in their character and manners.

The Manchews are not very different in their habits and manners from the Moguls. They have, however, towns and villages, and appear to be much more civilized, especially since their conquest of China; though the Chinese retain a great antipathy against their conquerors, whom they despise as a filthy race of Savages.

Cities, chief towns.] The capital of the whole country of the Manchew Tartars is Chin-yang, or as it is called by the Tartars, Mogden. It stands on an eminence, and is nearly three leagues in circumference. It contains a palace for the emperor, magazines of arms, and storehouses. Kirin, the chief town of the department of that name, is the residence of a Manchew general, who is invested with all the powers of a viceroy; he has the inspection of the troops, and authority over all the mandarins. Ningouto, which is considered as the cradle of the present imperial family, is surrounded by a wooden wall, composed of plain stakes driven into the earth, which touch each other, and are twenty feet high. Without this palisado there is another of the same kind, which is a league in circumference, and has four gates corresponding to the four cardinal points.

The Moguls, properly so called, as has been observed, have no towns; but in the country of Little Bucharia, possessed by the Eluts, or Kalmucks, who were subjected by the Chinese in 1759, is the city of Cashgar, formerly the capital of a kingdom nearly corresponding in its limits with Little Bucharia, and which still retains some trade; Yarkand, situate on a river of the same name; and Turfan, the capital of a detached principality, once much frequented by merchants in their way from Persia to China.

Government, laws.] The departments of the country of the Manchew Tartars are governed by viceroys appointed by the emperor of China. The wandering tribes of Moguls are governed by khanas, or particular princes, who are independent of each other, but all subject to the authority of the Chinese emperor. When the Manchews subdued China, they conferred certain titles on the most powerful of the Mogul princes, and assigned them revenues, but far inferior to those of the Manchew lords at Peking. The emperor settled the limits of their respective territories, and gave them laws according to which they are at present governed. These tributary khanas have not the
power of condemning their subjects to death, nor of depriving them of their possessions: the cases of death and confiscation are reserved for the supreme tribunal established at Peking, for the affairs of the Moguls, to which every individual may appeal from the sentence of his prince, who is obliged to appear in person whenever he is cited.

TRADE.] The principal trade of the Manchews consist in ginseng, and pearls found in several rivers which fall into the Amur. This pearl fishery belongs to the emperor, but the greater part of the pearls are small, and not of a fine water: a kind much more beautiful are found in other rivers of Tartary, which flow into the Eastern sea. The companies and merchants who engage in this fishery must every year give to the emperor, for permission to fish, 1140 pearls; this is the fixed tribute, and they must be pure and without blemish, or they are returned, and others required in their stead.

The sable skins of this country are highly valued, because they are reckoned to be very strong and durable. The most beautiful skins are set apart for the emperor, who buys a certain number of them at a stated price: the rest are sold at a high rate even in the country, where they are eagerly bought up by the mandarins and merchants.

The wandering tribes of Moguls know little of trade: they, however, exchange their cattle for cloth, silk, stuffs, and other apparel, and ornaments for themselves and their women.

RELIGION.] Many of the Tartar tribes profess the religion of the lamas, or that of Tibet, of which we shall give a further account in the description of that country. They frequently make pilgrimages in great numbers, from the distance sometimes of a thousand miles, to Putola and Teeshoo Loombo, to pay devout homage and bring offerings to the lama.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamanism, the professors of this religious sect believe in one Supreme God, the Creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his sight. But they also maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a great number of subaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who, nevertheless, generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villany, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence. Among all the Schamanes, women are considered as being vastly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after household affairs; and, in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Manchews is very copious, these Tartars being particularly nice with respect to the too frequent recurrence of the same sounds. It is said, likewise, to be very expressive, and it has names not only for the different species of dogs, but such as signify the age, colour, good or bad qualities of a dog, whether he has long hair or short hair, large ears or hanging lips, in all which, and many other cases, he has a distinct and very different name. In like manner a horse has a variety of names, signifying, in a single word, whether he be a restive horse, a run-away horse, a horse easily frightened, with what pace he goes, &c. This language is written in characters which represent sounds and not things, like those of the Chinese. M. Langlies, a member of the French Institute, has compiled a dictionary of the Manchew language, which he pronounces to be the most learned and perfect of the Tartar tongues, though not written till the seventeenth century, when the emperor appointed some literati to design letters after those of the Moguls.

HISTORY.] The different tribes which at present inhabit this extensive region, were formerly comprehended under the general name of Monguls, or Moguls, a war-like and formidable nation, whose sovereign, Zingis, or Jenghis Khan, about the thirteenth century, conquered the greater part of the north of Asia, seized on China on the one hand, and invaded Hindoostan on the other. The Tartars held possession of China
about a hundred years, but were expelled in 1368. The fugitives took different routes; some went towards the Eastern sea, and established themselves between China and the river Sagalian: the rest returned to their former country, where, intermixing with the Moguls that remained, they soon resumed their ancient manner of living. Those who settled towards the east, having found the country almost a desert, and without inhabitants, retained the customs which they had brought from China, and became known by the name of Manchew or Eastern Tartars.

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**TIBET.**

**EXTENT AND SITUATION.**

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<tr>
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<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
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<td>Breadth 500</td>
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**Boundaries.** Tibet is bounded on the north and north-west by the great desert of Cobi in Tartary; on the east by China; on the south by Assam and Birmah; and on the south-west and west by Hindoostan.

**Divisions.** This country is divided into Upper, Middle, and Lower Tibet. Upper Tibet is also called Nagari, and divided into the three provinces of Sangkar, Paurang, and Tamo. The provinces of Middle Tibet are Shang, Ou, and Kiang; those of Lower Tibet, Congbo, Kohang, and Takbo, or Bootan. The latter is an extensive country, usually considered as distinct from Tibet Proper.

**Name.** "The country of Tibet," says captain Turner, "is called by the inhabitants Pue, or Puckachoim, which is derived, as they told me, from Pue, signifying northern, and Koachim, snow; that is, the snowy region of the north." The Chinese call it Tsang. The origin of the name of Tibet (which in Bengal and the country itself is pronounced Tibbet or Tibri) is not known.

**Face of the Country.** Tibet at first view appears one of the least favoured countries under heaven, in a great measure incapable of culture. It exhibits only rocky hills without any visible vegetation, or extensive arid plains, promising full as little as they produce. Bootan, however, or the most southern part, has its mountains covered with verdure, and rich with abundant forests of large and lofty trees.

The mountains in which the Ganges has its source, are called those of Kenteisse: on the south are the mountains of Himma.

**Lakes.** The most considerable lake, with respect to dimensions, is that of Terkiri, which is about 80 miles in length, and 25 broad; but the most remarkable is that of Jamdro or Palté, which is a wide trench of about two leagues broad, surrounding an island of twelve leagues in diameter.

**Rivers.** The principal river of Tibet is the Burrampooter, which has already been described as a river of Hindoostan. The Ganges likewise has its source among the mountains of Tibet, as have also the Chinese rivers Huango and Kianku, the great river Mayhaung of Laos and Cambodia, and the Sardjoo or Gagra, which after a course of about 600 miles falls into the Ganges, near Chupra.

**Animals.** The variety and quantity of beasts of prey, flocks, droves, and herds of wild-fowl and game in Tibet, according to Mr Turner, are astonishing: in Bootan, he tells us, he met with no wild animals, except monkeys. The horses, cattle, and sheep of Tibet are of a diminutive size, as are most of the beasts of prey. The grunting ox, called by the Tibetans the yak, has been already described. The musk deer is a native of this country. This animal is about the height of a moderately sized hog; he has in the upper jaw two long tusks directed downwards, which seem intended to
serve him to dig roots, his usual food; the musk, which is only found in the male, is of a black colour, and formed in a little bag or tumor near the navel. These deer are deemed the property of the states and hunted only by the permission of government. In Tibet there is also a beautiful species of goats, with straight horns, which have, next the skin, and under the exterior coarse coat, a very fine hair, from which the valuable shawls of India are manufactured.

**CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.**] The climate of Tibet is cold in the extreme, from the severe effects of which the inhabitants are obliged to seek refuge in sheltered valleys, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. In the temperature of the seasons, however, a remarkable uniformity prevails, as well as in their periodical duration and return. In Bootan almost every part of the mountains and hills which is covered with the smallest quantity of soil, is cleared and adapted to cultivation; but in Tibet Proper, the nature of the soil prevents the progress of agriculture. Wheat, barley, and rice, are raised in Bootan.

**METALS, MINERALS.**] Bootan contains iron, and a little copper; and in Tibet Proper gold is found in quantities, and very pure; sometimes in the form of gold dust in the beds of rivers, and sometimes in large masses and irregular veins. There is a lead-mine about two days' journey from Treshoo Loomboo, which contains silver. Cin-nabar abounding in quick-silver, rock-salt, and tincal, or crude-borax, are likewise among the mineral productions of this country: the latter is found in inexhaustible quantities.

**NATURAL CURiosITIES.**] To the north of Tassiedon, Mr Sanders, who accompanied Captain Turner on his embassy, observed a singular rock projecting over a considerable fall of water, and forming in front six or seven hundred angular-semi-pillars of a great circumference, and some hundred feet high. Among the mountains of Bootan is a waterfall called Minzapeezo, which issues in a collected body, but descends from so great a perpendicular height, that before it is received in the thick shade below, it is nearly dissipated, and appears like the steam raising from boiling water.

**INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS.**] The people of Bootan and Tibet are much more robust and less swarthy than their southern neighbours of Bengal. Humanity, and an unnatural gentleness of disposition, says Mr Turner, are the constant inheritance of a Tibetan. Without being servilely officious, they are always obliging; the higher ranks are unassuming, the inferior respectful in their behaviour; nor are they at all deficient in attention to the female sex; but, as we find them moderate in all their passions, in this respect also, their conduct is equally remote from rudeness and adulation. A remarkable custom prevails in this country, directly contrary to the usual customs of the east, by which a woman is permitted to marry all the brothers of a family, without any restriction of age or numbers. The choice of the wife is the privilege of the eldest brother. The ceremonies of marriage are neither tedious nor intricate. The elder brother of a family, to whom, as has been observed, the choice belongs, when en- amoured of a damsels, makes his proposal to her parents. If his suit be approved, and the offer accepted, the parents with their daughter repair to the suitor's house, where the male and female acquaintance of both parties meet and carouse for the space of three days, with music, dancing, and every kind of festivity. At the expiration of this time the marriage is complete. The priests of Tibet, who shun the society of women, have no share in these ceremonies, or in ratifying the obligation between the parties. Mutual consent is their only bond of union, and the parties present are witnesses to the contract.

The Tibetans expose their dead bodies within walled areas, which are left open at the top, and have passages at the bottom to admit birds, dogs, and beasts of prey; no other funeral rites are performed but such as tend to facilitate the destruction of the body by the voracious animals, who are, as it were, invited to devour it. Some bodies are conveyed by the friends of the deceased to the summit of some neighbouring hill, where they are disjointed and mangled that they may become a more easy prey to carnivorous birds. The bodies of the sovereign lamas are, however, deposited in shrines prepared for their remains, which are ever after considered as sacred: those of the inferior priests are burnt, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal. An
annual festival is observed in Tibet, as in Bengal, in honour of the dead, which is celebrated by a general illumination.

Cities, Chief Towns, Edifices.] Lahassa, is considered as the capital of Tibet, and is situate in a spacious plain; the houses are not numerous, but they are built of stone, and are large and lofty. — The celebrated mountain of Putale, on which stands, the palace of the Dalai Lama, the high priest and sovereign of Tibet, is about seven miles to the east of the city.

Teeshoo Loomboo, or Lubrong, the seat of Teeshoo Lama, and the capital of that part of Tibet immediately subject to his authority, is, in fact, a large monastery, consisting of three or four hundred houses, inhabited by gylongs, a kind of priests, besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the sovereign pontiff, with the residences of the various subordinate officers, both ecclesiastical and civil, belonging to the court. It is included within the hollow face of a high rock, and has a southern aspect. Its buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories high, flat roofed, and crowned with a parapet, rising considerably above the rest.

"A Tibetan village," says Mr. Turner, "by no means makes a handsome figure. The peasant’s house is of a mean construction, and resembles a brick-kiln in shape and size more exactly than anything to which I can compare it. It is built of rough stones, heaped upon each other without cement, and on account of the strong winds that perpetually prevail here, it has never more than three or four small apertures to admit light. The roof is a flat terrace, surrounded with a parapet wall two or three feet high: on this are commonly placed piles of loose stones, intended to support a small flag, or the branch of a tree; or else as a fastening for a long line with scraps of paper, or white rags strung upon it, like the tail of a kite: this being stretched from one house to another, is a charm against evil genii, as infallible in its efficacy as horse-shoes nailed upon a threshold, or as straws thrown across the path of a reputed witch."

Government, Religion.] The government of this country is intimately connected with its religion, the civil authority, as well as the spiritual, being in the hands of the lamas, of whom the chief, called the Dalai Lama, or Grand Lama, is not only submitted to and adored by the Tibetans, but is also the great object of veneration among the various tribes of Tartars who roam through the vast track of continent which stretches from the banks of the Volga, to Corea, on the Sea of Japan. He is not only the sovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but, as superstition is ever the strongest where it is most removed from its object, the most remote Tartars absolutely regard him as the Deity himself. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worship and make rich offerings at his shrine: even the Emperor of China, who is a Manchew Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgments to him in his religious capacity, though the lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior lama, deputed as his nuncio, from Tibet. The opinion of those who are reputed the most orthodox among the Tibetans is, that when the grand lama seems to die either of old age or infirmity, his soul in fact only quits a crazy habitation to look for another younger, or better, and it is discovered again in the body of some child, by certain tokens known only to the lamas or priests, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the grand lama was an infant, which had been discovered some time before by the Teeshoo lama, who, in authority and sanctity of character, is next to the grand lama, and, during his minority, acts as chief. In the year 1783, when Mr. Turner went on his embassy into Tibet, the Teeshoo lama was in like manner an infant, under the guardianship of a regent; and Mr. Turner, in his account of his embassy, has given a curious and interesting relation of a visit which he was permitted to make to him. "Teeshoo lama," he tells us, "was at that time eighteen months old. He was placed, in great form upon his musum. On the left side stood his father and mother, and on the other the officer particularly appointed to wait upon his person. The musum is a fabric of silk cushions, piled one upon the other, until the seat is elevated to the height of four feet from the floor; a piece of embroidered silk covered the top, and the sides also were decorated with pieces of silk of various colours, suspended from the upper edge and hanging down. Though the little creature," says our au-
thor, "was unable to speak a word, he made the most expressive signs, and conducted himself with astonishing dignity and decorum. His complexion was of that hue which in England we should term rather brown, but not without colour. His features were good, he had small black eyes, and an animated expression of countenance; altogether, I thought him one of the handsomest children I had ever seen."

There are in this country numerous monasteries containing a great number of gyolongs or monks, who are enjoined sobriety, to forego the society of women, and confine themselves to the austere practices of the cloister. On the establishment of the monastery of Teeshoo Lombo, were reckoned no less than three thousand seven hundred of these gyolongs. There are also a number of nunneries, containing annees or nuns; and the strictest laws exist to prevent any woman from even accidentally passing a night within the limits of a monastery, or a man within those of a nunery.

"The religion of Tibet," says Mr. Turner, "seems to be the schismatical offspring of that of the Hindoos, deriving its origin from one of the followers of that faith, a disciple of Boodh, who first broached the doctrine which now prevails over the wide extent of Tartary. It is reported to have received its earliest admission into that part of Tibet bordering upon India (which from hence became the seat of the sovereign lamas), to have traversed over Manchew Tartary, and to have been ultimately disseminated over China and Japan. Though it differs from the Hindoo in many of its outward forms, yet it still bears a very close affinity to the religion of Brahma in many important particulars. The principal idol in the temples of Tibet is Mahamoonie (a name which in Sanscrit literally signifies great saint), the Budha or Boodh of Bengal, who is worshiped under these, and various other epithets, throughout the great extent of Tartary, and among all the nations to the eastward of the Burhampooter. In the wide extended space over which this faith prevails, the same object of veneration is acknowledged under numerous titles; among others he is styled Godama or Gowitzama in Assam and Ava; Samana in Siam; Amidia in Japan; Bhui in China; Budha or Boodh in Bengal and Hindoostan; Dherma Raja and Mahamoonie in Bootan and Tibet. Durga and Kali: Ganeish, the emblem of wisdom; and Cârîtkesh with his numerous heads and arms, as well as many other deities of the Hindoo mythology, have also a place in their assemblage of gods.

"The same places of popular esteem, or religious resort, as I have already hinted, are equally respected in Tibet and in Bengal: Praag, Cashi, Durgeedin, Sangor, and Jagarnaut, are objects of devout pilgrimage; and I have seen loads of the sacred water taken from the Ganges, travelling over those mountains (which, by the bye, contribute largely to its increase), upon the shoulders of men, whom enthusiasts have deemed it worth their while to hire at a considerable expense for so pious a purpose.

"As far as I am able to judge respecting their ritual or ceremonial, it differs materially from the Hindoo. The Tibetians assemble in chapels, and unite together in prodigious numbers to perform their religious service, which they chant in alternate recitative and chorus, accompanied by an extensive band of loud and powerful instruments; so that whenever I heard these congregations, they forcibly recalled to my recollection both the solemnity and sound of a Roman Catholic mass.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The manufactures of Tibet are principally shawls and woollen cloths. The exports from Tibet, which go chiefly to China and Bengal, consist of gold dust, diamonds, pearls, coral, musk, rock-salt, tincal, woollen cloths, and lamb-skins; in return for which are imported from China, silks, satins, gold and silver brocades, tea, tobacco, and furs of various kinds; and from Bengal the productions of that country and a variety of English commodities and manufactures.

"A very small quantity of specie, and that of a base standard," Mr. Turner informs us, "is current in Tibet. It is the silver coin of Nipaul, here termed indermille; each is in value about one-third of a sica rupee, and they are cut into halves, third parts, and quarters. This, which is the only money, serves to obtain the exigencies of life, but never enters into important contracts in the larger concerns of trade; in all such transactions, the equivalent is made in bullion, that is, tareena, talents, or masses of gold and silver, which bear a value in proportion to the purity and specific gravity of the metal."
L I G H T E R.

The language of Tibet is said to be radically different both from that of the Manchews and that of the Moguls. According to Mr Turner, it consists almost entirely of nasal and guttural sounds. The alphabetic characters are of two kinds, the uchem and the amin; the former of which is the character in which the sacred writings are preserved, and considerably resembles the Sanscrit; the other is the alphabet used for business and common correspondence. The vowels are indicated by marks or points, and the order of writing, contrary to the usual practice in the east, is from the left to the right. Printing with blocks of wood, in the manner of the Chinese, was known in Tibet from a very remote age.

History. The temporal government of Tibet, Mr Turner informs us, has not been always in the possession of the lamas. According to the letters of father Andradu, who was in Tibet in the year 1624, that country was then governed by a secular sovereign, named Tsang-pa-han, who was a zealous protector of the Christian religion, and seemed greatly inclined to embrace it. The Tartar history of the same period corroborates this circumstance, for it relates that this prince despised the lamas, abandoned the law of the god Fo, and sought every opportunity to destroy it. The dalai lama being highly incensed at not receiving the homage of Tsang-pa-han, formed a league with the Tartars of Kokonor, who under their prince or khan, named Kouchi, entered Tibet at the head of a powerful army, attacked Tsang-pa-han, defeated him, and took him prisoner, and some time after caused him to be put to death. To this Tartar prince the dalai lama was indebted for his sovereignty over all Tibet; for, far from appropriating to himself the fruits of his victory, Kouchi declared himself a vassal of the supreme chief of his religion, and satisfied with receiving from him the title of khan, which he had never before enjoyed. This prince, to continue his protection to the dalai lama, and secure to him the undisturbed possession of his new acquisitions, fixed his residence, accompanied by his troops, in the neighbourhood of Lassa. His sons had no great inclination to return to a country which their father had abandoned, but followed his example and remained in Tibet.

In 1642, the dalai lama sent ambassadors to Tsongte, father to the first emperor of the present dynasty of the Manchew Tartars, threw himself under his protection, and paid him tribute. Ten years after, the Dalai Lama himself went to Peking, and did homage to the emperor. He was loaded with honours, received a golden seal and magnificent presents from the emperor, and was confirmed in his title of Dalai Lama.

In 1693, the emperor Kanghi, being desirous of honouring the tsupa or minister of the dalai lama, declared him a prince, and granted him a golden seal. This minister, however, was far from being faithful to the interests of the emperor; he, on the contrary, secretly betrayed them to the ambitious views of Kaldan, the chief of the Eluts, who was the declared enemy of the Manchew Tartars. He even endeavoured to persuade the grand lama not to go to Peking when called thither by the emperor, and when the dalai lama died, he concealed his death. At length, however, all these intrigues were discovered in 1705, and Lats-khan, the chief of the Tartars of Kokonor, caused this perfidious minister to be put to death. Kanghi informed of the crimes which he had committed, approved of the punishment inflicted on him, and sent some of the grandees of his court to Tibet, to govern that country in conjunction with the Tartar prince, on whom he lavished many rich presents. He afterwards appointed a new dalai lama, who was the sixth who had borne that title.

In 1714, Tchongkar, the principal chief of the Eluts, made an irruption into Tibet, and carried away a great quantity of rich plunder in gold, silver, precious stones, silks, and other valuable things. The Tartar prince, who endeavoured to resist the invaders, was killed in battle, many of the lamas were put to the sword, and the monastery at Pootala was reduced to ashes. The dalai lama made application to the court of China for succours, and the emperor immediately sent a powerful army to his assistance, which drove the Eluts out of the country, re-established the dalai lama in his authority, and restored to the other lamas possession of their pagodas or monasteries.

Since 1759, when the Eluts were finally subdued by the late emperor of China, Kien Long, the Tibetans have had nothing to fear from the incursions of those Tartars. But in 1702, the mountaineers of Nepaul invaded and ravaged the country, plun-
dering the monasteries of their treasures, and robbing the mausolea of their lamas. The emperor of China, however, as soon as he had received information of this attack, sent an army to protect and avenge the lama. The Nipaiese were defeated, and could only obtain peace on condition of becoming tributary to China, and making a full restitution of all the plunder they had carried off. The Chinese at the same time established military posts on the frontiers of Tibet, which prevent all communication between that country and Bengal, as the Chinese guard them with their accustomed jealousy and caution, and the approach of strangers, even of the natives of Bengal and Hindoostan, is utterly prohibited.

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**INDEPENDENT TARTARY.**

**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

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<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
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<td>Length 1500</td>
<td>between 31 and 52 North latitude.</td>
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<td>Breadth 850</td>
<td>55 and 70 East longitude.</td>
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**DIVISIONS.** Independent Tartary consists of extensive tracts inhabited by the Kirguisian Tartars; the country of Kharism, and Great Bucharia, inhabited by the Usbec Tartars. Great Bucharia is divided into the provinces of Fergana, Sogd, Vash, Kot- tan, Balk, Gaur, and Kilan.

**BOUNDARIES.** These are, on the east, the mountains of Belur, which separate this part of Tartary from Little Bucharia, now subjected by the Chinese; on the south, the mountains of Gaur, which divide it from Persia; and the provinces of Candahar and Cabul, in Hindoostan; on the west, the Caspian sea, the river Ural and the Uralian mountains; and on the north the Russian dominions in Asia.

**MOUNTAINS, LAKES, RIVERS.** The principal mountains of this country are the Belur Tag, the ancient Imaus, and the mountains of Argjun and of Gaur. The most considerable lakes are that of Aral, about 800 miles in length and 70 in breadth; and that of Balcash, 140 miles long and 70 broad. The chief rivers are the Amo or Ghioon, the ancient Oxus; and the Sir or Sihoon, the ancient Taxartes; both take their rise in the mountains of Belur, and fall into the lake of Aral.

**INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, MANNERS.** The Kirguises or Kirguisian Tartars, who inhabit the northern part of this country, live in tents, and lead a wandering life. They consist of three hordes, called the great, lesser, and middle horde, each of which has its particular khan. They dwell also in portable huts, which they remove from time to time to different places in search of pasturage for their flocks and herds, which constitute their principal occupation. They have horses, camels, cattle, sheep, and goats; and it is asserted that some individuals in the middle horde have 10,000 horses, 300 camels 3 or 4000 cattle, 20,000 sheep, and more than 2000 goats. They have flat noses, small eyes, a sharp, but not a fierce look, and a frank and prepossessing air. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons, they have generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters, and they also smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children, all smoke and take snuff, the latter of which they keep in little horns fastened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the same manner as the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous train that accompanies them in their cavalcades, and the number of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and slaves.

The Usbec Tartars, who inhabit the southern parts of this country, resemble the other Tartarian tribes, except that they are in general more spirited and industrious,
They are addicted to predatory warfare, and frequently make sudden incursions into the Persian provinces; on which occasions, the women likewise bear arms, and accompany their husbands to the field. Many of these Tartars reside in tents in the summer, but take up their abode in the towns and villages in winter. Those of Balk are the most civilized, and carry on a considerable trade with Persia and Hindoostan. The native Bucharrians are of a fairer complexion than the Usbeccs, and of a more peaceable disposition.

**Climate, produce, soil.**] The climate appears to be extremely temperate and salubrious; and the soil, in the southern parts at least, very productive, the grass sometimes growing there to above the height of a man. Rice and other kinds of grain, as also exquisite melons, pears, and apples, are among the productions of Great Bucharria.

**Metals, minerals.**] Several parts of this country contain gold, silver, iron, copper, vitriol, and sal ammoniac. Rich quarries of lapis lazuli abound in Great Bucharria, and several kinds of valuable stones, particularly rubies, are found here; but the natives have neither skill nor industry to derive much advantage from the mineral riches of this country.

**Animals.**] The animals here are nearly the same as in Tibet and other surrounding countries. The chamois goats, and wild asses, are found among the mountains on the south and north.

**Cities, chief towns.**] Samarcand, situate on the southern bank of the river Sokd, was anciently the seat of empire of the celebrated Timur, or Tamerlane. It is fortified with strong bulwarks of earth: the houses are principally of hardened clay, though some are built with stone procured from quarries in the vicinity. There is a citadel or castle which is now almost in ruins. Bokhara, situate likewise on the Sokd, in the middle of the last century was a large and flourishing city, with a wall of earth, and several mosques built with brick. Balk, on the river Dehash, is also large and populous, with houses of brick and stone, and a palace or castle built almost entirely of marble, brought from the neighbouring mountains. Badakshan, on the river Amu, is a small town, but well built, and containing a considerable number of inhabitants.

**Antiquities.**] These consist of the ruins of edifices erected by Zingis Khan, Timur, and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either surrounded small towns, now quite demolished, or were designed for the defence of camps, forts, or castles, the vestiges of which are often to be discovered. Many of them are still in tolerable preservation. In the uncultivated tracts, occupied by the Kirguisians, are many relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have likewise been found, with several manuscripts neatly written, which have been carried to Petersburg. In 1720, there was found in Calmuc Tartary a subterraneous house of stone, some urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equestrian statue, an image of an oriental prince, with a diadem on his head, two women seated on thrones, and a roll of manuscripts, which was sent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Tibet.

**Religion.**] The religion of almost all the Tartars of these countries is the Mohammedan, according to the tenets of the sect of the Sunnis.

**Learning.**] The reader may be surprised to find this article in an account of the Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early descendants, Astracan and the neighbouring countries were the seats of learning and politeness, as well as of empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of that of those princes; and some remains of their taste in architecture are still extant, but in spots so desolate, that they are almost inaccessible. The encouragement of learning was the first care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues. The name of Uling Beig, the grandson of the great Timur, is well known to astronomers; and Abulgazi, the khan of Kharism, wrote the history of his country. Samarcand was a celebrated university for eastern science; and even in the last century was still a flourishing school for Mohammedan literature.

**Trade.**] The Kirguisians trade with the Russians, and exchange their horses, cattle, and sheep, for manufactures, principally clothing and furniture. Arms of every kind are refused them by the Russians, and they procure them, by the same kind of barter, from Great Bucharria, and the southern parts of the country.
The Tartars of Great Bucharia are a very commercial people; their caravans travel through a great part of Asia, and traffic with Persia, Tibet, China, and Russia. Their principal marts in the latter country are Tomsk and Orenburg.

GOVERNMENT.] The Kirguses and Usbecs are subject to princes called khan, whose power is despotic over their several hordes and tribes. In Great Bucharia, the khan of Samarcand in the north, and the khan of Balk in the south, are the principal sovereigns of the country.

HISTORY.] Usbec Tartary was once the seat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite residence, of Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the spoils of India, and the eastern world.

The former, about the year 1200, made himself master of those regions which form at this day the Asiatic part of the Russian empire; and his son, Batou Sagain, conquered Southern Russia, and peopled it with Tartar colonies, which are now confounded or blended with the Russians. It was not until the time of Ivan III., who ascended the Russian throne in 1462, that the Russians were able to throw off the galling yoke of the Tartars. Ivan repeatedly defeated them, subdued the kingdom of Kasan, and other provinces, and made his name respected through all the neighbouring countries.

When the vast dominions of Zingis Khan fell into pieces, under his successors in the sixteenth century, the Mogul and Tartar hordes, who had formed one empire, again separated, and have since continued distinct.

The name of Tamerlane has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan; his defeat of the Turkish emperor Bajazet has been noticed in the history of that nation. The honour of being descended from him is claimed not only by all the khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Hindoostan himself.

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees. Sq. Miles.
Length 5300 between 37 and 190 East longitude. 3,650,000
Breadth 1800 50 and 78 North latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] The Russian dominions in Asia are bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east by the seas of Kamtschatka and Ochotsk; on the south by Chinese and Independent Tartary, Persia, and Turkey; and on the west by Russia in Europe.

DIVISIONS.] The governments of the Russian empire in general have already been enumerated: those which are in Asia, are Caucasus, Saratof, Simbirsk, Orenburg, Ufa, Kazan, Perm, Tobolsk, Kolhyvan, Irkutsk, to which is to be added the peninsula of Kamtschatka.

The three great governments of Tobolsk, Kolhyvan, and Irkutsk, are called by the general name of Siberia, from an ancient city named Sibir, which is said to have stood on the banks of the Irtilsh, near the present city of Tobolsk, and to have been the residence of the sovereigns of this part of Asia. The government of Tobolsk is divided into the two provinces of Tobolsk and Tomsk; and that of Irkutsk into the four provinces of Irkutsk, Nershinsk, Yakutsk, and Okotsk.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.] The government of Caucasia, and in general the southern parts of this extensive region are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. The summers are very dry, and from the end of July to the beginning of Oc-
tobber the air is pestered, and the soil sometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locusts. Mr Bell, who travelled with the Russian ambassador to China, represents some parts of Tartary as desirable and fertile countries, the grass growing spontaneously to an amazing height. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air is pure and wholesome; and Mr Tooke observes, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to an extreme old age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almost to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbage, radishes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but scarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit-trees to bear have hitherto been in vain; but there is reason to believe that industry and patience may at length overcome the rudeness of the climate. Currants and strawberries of several sorts are said to grow here in as great perfection as in the English gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here; but there are no bees in all Siberia.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of this country are the Ob or Oby, the largest in the Russian empire, the length of its course being 1900 miles; and the Yenissei, which has a course of about 1750. Both terminate in the Frozen Ocean. The other principal rivers are the Irigh, which falls into the Ob; the Lena; the Angora, which falls into the Yenissei; the Argun or Argoon, the boundary of the Russian and Chinese territory; the Selenga, and the Yailk.

In the southern parts of Siberia, near the confines of Chinese Tartary, is the lake or sea of Baikal, 350 miles long, and about 50 broad. There are also other lakes of less note.

ANIMALS.] These are camels, dromedaries, rein deers, bears, bisons, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe. Their horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy; as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astracan there is a bird called by the Russians, baba, of a grey colour, and something larger than a swan; he has a broad tail, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart, or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on seeing a shoe or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings, and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going ashore, he eats them, or carries them to his young. This bird is probably a species of the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of animals, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and clothes; and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, sables, and ermines, the skins of which are here superior to those of any part of the world. Horses and cattle are in great plenty.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountains of Asiatic Russia are the Uralian chain, which divides it from Russia in Europe; the mountains of Caucasus, those of Altai, called by the Chinese the Golden Ridge; and those of Nersinsk, or Russian Daouria.

METALS, MINERALS.] Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, jasper, and lapis lazuli. Asiatic Russia also produces sulphur, alum, sal ammoniac, vitriol, nitre, and natron, in abundance.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among these may be enumerated the extensive desert levels called Steppes, which extend several hundred miles, with no appearance of a mountain, and scarcely of a hill. They contain in many places salt lakes, and in others, productive tracts, capable of cultivation. The peninsula of Kamtchatka abounds in volcanos, of which, however, only three have, for several years past, produced eruptions.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] The population of Asiatic Russia, notwithstanding its vast extent, is not estimated at more than three millions and a half, or four millions. The inhabitants of this part of the Russian empire are composed of many different nations, principally Tartar tribes, some of whom now live in fixed houses and villages, and pay tribute like other subjects. Till lately they were not admitted into the Rus-
sian armies, but now they make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their ancient habits, and live a wandering life. Both sides of the Volga are inhabited by Tcheremises and Morduars, a peaceable industrious people. The Bashkirs are likewise fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kazan to the frontiers of Siberia. The wandering Kalmucks occupy the rest of the tract to Astracan and the frontiers of the Usbeks; and, in consideration of certain presents which they received from the sovereigns of Russia, they serve in their armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The character of the Tartars of Kazan may serve for that of all the Mohammedan Tartars. Very few of them are tall, but they are generally straight and well made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion, rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Kazan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and schoolmaster, though some of these priests and schoolmasters are not much skilled in the Arabic language. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kazan, Tobolsk, and Astracan, which are under the direction of the gagouns, or high-priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript in the huts of the boors; and their merchants, besides what those little libraries contain, are pretty extensively acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states, and with the antiquities of each. Such as choose to make a progress in theology, enter themselves into the schools of Bucharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kazan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterprising; but as they extend their connections by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kazan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England Morrocco leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Most of them also contain tanners, shoemakers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters.

In the city of Astracan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and several shops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Persians, Indians, Bucharians; and their manufactories of Morrocco leather, cotton, camelots, and silks, are in a very thriving state.

The Votiaks, who are a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the government of Kazan. Some of the Tottiaks are Christians, but great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The Ostiaks, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in subjection to Russia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their descendants are still reputed noble. These people divide themselves into different stocks or tribes, and they choose their chiefs from the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes. They are entirely unacquainted with the use of letters, and are extremely ignorant.

The Tchouvashes dwell along the two sides of the Volga, in the governments of Kazan and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages of huts, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage-ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off
her husband’s boots. The husband exercises a lordly authority over the wife, and she is obliged to obey all his commands without reply.

The *Kalmuc* are a courageous tribe, and numerous; for the most part raw-boned and stout. Their visage is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuc may be easily known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose, and a short chin, the complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. Their clothing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chinese. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild; and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age, and though the flesh be putrid; so that in every horde the flesh-market has the appearance of a lay-stall of carrion: they eat likewise the roots and plants of their deserts. They are great eaters, but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both sexes smoke continually: during the summer they remain in the northern, and in the winter in the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

The *Volga* are rather below the middle stature. Their principal occupation is the chase, in which they discover much eagerness and address, using indiscriminately firearms, the bow, and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps, snares, and gins, for various kinds of game.

The *Kamtschadas* have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chase furnishes them with sables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in small carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtschadalian equipage, dogs, harness, and all, costs in that country near twenty rubies, or 4l. 10s. The Kamtschadas believed the immortality of the soul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian religion. They are superstitious to extravagance, and extremely singular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the Siberians were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. Kamtschatka is now considered as the most horrid place of exile in the vast empire of Russia; and hither some of the greatest criminals are sent.

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

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS.] Astracan, situate on an island formed by the river Volga, near its entrance into the Caspian sea, is a large and populous city, containing about 70,000 inhabitants. It is about a league in circumference, and surrounded by a wall. It contains twenty-five Russian churches and two convents, and is the seat of a Greek bishop. The Armenians, Lutherans, and Roman Catholics, have also their places of worship, and even the Hindoos a temple.

Orenburg, the capital of the government of Ufa, was built in 1738, by order of the empress Anne, at the conflux of the Or and Ural: but that situation being found inconvenient, the inhabitants were removed, and the town built lower down on the Ural in 1740. It is now a place of considerable trade.

Tomsk, the chief town of the province of that name, in the government of Tobolsk, is a place of considerable trade, and contains about 2000 houses and 8000 inhabitants.
Yakutsk, which gives name to a province in the government of Irkutsk, stands on the river Lena; it contains about five or six hundred wooden houses, and is defended by a wooden fort. Ochotsk, which gives name to another province of the same government, is a small town or rather station, situate at the mouth of the river Ochota, on a gulf of the Eastern ocean, called the sea of Ochotsk.

Tobolsk, the chief town of the government of the same name, and considered as the capital of all Siberia, is situate at the confluence of the Irtysh and the Tobol. It consists of two towns, called the upper and the lower town, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. It has a tolerably strong fortress. To this city are sent the Russian state-prisoners who are banished into Siberia.

Bolchetskoiostrag, which has the title of capital of Kamtschatka, and is the residence of the governor, contains about 500 houses pretty regularly built.

Irkutsk, the capital of the government of that name, situate on the Angara, near the lake Baikal, contains several churches and other edifices of stone, and about 12,000 inhabitants. It is a place of considerable commerce, the caravans which trade between Russia and China passing through it.

MANUFACTURES, COMMERCE.] There are manufactures of leather and isinglass at Astracan; and a considerable trade is carried on there in salt, produced in great quantities from the salt lakes and marshes in the vicinity of the Caspian sea; as also in fish procured from the same sea. The principal trade of Siberia is in sables and other furs, which are purchased with avidity by the Chinese, who in return bring tea, silk, and other commodities. The trade of the Kirgusses and Bucharians with Orenberg and Omsk has been mentioned in the account of Independent Tartary.

RELIGION.] Some of the Tartars since the Russians have been settled in their country have become converts to Christianity; but the greater part of them still remain attached to their old superstitions.

Tobolsk is a Greek archbishopric; Irkutsk and Nershink are bishops' sees.

ANTIQUITIES.] In the environs of Astracan the ruins of ancient Astracan are very visible; and the rubbish and ramparts of another respectable town still exist near Zaritzen, on the left shore of the Volga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itself into the above-mentioned river, are many superb monuments of the ancient city Bulgari, consisting of towers, mosques, houses, and sepulchres, all built of stone or brick. The oldest epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the most modern at least four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tscherentscham, a little river that runs into the Volga, are found ruins somewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are those of Boulim, an ancient and very considerable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the small town of Bilyairsk. In the fortress of Kazan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are so broad, that they serve at present for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn stone. Ascending the river Kazanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the strong ramparts of the old city of Kazan. Near the Ufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inscriptions, and several sepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen near Tobolsk, upon the Irtysh. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Ural are the ditches of the city Saratschik.

In many parts of Siberia, particularly near the river Jenissei, are stone tombs with rude sculptures of human faces, camels, horsemen with lances, &c. In these tombs are found human bones, as also the bones of horses and oxen, fragments of earthen ware, and various ornaments and trinkets.

HISTORY.] The Russians, though they had made some incursions into the interior parts of Asia as early as the middle of the fifteenth century, under the reign of John Basildes, or Ivan Vassilievitch, had no fixed establishments there till nearly the middle of the sixteenth; when Trogonoff or Strogonoff, a Russian merchant of Archangel, having found means to open a trade for furs with Siberia, the czar then on the throne, Ivan Vassilievitch II., to whom he disclosed the nature of his connexions, promised him protection, and in 1558 assumed the title of lord of Sibir or Siberia. Soon after,
Yermak, a chief of the Don Cossacks, being compelled by the progress of the Russian conquests to submit, or seek some distant place of refuge, retired with a number of his followers into Siberia, where, having defeated the Tartar khan of Sibir, he seized his capital, and made it his residence; but finding himself too weak to preserve his conquests, he applied to Russia for succours and protection, and sent a deputation to do homage to the czar as his sovereign. In the course of two or three years after, almost all the Cossacks were killed in repeated battles, and Yermac himself was drowned in attempting to leap into a boat. The Russians, however, after many conflicts, secured to themselves the possession of this extensive country; and by the middle of the seventeenth century had advanced to the river Amur, where they built some forts, which occasioned hostilities between them and the Chinese, who destroyed the Russian forts. These disputes were terminated by the treaty of Nershinsk, concluded in 1689, by which the Argoon was made the boundary of the Russian and Chinese territories. The limits of the former were somewhat enlarged in 1727. Kamtschatka was reduced under the power of the Russians about the year 1711.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO RUSSIA, IN ASIA.

The sea which separates the southern point of the peninsula of Kamtschatka from Japan, contains a number of islands in a position from north-north-east to south-south-west, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal of these islands are inhabited: but some of the little ones are entirely desert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other, in respect both to their situation and natural constitution. The forests in the more northern ones are composed of laryx and pines; those in the southern produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. The sea-otter appears on the coasts of all these islands, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of these islands have a great likeness to the Japanese, in their manners, language, and personal appearance; others very much resemble the Kamtschadales. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of the empire of Russia; but those of the south pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians discover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable; but adversity renders them timid, and prompts them to suicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an especial affection for those of their respective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they speak and pronounce it slowly. The men are employed in hunting, fishing for sea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of the wood that their forests produce, or that the sea casts upon their shores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern isles they sew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The southern islanders are more refined and polished than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles' feathers to pledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japanese utensils of metal and vanished wood, skillers, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all sorts of trinkets, and small wares.

Between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka, and the western coast of America, are several groups of islands, divided by Mr. Muller into four principal groups; the first two of which are called the ALEUTIAN ISLANDS.* The first group, which is called

* Mr. Cox observes, that "the first project for making discoveries in that tempestuous sea which lies between Kamtschatka and America was conceived and planned by Peter L." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expense of the crown; but, when it was discovered that the islands of that sea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally, and for some months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who constantly reside in them. Copper Island receives its name from the copper which the sea throws upon its coasts. The inhabitants of these islands are in general of a short stature, with strong robust limbs, but free and supple. They have lank black hair and little beard, flatish faces, and fair skins. They are for the most part well made, and of strong constitutions, suitable to the boisterous climate of their isles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian isles live upon the roots which grow wild, and sea-animals. They do not employ themselves in catching fish, though the rivers abound with all kinds of salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the skins of birds, and of sea-otters.

The Fox islands are so called from the great numbers of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap, and a fur coat which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps they place a small board like a skreen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea-bears, and ornamented with glass beads which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing parties they use a much more showy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they choose to dress their victuals, they make use of a hollow stone: having placed their fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who in case of an attack, or defence, mutually aid and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake in the repast.

Similar expeditions; and within a period of ten years, more important discoveries were made by those individuals, at their own private cost, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the Crown. The investigation of useful knowledge has also been greatly encouraged by the late empress of Russia; and the most distant parts of her vast dominions, and other countries and islands, have been explored, at her expense, by persons of abilities and learning; in consequence of which, considerable discoveries have been made.
of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and, whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but, when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion only, rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS consist of three large and a great number of small islands, which constitute together what has been called the Empire of Japan. They are situate about 150 miles east of China, between the 30th and 41st degree of north latitude, and between the 130th and 142d of east longitude. The largest of these islands is called by the Japanese Nippon or Nipon; but by the Chinese, Sippon and Jepuen, whence the European name of Japan. It is about 750 miles in length and 80 in breadth. The islands of which this kingdom consists are divided into seven departments, which again are subdivided into sixty-eight provinces, and these into six hundred and four districts.

The whole country consists almost entirely of mountains, hills, and valleys, and a plain of any extent is scarcely to be seen. One of the highest mountains is named Tusi: its summit reaches above the clouds, and it may be seen at the distance of many leagues. There are several volcanoes in these islands, one of which is constantly in a state of eruption. Gold is found in several parts; but it is prohibited to dig more than a certain stated quantity; nor can any mine of any metal whatever be opened and wrought, without the emperor's express permission. The heat in summer is very great, and would be insupportable, were not the air cooled by the sea breezes. The cold in winter is equally severe: the weather is in general changeable, and a great deal of rain falls in the rainy season, rendering the soil, which is most industriously cultivated, exuberantly fertile. There seems to be no peculiar animals in these islands. There are buffaloes, wolves, foxes, and dogs. The horses, cattle, and sheep, are very few for a country so populous. Its population, however, is not known with any degree of certainty; but if, as some accounts have stated, it maintains nearly half a million of men in arms, the number of inhabitants may be conjectured to be between twenty and thirty millions.

The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes and eye-brows are like those of the Chinese and Tartars, and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black.

The dress of the Japanese may with more propriety be termed national, than that of any other part of the world; as it not only differs from that of every other nation, but is uniform from the monarch down to the most inferior subject, similar in both sexes, and (which almost surpasses belief) has been unchanged for the space of 2500 years. It consists of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class of cotton stuffs. Women generally
wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff. Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plastered both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. The public buildings, such as temples and palaces, are larger, it is true, and more conspicuous, but in the same style of architecture; and the roofs, which are decorated with several towers of a singular appearance, are their greatest ornament.

The towns are sometimes of a considerable size, always secured with gates, and frequently surrounded with walls and fosses, and adorned with towers, especially if a prince or governor of a province keeps his court there. The town of Jeddo, the capital of the island of Nipon, and of the whole country, is said to be twenty-one hours’ walk in circumference, or about twenty-one French leagues, and may vie in size with Peking. The streets are straight and wide, and at certain distances divided by gates; and at each gate there is a very high ladder, from the top of which any fire that breaks out may be discovered, an accident that not unfrequently happens there several times in the week.

The furniture of Japan is as simple as the style of building. Neither cupboards, bureaus, sophas, beds, tables, chairs, watches, looking-glasses, nor any thing else of the kind, are to be found in the apartments. To the greater part of these the Japanese are utter strangers. Their soft floor mats serve them for chairs and tables. A small board, about twelve inches square, and four in height, is set down before each person in company at every meal, which is served up in one dish only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture; they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor stoves; instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined on the inside with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in some manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger, in their houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly; every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which constant and daily use is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations between equals abound also with civility and politeness; to this children are early accustomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are seldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and manufactures flourish here; though as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we see in Europe.

The islands of Japan are governed by a despotic sovereign called the Kubo; besides whom there is a spiritual or ecclesiastical emperor called the Dairi. The veneration entertained for the latter is little short of the honours paid to their gods. He seldom goes out of his palace, his person being considered as too sacred to be exposed to the air, the rays of the sun, or the view of the common people. He is brought into the world, lives, and dies, within the precincts of his court; the boundaries of which he never once exceeds during his whole life. His hair, nails, and beard, are accounted so sacred that they are never suffered to be cleansed or cut by day-light; but this must be done by stealth, during the night, whilst he is asleep. His holiness never eats twice off the same plate, nor uses any vessel for his meals a second time: they are immediately broken to pieces after they are used, to prevent their falling into unhallowed hands. He has twelve wives, only one of whom, is styled empress. He confers all titles of honour; but the real power of government is exercised by the kubo. The Japanese are gross idolaters, and so irreconcilable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European nation with whom they now trade,
pretend themselves to be no Christians; and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. But notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous, in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasaki, in the island of Dezima, is the only port they are suffered to enter. The Japanese trade with no foreign nation but the Dutch and Chinese; and in both cases with companies of privileged merchants. According to Thunberg, however, a late traveller to Japan, the trade of the Dutch to that country, even in time of peace, was become so inconsiderable in 1777, that the Company only employed in it two ships. Formerly, as they paid there no duty either on their exports or imports, they were accustomed to send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintzes, cottons, stuffs, and trinkets. The Japanese are excellent workmen in iron and copper; their manufactures of silk and cotton yield to those of no eastern country; the excellence of their lacquered or japanned ware is well known; and their porcelain is deemed superior to that of China.

The island of FORMOSA is situate to the east of China, near the province of Foo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, from south-east to north-west. This is a very fine island and abounds in all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are Chinese, or at least have adopted their manners and habits.

The Chinese have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in these seas, among which, that of AINAN is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth. It is distant only twelve miles from the main land of the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a shy and timid people, and live in the most unhealthy part of the island; the coast and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

The LADRONE islands, of which the chief is Guam (in north latitude 14, east longitude 140) are about twelve in number. Their name signifies the island of robbers, the natives, when they were first discovered by Magellan, or Magalhaens, being, like most other savages, much addicted to pilfering. These islands were then, it is said, very populous; Guam, which is about forty leagues in circuit, having thirty thousand inhabitants. Lord Anson, in his voyage round the world, landed at one of them (Tinian) where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

The PHILIPPINES are said to be 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese Sea (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles south-east of China, of which Manila, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethio-

pians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintados, or painted people, and Mestes, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards, in the reign of Philip II, from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the islands and ports of the East Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, inMexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird saligan affords that dissolving jelly which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprisingly in these islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted here, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxurian-
cy of the soil are almost incredible. The tree amct supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields clear water enough for a draught; this abounds in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy.
at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom never was paid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands, particularly Mindanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultans. The sultan of Mindanao is a Mohammedan.

Though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanoes.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the Spice or Clove Islands, are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty-five leagues to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon bread made of sago. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities; which are monopolised by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants, lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of them, though not more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

The BANDA, or Nutmeg Islands, are situate between 127 and 128 degrees of east longitude, and between four and five south latitude. Banda, or Lantor, is not more than eight miles in length, and five in breadth. The names of the other islands of this group are Rossigen, Nera, Gonong, Way, and Rohn. These islands were all subject to the Dutch, but were taken by the English in 1796, at which time their annual produce was about 163,000 pounds of nutmegs, and 46,000 pounds of mace. The nutmeg-tree grows to the size of a pear-tree, the leaves resembling those of the laurel, and bears fruit from the age of ten to one hundred years. The great nutmeg harvest is in July and August.

AMBOYNA. This island is, in some respects, the most considerable of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situate in the Archipelago of St Lazarus, between the third and fourth degrees of south latitude, 120 leagues to the eastward of Batavia. It is about 70 miles in circumference. When the Portuguese were driven off this island, the trade of it was carried on by the English and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter, in first torturing and then murdering the English, and thereby engrossing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten. This tragical event happened in 1622. Amboyna was taken by the English, with the other spice islands, in 1796; but they were all restored by the treaty of Amiens in 1802.

The island of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is situatet under the equator, between the island of Borneo and the Spice Islands, at the distance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long and 200 broad. This island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief productions are pepper, and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have a fortification on this island; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom resides in the town of Macassar. In this, and indeed in almost all the Oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their security against venomous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chinese. Their port of Jampoden is the most capacious of any in that part of the world.

GILLOLO, situate likewise under the equator, is about 220 miles long and 40 broad, produces rice and sago, but no spices, though it lies so near the spice islands. It is inhabited by a fierce and savage race of people.

CERAM is about 190 miles long and 40 broad. The Dutch have a fort here; and
have destroyed almost all the clove-trees on the island, to enhance the value of those of
the other islands.

The Sunda Islands are situate in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120
degrees of east longitude, and between eight degrees north, and eight degrees south lati-
titude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Ballay, Lamboe, Banca,
&c. The three first, from their great extent and importance, require to be sepa-
ately described.

Borneo is 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and, till New-Holland was discovered
to be an island, was considered as the largest in the world. The inland part of the
country is marshy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in
the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the
tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang is a native of
this country, and is thought of all irrational beings to resemble a man the most. The
original inhabitants live in the mountains, and make use of poisoned darts; but the sea
coast is governed by Mohammedan princes. The chief port of this island is Benja-
Massen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

Sumatra has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java on the south-
east, from which it is separated by the straits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal
parts by the equator, extending five degrees and upwards north-west of it, and five on
the south-east; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This island produces so much
gold that it has been thought to be the Ophir* mentioned in the scriptures; but Mr
Marsden, in his late history of the island, thinks it was unknown to the ancients.—Its
chief trade with the Europeans is in pepper. The English East-India Company have
two settlements here, Bencoolen and Fort Marlborough, from whence they bring their
chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mohammedan princes
who possess the sea-coasts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and the
natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the same with those of the adjacent
islands.

Rain is very frequent here; sometimes very heavy, and almost always attended with
thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are several volca-
noes on the island. The people who inhabit the coast are Malays, who came hither
from the peninsula of Malacca; but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different
people, and who have hitherto had no connection with the Europeans. Their language
and character differ much from those of the Malays; the latter using the Arabic char-
acter. The people between the districts of the English company and those of the
Dutch at Palimban, on the other side of the island, write on long narrow slips of the
bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the
left hand to the right, contrary to the custom of other eastern nations. These inhabi-
tants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in small villages called
Doossans, independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them
have laws, some written ones, by which they punish offenders, and terminate disputes.
They have almost all of them, and particularly the women, large swellings in the throat,
some nearly as large as a man's head, but in general as big as an ostrich's egg, like the
goiitres of the Alps. That part of this island which is called the Cassia country, is well
inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Suma-
tra in language, manners, and customs. They have no king, but live in villages inde-
pendently of each other, and generally at variance with one another. They fortify
their villages very strongly with double fences of camphor-plank, pointed, and placed
with their points projecting outwards; and between these fences they place pieces of
bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewise pointed, which are concealed by the grass, but
which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take
prisoners, they put to death and eat; and their skulls they hang up as trophies in the
houses where the unmarried men and boys eat and sleep. They allow of polygamy: a

* There is a mountain in the island which is called Ophir by the Europeans, whose summit, above
the level of the sea, is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriff by 577 feet.
man may purchase as many wives as he pleases; but their number seldom exceeds eight. All their wives live in the same house with the husband, and the houses have no partition; but each wife has her separate fire-place. It is in this country that most of the cassia sent to Europe is produced. The cassia tree grows to fifty or sixty feet in height, with a stem of about two feet in diameter, and a beautiful and regular spreading head. Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the island of ENGANHO, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers which entirely surround it. It is inhabited by naked savages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and speak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring islands.

The greatest part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch; who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is BATAVIA, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of six degrees south, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furnished with one of the finest harbours in the world. The town itself is built in the manner of those in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and surrounded with regular fortifications; but its suburbs are said to be ten times more populous than itself. The government here is a mixture of eastern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a splendour superior to that of any European potentate, except upon some solemn occasions. This city is as beautiful as it is strong; and its fine canals, bridges, and avenue, render it a most agreeable residence. The description of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the suburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almost every nation in the world: the Chinese residing in this island were computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarously massacred, without the smallest offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This massacre was too unprovoked and detestable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, sent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of since. A Dutch garrison of 3000 men constantly resides at Batavia; and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the island, and the neighbourhood of the city.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR islands. These islands lie at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, and furnish provisions, consisting of tropical fruits and other necessaries, for the ships that touch there. They are otherwise too inconsiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmless inoffensive people.

CEYLON. This island, though not the largest, is thought to be, by nature, the richest and finest island in the world. It is situated in the Indian Ocean, near cape Comorin, the southern extremity of the Hither Peninsula of India, being separated from the coast of Coromandel by a narrow strait, and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The natives call it, with some show of reason, the terrestrial paradise; and it produces, besides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, silk, tobacco, ebony, musk, crystal, salt-petre, sulphur, lead, iron, steel, copper; besides cinnamon, gold and silver, and all kinds of precious stones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fish abound here. Every part of the island is well wooded and watered; and besides some curious animals peculiar to itself, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, especially if spotted; but several noxious animals, such as serpents and ants, are likewise found here. The chief commodity of the island is its cinnamon, which is by far the best in all Asia. Though its trees grow in great profusion, yet the best is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, late the chief settlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle part of the country is mountainous and woody, so that the rich and beautiful valleys were left in the possession of the Dutch, who had in a manner shut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which stands on a mountain in the middle of the island, so that he had scarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The descendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglasses; who, though idolaters, value themselves upon maintaining their ancient laws and customs.
They are, in general, a sober inoffensive people; and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portuguese, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to observe, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this island, has two (if not three) barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the best; and the body of the tree, which, when stripped, is white, serves for building, and other uses. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious island to defend them against the Portuguese, whom they expelled and afterwards monopolised it to themselves. In January 1782, Trincomale, the chief sea-port of the island, was taken by the English, but soon afterwards retaken by the French, and restored to the Dutch by the following treaty of peace. In August 1795, it was again taken by the English, to whom it was confirmed by the treaty of Amiens, and in whose possession it still remains.

The MALDIVES. These are a vast cluster of small islands or little rocks just above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly resorted to by the Dutch, who carry on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of small shells, which go, or rather formerly went for money, upon the coasts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medical capacity. "Of this tree (says a well informed author) they build vessels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, masts, sails, rigging, anchors, cables, provisions, and firing, are all from this useful tree."

We have already mentioned BOMBAY, on the Malabar coast, in speaking of Hindoostan. With regard to the language of all the Oriental islands, nothing certain can be said. Each island has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chinese, Portuguese, Dutch, and Indian words, are so frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in those matters, to know the radical language. The same may be almost said of their religion; for though its original is certainly pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mohammedan, Jewish, Christian, and other foreign superstitions.

AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third Grand Division of the Globe, in shape bears some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean; and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez: and its utmost length from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 south latitude, is 4,900 miles; and the broadest part, from Cape Verd, in 17-20 degrees west longitude, to Cape Guardafui, near the straits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 east longitude, is 4,500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divides it from Asia; on the south by the Southern Ocean; and on the west by the great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greater part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the rays of the sun, from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe and Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect...
to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains; and it is generally never found but on the tops of the highest mountains. The natives in these scorching regions would as soon expect that marble should melt, and flow in liquid streams, as that water, by freezing, should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and, ceasing to flow, become like the solid rock.

The most considerable rivers in Africa are the Gambia, which falls into the Atlantic or Western Ocean at Cape St Mary, and is navigable for ships of 150 tons burden, five hundred miles from its source; the Senegal, which rises about a hundred miles east of the Gambia, and falls, likewise, into the Atlantic Ocean, about eighty miles north of Cape Verdi after running a much longer course. The Niger, which rises about ninety miles to the east of the head of the Senegal, and runs eastward *, by Tombuctoo, House, and Cashno, terminating, as is supposed, in some lakes farther to the eastward; and the Nile, which, dividing Egypt into two parts, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia. The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the Western Ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt;—it had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit; on which account the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders;—the mountains of the Moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monomotapa or Moreanga, and which are still higher than those of Atlas; those of Sierra Leone, or the Mountain of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These latter were styled by the ancients the Mountains of the God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a sugar loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes or promontories in this country are Cape Verde, so called because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy ground;—it is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa— and the Cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1489, and discovered the passage to Asia. This is the southern extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English,

* This river has long been an object of research and dispute with respect to its origin and course. According to Mr Luca's communications to the African Association, "the rise and the termination of the Niger are unknown, but the course is from east to west." He adds, "so great is its rapidity, that no vessel can ascend its stream; and such is the want of skill, or such the absence of commercial inducements, among the nations which inhabit its borders, that, even with the current, neither vessels nor boats are seen to navigate. That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger should refuse to profit by its navigation, may justly surprise the traveller; but much greater is his astonishment, when he finds that even the food which the bounty of the stream would give, is uselessly offered to their acceptance; for such is the want of skill, or such the settled dislike of the people, to this sort of provision, that the fish, with which the river abounds, are left in undisturbed possession of the waters." (Proceedings of the African Association, p. 188-189.) It was also generally believed, that the Gambia and Senegal were branches of the Niger. All these reports are, however, fully disproved by the late discoveries of Mr Park, who reached the banks of the Niger, or as it is called by the natives, the Joliba, at Sego, the capital of Bangbarra, where he saw it "flowing slowly to be eastward." On the river were numerous canoes; and, proceeding farther, he tells us that he "passed a great many villages, inhabited chiefly by fishermen, who caught great plenty of fish, by means of long cotton nets, which they make themselves, and use nearly in the same manner as nets are used in Europe." Those who would see more concerning this celebrated river, and the different opinions and notices of ancient and modern geographers and travellers, relative to its rise, course, and termination, may consult the ample and ingenious disquisition on that subject, in Major Kennel's Geographical Illustration of Africa, subjoined to Mr Park's Travels.
and the French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentic ancient historians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, it should have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; and that it should be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm, sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandise. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things, delightful as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but also by the more civilized Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt, and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and, by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this, the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mohammedan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mohammedans, and Christians. The first are the more numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and these are generally black. The Mohammedans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews in the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.
Though we are little acquainted with the boundaries, and even with the names, of many of the inland countries of Africa, that Continent may be divided according to the following Table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nations</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Breadth</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>Chief Cities</th>
<th>Dist. and bearing from London</th>
<th>Diff. of time from London</th>
<th>Religion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morocco, Tunis, &amp;c.</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>219,400</td>
<td>Fez</td>
<td>1030 S.</td>
<td>0 24 bef.</td>
<td>Moham.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algiers</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>143,600</td>
<td>Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli</td>
<td>920 S. 920 SE. 1260 SE.</td>
<td>0 13 bef. 0 39 bef. 0 56 bef.</td>
<td>Moham.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barca</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>66,400</td>
<td>Polemeta</td>
<td>1440 SE.</td>
<td>1 26 bef.</td>
<td>Moham.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>140,700</td>
<td>Grand Cairo</td>
<td>1920 SE.</td>
<td>2 21 bef.</td>
<td>Moham.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bledulgerid</td>
<td>2500</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>485,000</td>
<td>Dara</td>
<td>1565 S.</td>
<td>0 32 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zara</td>
<td>3400</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>739,200</td>
<td>Tegessa</td>
<td>1800 S.</td>
<td>0 24 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negroiland</td>
<td>2200</td>
<td>840</td>
<td>1,026,000</td>
<td>Madinga</td>
<td>2500 S.</td>
<td>0 38 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>510,000</td>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>2700 S.</td>
<td>0 20 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nubia</td>
<td>940</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>264,000</td>
<td>Nubia</td>
<td>2418 SE.</td>
<td>2 12 bef.</td>
<td>M. &amp; Pag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abyssinia</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>378,000</td>
<td>Gondar</td>
<td>2880 SE.</td>
<td>2 30 bef.</td>
<td>Christians</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abex</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>160,000</td>
<td>Doncala</td>
<td>3550 SE.</td>
<td>2 36 bef.</td>
<td>Ch. &amp; Pag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loango</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>49,400</td>
<td>Loango</td>
<td>8300 S.</td>
<td>0 44 bef.</td>
<td>Ch. &amp; Pag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>172,800</td>
<td>St Salvador</td>
<td>3480 S.</td>
<td>1 0 bef.</td>
<td>Ch. &amp; Pag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>3,400</td>
<td>Loando</td>
<td>3750 S.</td>
<td>0 58 bef.</td>
<td>Ch. &amp; Pag.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benguela</td>
<td>430</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>64,000</td>
<td>Benguela</td>
<td>3900 S.</td>
<td>0 58 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mataman</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>144,000</td>
<td>No Towns</td>
<td>* * *</td>
<td>* *</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ajan</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>234,000</td>
<td>Brava</td>
<td>3702 SE.</td>
<td>2 40 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zanguebar</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>275,000</td>
<td>Melinda or Mozambiq.</td>
<td>4440 SE.</td>
<td>2 38 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monomotapa</td>
<td>960</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>222,500</td>
<td>Monomotapa</td>
<td>4500 S.</td>
<td>1 18 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monemugi</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>310,000</td>
<td>Chicova</td>
<td>4260 SE.</td>
<td>1 44 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sofola</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>97,000</td>
<td>Sofola</td>
<td>4600 SE.</td>
<td>1 18 bef.</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terra de Nat.</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>184,000</td>
<td>No Towns</td>
<td>* * *</td>
<td>* *</td>
<td>Pagans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caffraria or Hottentot</td>
<td>708</td>
<td>660</td>
<td>200,340</td>
<td>Cape of Good Hope.</td>
<td>5200 S.</td>
<td>1 14 bef.</td>
<td>Most stupid Pagans.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 square miles.
The principal Islands of Africa lie in the Indian Seas and Atlantic Oceans; of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISLANDS.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
<th>TOWNS.</th>
<th>Trade with or belong to.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Babel-Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Babel-Mandel</td>
<td>All Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td>Caulasia</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Comora Isles, ditto</td>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>Joanna</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar, ditto</td>
<td>168,000</td>
<td>St. Austin</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritius, ditto</td>
<td>1,840</td>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bourbon, ditto</td>
<td>2,100</td>
<td>Bourbon</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>St. Helena</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ascension, ditto</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td></td>
<td>Uninhabited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Matthew, ditto</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Thomas, Anaboa, Prince Island, Fernando</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde Islands, ditto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goree, ditto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canaries, ditto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Spanish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madeiras, ditto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Azores, or Western Isles, Lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>Angra, St. Michael</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We shall now proceed to describe particularly the more considerable countries of Africa, as far as they are known to Europeans, from the accounts of the latest travellers; beginning, as usual, from the west and north, with the States of Barbary.

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**THE STATES OF BARBARY.**

UNDER this head are included the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south by Taflet; and on the east, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded on other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the kingdoms of Morocco and Taflet. According to Dr Shaw, this country extends in length 490 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east; by the kingdom of Algiers on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the south; being 220 miles in length from north to south, and 170 in breadth from east to west.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by the country of the Beriberes; on the west, by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledul-
gerid, and the territory of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

The Barbary states form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal polity; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

ANIMALS. Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden.

But from the services of the camel they derive the greatest advantages. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journeys across the continent. The camel is, therefore, (says Mr Bruce) emphatically called the Ship of the Desert. He seems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to discharge. The driest thistle, and the barest thorn, is all the food this useful animal requires; and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without stopping, or occasioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to cross immense deserts, where no water is found, and countries not even moistened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power, at one watering-place, to lay in a store with which he supplies himself for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleasure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his stomach with the same effect as if he then drew it from a spring; and with this he travels, patiently and vigorously, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parching and never-cooling sands.

Their cows are but small and barren of milk. Their sheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, camaleons, and all kinds of reptiles, are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr Shaw (speaking of his travels through Barbary), the apprehensions we are under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment so very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges, quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird; but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

CLIMATE, SOIL; PRODUCE. The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, except in the months of July and August. These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their government, yet they are still fertile; not only in the above-mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and, by the report of the Europeans who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for the great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mohammedan law, and make free with excellent wines and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces salt-petre, and great quantities of excellent salt; and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS. Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 109,000
houses, whereas at present it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it be true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mohammedans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary states. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradesmen’s shops; and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisians are indeed exceptions to the other states of Barbary; for even the most civilised of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European states; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The women are handsome in their persons; and though the men are sun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate; nor are they less neat and elegant in their dress; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the same pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr Shaw; that Jezebel made use of when she is said (2 Kings, chap. ix. verse 30) to have painted her face: the words of the original being, that she set off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are sober, orderly, and clean in their persons, their behaviour complaisant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the city.

Tripoli was once the richest, most populous, and opulent of all the states on the coast; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are said to amount to between 400,000 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much the same with those of the Egyptians described, p. 676. The subjects of the Barbary states, in general subsisting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a prize at sea; they are, notwithstanding, far inferior to the English, and other European states, both in the construction and management of their vessels. They are, if we except the Tunisians, void of all arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor’s service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hospitable inoffensive people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of Arabic descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to lose, they are peaceable among themselves. The Moors are supposed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppressed by a handful of insolent domineering Turks, the refuse of the streets of Constantinople.

The dress of these people is a linen shirt, over which they tie a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and over that a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have slippers on their feet; and persons of condition sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and fancy silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houses consists of carpets and mattresses, on which they sit and lie. In eating, their slovenliness is disgusting. They are prohibited gold and silver vessels; and their meat, which they swallow by handfuls, is boiled or roasted to rags.

Natural curiosities.] We know of few or no natural curiosities in these countries, excepting the salt-pits, which in some places take up an area of six miles. Dr Shaw mentions springs found here, that are so hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.
AFRICA.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Mention has already been made of Morocco; the capital of that kingdom; but now almost in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the best accounts the common people live in a very slovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houses, and 107 mosques. The public baths are large, and handsomely paved with marble. The prospect of the country and sea from Algiers is very beautiful, the city being built on the declivity of a mountain; but, though for several ages it has braved some of the greatest powers in Christendom, it could make but a faint defence against a regular siege; and it is said that three English fifty-gun ships might batter it about the ears of the inhabitants from the harbour. The Spaniards, however, attacked it in 1775, by land and by sea, but were repulsed with great loss, though they had nearly 20,000 foot and 2000 horse, and 47 king's ships, of different rates, and 346 transports. In the years 1783 and 1784, they also renewed their attacks by sea to destroy the city and galleys; but, after spending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or destruction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a small island where there is a castle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the finest of all these states, contains the remains of many noble cities, some of them still in good condition. Tunis, built near the original site of Carthage, has a wall and fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houses are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods: but, like Algiers, it is distressed for want of fresh water; that of rain, preserved in cisterns, is chiefly used by the inhabitants.

The city of Tripoli consists of an old and new town, the latter being the most flourishing; but great inconveniences attend its situation, particularly the want of sweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coast, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of considerable trade, and the object of many bloody disputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Constantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the strongest cities of Numidia, being inaccessible on all sides excepting the south-west.

Besides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie scattered up and down this immense tract of country. The city of Fez, at present the capital of the kingdom so called, is said to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, besides merchants and foreigners. Its mosques amount to 500; one of them is magnificent beyond description, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is esteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, situated about two miles within the straits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, consort to Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the English what Gibraltar is now; and it must have been a most noble acquisition, had not the misunderstanding between the king and his parliament occasioned him to blow up its fortifications and demolish its harbour; so that, from being one of the finest cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fishing-town. Ceuta, upon the same strait, almost opposite to Gibraltar, is still in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, besieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houses: but the inhabitants are said to be rich, and tolerably civilised in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Gesula, form no part of the states of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their sovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious. Zaara is a desert country, thinly peopled, and almost destitute both of water and provisions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower subjects of these states know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be supplied with necessary utensils and manufactures; so that their exports consist chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, sword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and softer than
those of Turkey, though not so good in other respects. As they leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks of their own subjects. They have no ships that, properly speaking, are employed in commerce; so that the French and English carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist in elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and sandarac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca and Medina, and to the inland parts of Africa, whence they bring back great numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half of those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and, when detected, are seldom punished.

Military and Marine Force.] The king of Morocco, it is said, can bring into the field 100,000 men; but the strength of his army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and, being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks and cologlies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 5000 Moorish horse into the field; but, as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states maintain a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few years ago they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant ships belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships, from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

It has been thought surprising, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by these barbarians, who take the ships of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a subsidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwise than by supposing, first, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be their lord paramount: secondly, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers, and the rest of that coast, in possession of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would instantly carry their effects into the deserts and mountains, so that the benefit resulting from the conquest must be tedious and precarious.—Indeed, expeditions against Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards; but they were ill-conducted and unsuccessful, as before noticed.

Constitution and Government.] In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters: nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor
every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is seldom that they regard the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the caliphate government still continue; for, in places where no military officer resides, the mufti, or high-priest, is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand-signor to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mohammed. What has been said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey, who governs in the name of the grand-signor, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognized and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000l. a year, without greatly oppressing his subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand-signor is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance the dey is expected to take the advice a common council, which consists of thirty pashas. These pashas seldom fail of forming parties amongst the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills the place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life, and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

Revenues.] Those of Algiers have been already mentioned, but they are now said to be exceeded by those of Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendants, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mohammedan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He derives likewise considerable profits from the Negroland and other caravans, especially the slave-trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000l. a year. A detachment of the army of these states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

Antiquities.] The reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phoenician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the most curious remains of antiquity: but they lie scattered amidst ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some memorials of the Mauritian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidence of their ancient grandeur and populousness. These point out the old Julia Cœarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are still remaining, particularly at Manuba, a country-house of the bay, four miles from Tunis; but no vestige of its walls. The same is the fate of Utica, famous for the retreat and death of Cato; and many other renowned cities of antiquity; but so over-run is the country with barbarism, that their very sites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings, which remain in tolerable preservation. Besides
those of classical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the most stupendous magnificence, are likewise found in this vast tract; these were erected under the caliphs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was subdued by the Turks, or reduced to its present form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime.

Religion. The inhabitants of these states are Mohammedians; but many subjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern secastarist, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the caliphs. All of them have much respect for idiots; and, in some cases, their protection screens offenders from punishment for the most notorious crimes. The Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of these states are now promiscuously called (because the Saracens first entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors), have in general adopted the very worst parts of the Mohammedan religion, and seem to have retained only as much as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is punished with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the most unnatural crimes with impunity. All foreigners are allowed the open profession of their religion.

Language. As the states of Barbary possess those countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland countries, and even by some inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the sea-port towns, and maritime countries, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken; and seafaring people are no strangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spanish, &c. that is so well known, in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of Lingua Franca.

History. Under the Roman emperors, the states of Barbary formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandal and the Greek emperors, the caliphs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers, Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who, after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but were unsuccessful; and as observed, the inhabitants have in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were called sultans, and whose powers resembled that of the caliphate of the Saracens. They have been, in general, a set of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Mohuc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continual state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since: nor does the crown of Great Britain sometimes disdain, as in the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents.

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SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees. Sq. Miles.
Length 560} between 24 and 32 North latitude. 140,700.
Breadth 250} 29 and 34 East longitude.

Boundaries. It is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north; by the Red Sea, east; by Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the south; and by the Desert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, on the west.
The part of Lower Egypt, between the branches of the Nile and the Mediterranea, was anciently called the Delta, from the resemblance of its triangular shape to the Greek letter of that name. It is now called by the Arabs, Bahira and Rif.

**CLIMATE, AIR.**] It is observed by M. Volney, that during eight months in the year (from March to November) the heat is almost insupportable by an European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling, and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it."—The other months are more temperate. The southerly winds which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called poisonous winds, or the hot winds of the desert. They are of such extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body exposed to them can withstand their fatal influence. During the three days which it generally lasts, the streets are deserted; and woe to the traveller whom this wind surprises remote from shelter: when it exceeds three days, it is insupportable. Very frequently, the inhabitants are almost blinded with drifts of sand. These evils are remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

**MOUNTAINS, DESERTS, OASES.**] Egypt, to the south of Cairo, is a narrow valley through which the Nile flows, and shut in by mountains, beyond which, on both sides, but especially on the west, are vast sandy deserts. In some parts of these deserts, at the distance of one hundred miles or more to the west of the Nile, are small fertile spots of cultivated land, situated like islands in the midst of an ocean of sand: they are called Oases, the name by which they were known to the ancient Greeks; and by the Arabs Elwah. Those with which we are now acquainted are in number three; the Great Oasis, in lat. 26 deg. 30 min. N.; the Lesser Oasis, about 40 miles to the north of the former; and the Oasis Siwah, in lat. 29 deg. 12 min. N. lon. 44 deg. 54 min. East. The Great Oasis is said to be twenty-five leagues in length, and four or five in breadth. That of Siwah was visited by Mr Browne in 1792: it is about six miles long, and four and a half or five wide. A large proportion of this space is filled with date trees; but there are also pomegranates, figs, olives, apricots, and plantains, and the gardens are remarkably flourishing. A considerable quantity of rice is cultivated here. This has been supposed to be the Oasis where the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon anciently stood. Mr Browne found here the ruins of an edifice which appeared to be the work of the ancient Egyptians, as the figures of Isis and Anubis were conspicuous among the sculptures. Here are also catacombs, or ancient places of sepulture. This Oasis has since been visited by Mr Horneman, who travelled under the patronage of the African Society. He observed the ruins which had been discovered by Mr Browne; and from a comparison of the observations of both these travellers with the accounts of ancient authors, major Rennell seems to entertain no doubt that this is the true situation of that celebrated temple.

**SOIL AND PRODUCE.**] Whoever is in the least acquainted with literature, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain (little falling in that country), but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia; and the annual rains fall there, viz. from the latter end of May to September, and sometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks, or mounds, which confine it, are cut by the Turkish pasha, attended by his grandees; but according to Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is led into what they call the khali**"}, or
grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and, in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantains, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest-months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and of cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants), one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadruped, producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

Among the plants of Egypt, should also be mentioned the papyrus, of which the ancients made their paper, though their mode of preparing it is now unknown; and the lotus, a kind of water-lily, abounding in the Nile. The pith of the papyrus is said to be a nourishing food.

The Egyptian mode of hatching chickens in ovens is very curious, and has been practiced in Europe with success. Not less extraordinary and ingenious is the manner of raising and managing bees in that country. When the verdure and flowers fail in one part of Egypt, the proprietors of bees put their hives on board of large boats, each marking his own hive. The boatman then proceeds with them gently up the river, and stops with them wherever he perceives flowery meadows. The bees swarm from their cells at break of day, and collect honey, returning several times loaded with what they have obtained, and in the evening re-enter their hives, without ever mistaking their abode.

METALS, MINERALS.] Egypt appears not to be productive of any metals. The mountains contain various kinds of marbles, as porphyry, the celebrated verde antico, or green marble, with white and dark spots; and many valuable gems, as the emerald, topaz, chalcedony, onyx, &c.

RIVERS.] The only river of this country is the celebrated Nile, which is formed by the junction (in the country of Sennar, between Egypt and Abyssinia) of two great rivers, one of which, called the bahr el azrek, or the blue river, rises in Abyssinia, where its source is honoured as the head of the Nile, and will be described in our account of that country. The other river, which, as being the longest and largest stream, is rather to be considered as the true Nile, is called the bahr el abiad, or the white river, and rises at a place named Donga, about ten days journey south of Darfur, or the country of Fur, and twenty days journey from the confines of Bornou, among the gebel el cumri, or mountains of the moon. Donga, according to Mr Browne, lies in about 7 degrees of north latitude, and 25 of east longitude.—The whole length of the course of the Nile may be estimated at about 2,000 miles.

LAKES.] In the northern part of Egypt, or Lower Egypt, are several lakes, the largest of which is the lake of Menzala, which is separated from the Mediterranean only by an extremely narrow ridge of land, and communicates with that sea by one or two outlets. It is sixty miles long, and from two to twelve broad. The lake of Berelos, which adjoins in like manner to the Mediterranean, between Damietta and Rosetta, is thirty miles long, and about ten broad. The lake of Kerun, or Birket el Kerun, forty miles to the south-west of Alexandria, is thirty miles in length, and about six in breadth. The ancient lake of Marcotis is now dry.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] Among the cities of Egypt, Alexandria, as one of the most ancient, commercial, and best known to Europeans, may justly claim to be first mentioned. It is situate on the Mediterranean, in the most westerly part of Egypt, and was once the emporium of the world; and, by means of the Red Sea, furnished Europe, and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is

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famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary seaport, known by the name of Scanderboon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios, and the like buildings, erected within their ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Cairo, Kahira, or, as it is called by the Arabs, Masr, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air and narrow streets. It cannot, according to Mr Browne, be estimated to contain less than 300,000 inhabitants. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles in circumference. This castle is said to have been built by Saladin; at the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph’s well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they show granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity; but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shown in Old Cairo; but Norden suspects it to be a Saracen work; nor does he give us an high idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the banks of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Giza, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Christians of Cairo practice a holy cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers mentioned, p. 677. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing-camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor; the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and, being pried all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing whenever they hear it.

The other towns of note in Egypt are, Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Seyd, on the west bank of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most capital antique curiosity that is now extant; and Cossire, on the west coast of the Red Sea. The general practice of strangers who visit those places, is to hire a janissary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small town, and gives name to the isthmus that joins Africa with Asia.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects, which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade.

Animals. Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, those people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river-horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is found in Upper Egypt. Tigers, hyænas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camel, a little animal something resembling a lizard, which occasionally changes colour, especially when irritated, is found here, as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard,
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and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedges, and other covers, on the sides of rivers; and, pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprises the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces, likewise, great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong, that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

The cerastes, or horned viper, inhabits the greater part of the eastern continent, especially the desert sandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa: this is supposed to be the aspic which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully supplied by water, must then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baskets of figs must have come from thence, and the aspic, or cerastes, that was hid in them, from the adjoining desert, where there are plenty to this day.

Population, Inhabitants, Manners, Customs. As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs and other nations, we can say little upon this head with precision. Mr. Browne, who was in Egypt in 1792, estimates its whole population at two millions and a half. It seems, however, to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being slaves to the Turks. They are, however, still very numerous; but what has been said of the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The descenMents of the original Egyptians are an ill-looking, slovenly people, immersed in indolence, and are distinguished by the name of Copts: in their complexion they are rather sun-burnt than swarthy or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and, in general, they still pretend to be of that religion; but Mohammedanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, consist of Arabs, or their descendants, who are of a deep swarthy complexion: they in general live in tents, tend their flocks, and have no fixed place of abode. The Turks who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and indolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Copts, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and blue drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers; the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The women are not admitted into the society of men, even at table. When the rich are desirous of dining with one of their wives, they give her previous notice, when she accordingly prepares the most delicate dishes, and receives her lord with the greatest attention and respect. The women of the lower class usually remain standing, or seated in a corner of the room, while their husband is at dinner, and present him with water to wash, and help him at the table. The Copts are an acute and ingenious people; they are generally excellent accountants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those usual in Persia and other Asiatic countries. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling sleight-of-hand men.

Military Force.] This consists in the Mamlukes, some bodies of whom are cantoned in the villages, to exact tribute, and support authority. The greater part are assembled at Cairo. They amount to about 8,000 men, attached to the different bays, whom they enable to contend with each other, and to set the Turks at defiance.
Manufactures and commerce.] The Egyptians export great quantities of manufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts, calicoes, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, sena, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, calicoes, and other merchandises, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria; some of which are laden on account of the owners, but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mohammedan traders.

Revenues.] These are very inconsiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of the government. Some say that they amount to a million sterling, but that two-thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

Literature.] Though it cannot be doubted that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet, scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mohammedan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation, which is of general use. The caliphs, or Saracens, who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mohammed, made war, from conscience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The caliphs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar character. They bought up all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration, relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, or poetry; and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of caliphs, especially those who called themselves caliphs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning, therefore, possessed by the modern Egyptians, consists in arithmetical calculation for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of the Mohammedan religion.

Language.] The Coptic is the language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the caliphate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabesque, as it is called, is the current language; "the Coptic (says Mr Browne) may be considered as extinct: numerous and minute researches have enabled me to ascertain this fact. In Upper Egypt, however, they unknowingly retain some Coptic words."

Religion.] To what has been already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mohammedans are enthusiasts, and have among them their santos, or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and, without any ceremony, intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little. The Copts profess themselves to be Christians of the Greek church, but they embrace transubstantiation; in which, and other points, the catholics of Cairo think they approach their faith nearer than the Greeks. They have, however, adopted, from the Mohammedans, the custom of frequent prostrations during divine service, ablutions, and other ceremonies. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money, generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

Constitution and government.] The government of Egypt, before the late invasion by the French, was both monarchical and republican. The monarchical was executed by the pasha, and the republican by the Mamalukes, or sangiacs. The pasha was appointed by the grand-signor, as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt, consisted of a divan, composed of twenty-four sangiacs, beys, or lords. The head of them was called the sheik-bellet, who was
chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pasha. Every one of these sanguinias was arbitrary in his own territory, and exercised sovereign power: the major part of them resided at Cairo. If the grand-signor's pasha acted in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempted to violate their privileges, they would not suffer him to continue in his post; and they had an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year Sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamelukes. At present, though the French have been driven out of Egypt by the British arms, and the country restored to the Turks, it is in a state of the greatest confusion, and can scarcely be said to have any settled form of government.

Antiquities.] Egypt abounds more with these than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The bases of the largest covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but, if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The catacombs, or mummy-pits, so called from their containing the mummies, or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneaus vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said, that some of the bodies thus embalmed are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curiosity, thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting, it is said, anciently, of twelve palaces or halls, and 3000 chambers, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Moeris was dug by the order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches, which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh and vivid as when first laid on.

History.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyses, king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians, 520 years before Christ; and that in the reign of these princes, those wonderous structures, the pyramids, were raised, which cannot be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominions of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquest of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized by his generals, the province of Egypt fell into the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the late king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cesar and Mark Antony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mohammed, who expelled the Romans after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus,
son of the first Ptolemy: and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek; which translation is known by the name of the Septuagint. About the time of the crusades, between the year 1150 and 1100, Egypt was governed by Noureddin, whose son, the famous Saladin, proved so formidable to the Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt some time flourished under these illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, till the time of Selim, who, about the year 1517, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers, perceiving that it would be very difficult to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia by the name of Gypsies.

An attempt was made a few years since, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek church. Ali having turned Mohammedan, and being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him to the grand-signor, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople; but, being apprised of the design, he seized and put to death the messengers who brought this order, and soon found means to put himself at the head of an army. Being also assisted by the dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced, in consequence of the war with Russia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient sultans of Egypt. But, not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to support these pretensions, and actually subdued some of the neighbouring provinces, both of Arabia and Syria. At the same time that he was engaged in these great enterprises, he was not less attentive to the establishing of a regular form of government, and the introducing of order into a country that had been long the seat of anarchy and confusion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement to the Christian traders, and took off some shameful restraints and indignities to which they were subjected in that barbarous country. He also wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greatest assurances of his friendship, and that their merchants should meet with the utmost protection and safety. His great design was said to be, to make himself master of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey showed an extent of thought and ability that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and bespoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire. He assumed the titles and state of the ancient sultans of Egypt, and was ably supported by Sheik Daher, and some other Arabian princes, who warmly espoused his interests. He also succeeded in almost all his enterprises against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and Pashas, whom he repeatedly defeated; but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt, by the base and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mohammed Bey Abudahab; his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He was also himself wounded and taken prisoner; and, dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand Cairo. Abudahab afterwards governed Egypt, as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Palestine so subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, supposed to be strangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amnesty; and, trusting to their assurances, embraced the captain pacha's invitation to dine on board his ship; when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age.

A civil war now commenced between the adherents of Ali, and other beys or princes who rose on his ruins. Of these the principal were Murad and Ibrahim, who having
driven their enemies into banishment, began to quarrel among themselves; till at length, after having alternately expelled each other from Cairo, they agreed to a kind of compromise in March, 1785.

From this time nothing of importance occurred till the invasion of Egypt by the French, of which some account has already been given in our summary of the affairs of France. The French made themselves masters of Cairo, and the whole of the Delta, forcing Murad Bey and the Mamalukes to take refuge in Upper Egypt; but, after the departure of Bonaparte, general Kleber, who was left at the head of the army, concluded a treaty with the grand vizier, who had been sent against him with a powerful army; by which the French troops were to be permitted to evacuate Egypt without molestation. But the British government having, at the same time, sent orders to the English admirals in the Mediterranean to prevent the return of the French to Europe, general Kleber, having received notice of these orders, immediately attacked the Turks, and defeated them with great slaughter. Kleber was, some time after, assassinated, and Menou took the command of the French.

In the latter end of the year 1800, a strong force was sent out by the British government, to expel the French from Egypt. Admiral Keith commanded the fleet, and that gallant and experienced officer, Sir Ralph Abercrombie, the land forces. After many unexpected delays the fleet arrived off Alexandria on the 1st of March, 1801. The troops made good their landing on the 7th and 8th of that month, and on the 13th gained a victory over the French, though with the loss of above 2000 men in killed, wounded, and missing. On the 21st, a more decisive battle was fought, which ended in a complete victory on the part of the English, who, however, suffered a loss much to be lamented, in the death of the brave general Abercrombie, who was mortally wounded in this action, and died on the 28th. General Moore was also dangerously wounded. On the part of the enemy, the French general Roize was left dead on the field, and generals Lanusse and Rodet afterwards died of their wounds.

After the death of general Abercrombie, general (now lord) Hutchison took the chief command of the British forces. The town and castle of Rosetta was taken by a division of the English army, under colonel Spencer, aided by a body of the Turks; and early in May a force was detached to reduce Cairo. The French were defeated at Rhamanieh by the Turks, assisted by the British; and about the middle of June, the city of Cairo was invested on every side by the English forces, and those of the grand vizier. On the 22d of that month, the garrison of Cairo sent a flag of truce to the English general, and, after a negotiation of several days, a convention was agreed to, by which the French army at Cairo, and its dependencies, were to be conveyed in ships of the allied powers, and at their expence, together with their baggage, arms, ammunition, and effects, to the nearest French ports in the Mediterranean. The complete conquest of Egypt soon followed, by general Menou accepting the conditions of the convention of Cairo, for himself and the rest of the army under his command.

After the evacuation of Egypt by the French, the English endeavoured to effect a reconciliation between the Mamalukes and the Turks, to restore the former government of the country; but the Turks treacherously assassinating a number of the beys, the remainder fled into Upper Egypt, and the Porte being unable to subdue them, at length concluded a treaty with them, by which they yielded to them possession of that part of the country. In consequence, however, of mutinies and intestine contentions among the Turkish troops, the Mamalukes have again returned into Lower Egypt, and the country is at present a scene of confusion and anarchy, alternately ravaged by the different contending parties.
ABYSSINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.  
Length 800  
Breadth 680

Degrees.  
6 and 18 North latitude.  
33 and 43 East longitude.

Sq. Miles.  
378,000

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] It is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the east by the Red Sea and the country of Adel; on the south by the kingdom of Gingiro and Alaba; and on the west by Kordosan and Gorham.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the following account is chiefly taken) the following provinces, viz.


FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] The surface of this country is generally rugged and mountainous; it abounds with forests and morasses, and it is also interspersed with many fertile valleys and plains that are adapted both to pasture and tillage. About the centre of the kingdom are the mountains of Lamalmon, and those of Amhara and Sameno, which latter are said to be the loftiest in the country, and in them numerous rivers arise and flow in all directions.

RIVERS.] The chief river is the Nile, or that branch of it named the Bahr el Azrek, or the Blue River, called by the Abyssinians Abawi. Besides this there are the Tacaze, the Kibbee, or, as the Portuguese call it, the Zibbee, the Mareb, and the Hawash, which falls into the Tacaze; and a great number of other smaller rivers.

LAKES.] The lake of Tzana or Dembea (not to mention those of Gooderoo and Court Ohha) is by much the largest expanse of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greatest breadth is thirty-five miles, and its extent in length is forty-nine. The Nile, by a current always visible, crosses the end of it. In the dry months, from October to March, the lake shrinks greatly in size; but after that all those rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a centre, it then swells, and extends itself into the plain country, and has of course a much larger surface.

There are about eleven inhabited islands in the lake. All these islands were formerly used as prisons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat on account of some disgust or great misfortune, or as places of security to deposit their valuable effects during troublesome times.

ANIMALS.] There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyssinia. Of the tame or cow-kind, great abundance present themselves everywhere, differing in size, some having horns of various dimensions, some without horns at all; differing also in the colour and length of their hair.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel or antelope kind; the bohur, sassa, feeho, and madaqua, and many others. The hyaena is still more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of these the most numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jackal; this is precisely the same in all respects as the deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great numbers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, smaller and smoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing else, is met frequently in swamps or banks of rivers covered with wood.
The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffe, or camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or saadh, which is the panther, seen in the high and cultivated country. The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in all the rivers, notably of Abyssinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the ass kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebras; these are the inhabitants of Fazuelo and Narea.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyaena for its merciless ferocity. They were a plague, says our author, speaking of these animals, in Abyssinia, in every situation, both in the city and the field, and I think surpassed the sheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark to the dawn of day, seeking the different pieces of slaughtered carcases which this cruel and unclean people expose in the streets without burial.

It is a constant observation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies from the face of man, till by some accident they have been brought to engage, and the beast has prevailed against him; then that feeling of superiority imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for man's preservation, seems to forsake him. The lion having once tasted human blood, relinquishes the pursuit after the flock. He repairs to some high-way or frequented path, and has been known, in the kingdom of Tunis, to interrupt the road to a market for several weeks; and in this he persists till hunters or soldiers are sent out to destroy him.

The number of birds in Abyssinia exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally stored with them: the first kind are the carnivorous birds. Many species of the eagle and hawk, many more still of the vulture kind, as it were, over-stock all parts of the country. That species of glede called hadgddaya, so frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the sun, after the tropical rains. The nissar, or golden eagle, is not only the largest of the eagle kind, but one of the largest birds that flies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle, rachamah, erkoom, moroc, shregrig, and waalia, are particularly described by the historian of Abyssinia, to whose celebrated work we refer the reader who is desirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyssinia, especially of the web-footed kind. Vast variety of storks cover the plains in May, when the rains become constant. All the deep and grassy bogs have snipes in them; and there are swallows of many kinds unknown in Europe; those that are common in Europe appear in passage at the very season when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyssinia, but those are of an immense size and beauty. There are no geese, wild or tame, excepting what is called the Golden Goose, Goose of the Nile, or Goose of the Cape, common in all the south of Africa: these build their nests upon trees, and, when not in water, generally sit upon them.

From the class of insects, we shall select the most remarkable, viz. the tsalsalaya, or fly, which is an insect that furnishes a striking proof how fallacious it is to judge by appearances. If we consider its small size, its weakness, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or insignificant; yet passing from these to its history, and to the account of its powers, we must confess the very great injustice we do it from want of consideration. We are obliged, with the greatest surprise, to acknowledge, that those huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and tiger, inhabiting the same woods, are still vastly its inferiors, and that the appearance of this small insect, nay, its very sound, though it is not seen, occasions more trepidation, movement, and disorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of these monstrous animals collected together, though their number was in a ten-fold proportion greater than it really is.

This insect has not been described by any naturalist. It is in size very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion. As soon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forsake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and hasting down to the sands of Atbara; and there they remain while the rains
last, this cruel enemy never daring to pursue them farther. Though the size of the camel is immense, his strength vast, and his body covered with a thick skin, defended with strong hair, yet still he is not capable to sustain the violent punctures the fly makes with its pointed proboscis. He must lose no time in removing to the sands of Atbara; for, when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs, break out into large bosses, which swell, break, and putrefy, to the certain destruction of the creature.

**Climate, seasons, soil, produce.**] The rainy season continues for six months of the year, from April to September, which is succeeded, without interval, by a cloudless sky and vertical sun; and cold nights, which as immediately follow these scorching days. The earth, notwithstanding the heat of these days, is yet perpetually cold, so as to feel disagreeable to the soles of the feet; partly owing to the six months’ rain, when no sun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

The soil, though in many places thinly spread, is rendered fertile and productive by the rains and rivers. Wherever it can be tilled and well watered, it yields very large crops of wheat, barley, millet, and other grain. The inhabitants have two, and often three harvests in the year; and, where they have a supply of water, they may sow in all seasons; many of their trees and plants retain their verdure, and yield fruit and flowers throughout the year: the west side of a tree blossoms first, and bears fruit; then the south side; next the north side; and last of all the east side goes through the same process, towards the beginning of the rainy season.

**Metals and minerals.** Some gold is found among the sands of the rivers, and there are mines of fossil salt. The Abyssinians, in lieu of small money, frequently make use of pieces of rock salt, which are as white as snow and hard as stone. According to some accounts this country produces emeralds estimated at a high value.

**Vegetables.** The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is also found in Abyssinia. *Balssar, Balm,* or *Balsam,* is also a native of Abyssinia. The great value set upon this drug in the East, remounts to very early ages. We know from scripture, the oldest history extant, as well as the most infallible, that the Ishmaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants trafficking with the India commodities into Egypt, brought with them balm as a part of the cargo. — The *Easete* is an herbaceous plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar; but it mostly abounds in that part of Maithba and Goutto west of the Nile, where there are large plantations of it, and is there, almost exclusive of everything else, the food of the Galla inhabiting that province. When soft, like the turnip well boiled, if eaten with milk or butter, it is the best of food, wholesome, nourishing, and easily digested. — The *Teff* is a grain commonly sown all over Abyssinia, where it seems to thrive equally on all sorts of ground; from it is made the bread which is commonly used throughout this country. The Abyssinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and some of it of an excellent quality. They likewise make as fine wheaten bread as any in the world, both for colour and taste; but the use of wheat-bread is chiefly confined to people of the first rank. The acacia-tree is very common in Abyssinia, as are several other curious productions of the vegetable world.

**Natural curiosities.** Of these the principal are the spring which the Abyssinians consider as the source of the Nile, and the cataracts of that river.

The Agows (a people of a certain district) of Damot, pay divine honours to the Nile; they worship the river, and thousands of cattle have been offered, and still are offered, to the spirit supposed to reside at the sources. The village of Geesh, though not farther distant than 600 yards, is not in sight of the sources of the Nile. In the middle of a marsh near the bottom of the mountain of Geesh, arises a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the surface of the marsh itself, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is something short of twelve feet; it is surrounded by a shallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eastward; it is firmly built with sod or earthen turf, brought from the sides, and constantly kept in repair, and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the middle of this altar, is a hole obviously made, or at least enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of grass or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly
clear and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion of any kind discernible upon its surface. This mouth or opening of the source is some parts of an inch less than three feet in diameter, and the water stood about two inches from the lip or brim. The spring is about six feet six inches deep.

Ten feet distant from the first of these springs, is the sacred fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep; and about twenty feet distant from the first, is the third source, its mouth being something more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep. With a brass quadrant of three feet radius, Mr Bruce found the exact latitude of the principal fountain of the Nile to be 10° 59' 25", though the Jesuits have supposed it 12° N, by a random guess. The longitude he ascertain'd to be 36° 55' 30" east of the meridian of Greenwich.

The great cataract of Alata (for we shall omit describing those of inferior note) Mr Bruce tells us was the most magnificent sight he had ever beheld. The height has been rather exaggerated. The missionaries say the fall is about sixteen ells, or fifty feet. The measuring is, indeed, very difficult; but, by the position of long sticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock from the water's edge, Mr Bruce thinks he may venture to say that it is nearer forty feet than any other measure. The river had been considerably increased by rains, and fell in one sheet of water, without any interval, above half an English mile in breadth, with a force and a noise that was truly terrible, and which stunned, and made him for a time perfectly dizzy. A thick fume or haze covered the fall all round, and hung over the course of the stream, both above and below, marking its track, though the water is not seen. The river, though swollen with rain, preserved its natural clearness, and fell, as far as he could discern, into a deep pool or basin in the solid rock, which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice; the stream, when it fell, seeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its course, raising a wave, or violent ebullition, by chafing against each other.

We shall here subjoin a summary of the account our author gives of the causes of the inundation of the Nile.

The sun being nearly stationary for some days in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there becomes so much rarefied, that the heavier winds, charged with watery particles, rush in upon it from the Atlantic on the west, and from the Indian Ocean on the east. Having thus gathered such a quantity of vapours as it were to a focus, the sun now puts them in motion, and drawing them after it in its rapid progress northward, on the 7th of January, for two years together, seemed to have extended its power to the atmosphere of Gondar, when, for the first time, there appeared in the sky white, dappled, thin clouds, the sun being then distant 34° from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark speck having been seen for several months before. Advancing to the line with increased velocity, and describing larger spirals, the sun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar on the 1st of March, being then distant 5° from the zenith; these are greedily absorbed by the thirsty soil; and this seems to be the farthest extent of the sun's influence capable of causing rain, which then only falls in large drops, and lasts but a few minutes: the rainy season, however, begins most seriously upon its arrival at the zenith of every place, and these rains continue constant and increasing after he has passed it, in his progress northward.

In April, all the rivers in Amhura, Begemder, and Lasta, are first discoloured, and then beginning to swell, join the Nile in the several parts of its course nearest them; the river then, from the height of its angle of inclination, forces itself through the stagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of streams pour themselves from Gojam, Damot, Maitsha, and Demeba, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by intense evaporation, but now begins to fill insensibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the sun having now passed all Abyssinia, the rivers there are all full; and then is the time of the greatest rains in Abyssinia, while it is for some days, as it were, stationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the sun has passed the line, he begins the rainy season to the southward, still as he approaches the zenith of each place; but the situation and neces-
A high chain of mountains runs from above 6° south all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and intersects the southern parts of the peninsula, nearly in the same manner that the river Nile does the northern. A strong wind from the south, stopping the progress of the condensed vapours, dashes them against the cold summits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers, which escape in the direction either east or west as the level presents itself. If this is towards the west, they fall down the sides of the mountains into the Atlantic, and if on the east, into the Indian Ocean.

Inhabitants, Manners, Customs.] The Abyssinians are in general tall and well made. They are of a dark olive complexion; their features are proportionate; their eyes large, black, and sparkling; their noses rather high than flat; their lips small, and their teeth extremely white and handsome. With respect to their disposition, they are mild and docile, and in their general conduct sober and temperate.

The dress of persons of quality is a long fine vest, either of silk or cotton, tied about the middle with a rich scarf. The common people have only a pair of cotton drawers, and a kind of scarf, or piece of the same linen with which they cover the rest of the body. The habit of women of the superior class consists of the richest silks, ornamented, according to their rank, with trinkets and jewels, images, and relics of various kinds. Women in general are allowed to appear in public, and to converse freely with the men, without any of those restrictions to which the Turkish women are commonly subject. The women of superior condition are not very guarded in their conduct, but those of inferior rank are more faithful to their husbands; and they also willingly submit to the meaner and more laborious offices of domestic life. It is their business to grind corn for the family, which they perform daily by means of hand-mills.

Although we read in the accounts of the Jesuits, says Mr Bruce, a great deal about marriage and polygamy, yet there is nothing which may be averred more truly, than that there is no such a thing as marriage in Abyssinia, unless it be that which is contracted by mutual consent, without other form, subsisting only till it is dissolved by dissent of one or the other, and to be renewed or repeated as often as it is agreeable to both parties. There is no such distinction as legitimate and illegitimate children, from the king to the beggar. Their funerals are attended with many superstitious ceremonies: the relations, friends, and a number of hired mourners, bewail the dead for many days together, with loud shrieks and lamentations; and the women make wounds in their faces with their nails.

The Abyssinians neither eat nor drink with strangers; and they break or purify every vessel which has been used by them. They eat raw flesh, and even cut it from the living animal, according to Mr Bruce, who tells us that, in the neighbourhood of Axum, he met with some travellers who were driving a cow before them. He afterwards found that they cut stakes from the higher part of the buttock: they then closed the wound by drawing the skin over it, and applied to it a cataplasm of clay. They then drove the animal before them, in order to supply them and their companions with another meal. At their feasts, according to the same traveller, they have a bull or a cow, one or more, according to the number of guests, which are tied at the door of the house in which they are assembled. From these animals square pieces of flesh are cut and served up on round cakes of unleavened bread, made of teff. As no person of any fashion feeds himself, or touches his own meat, the women take the steak, while the motion of the fibres is distinctly seen, cut it into small pieces, well pepper them, and wrap them up in the teff-bread like so many cartridges. In this form they are put into the mouths of the guests, who, like birds fed by their dam, are opening their mouths to receive the morsels that are ready, as fast as they can be prepared for them. The females, after having thus supplied the male guests, eat till they are satisfied, and then all drink together. The victim is still bleeding, writhing, and roaring at the door. When the animal has bled to death, the cannibals tear the remaining flesh from the thighs with their teeth, like dogs.—Such is Mr Bruce's description of an Abyssinian feast.
The offering of meat and drink in Abyssinia is an assurance of safety to the person to whom it is offered. Many of the customs of this country resemble those of the ancient Persians and Egyptians.

**Government.** The government of Abyssinia has always been monarchical and despotic, the sovereign exercising absolute dominion over the lives, liberties, and fortunes, of his subjects, and possessing uncontroulable authority in all matters, ecclesiastical as well as civil. His will is the universal law, there neither being, nor ever having been, any written laws to restrain the royal power, or to secure the property or privileges of the subject. The monarchs of Abyssinia claim descent from Menilek, the son of Solomon, as they pretend, by the queen of Sheba. The crown is hereditary in this family, but elective as to the person. A peculiar custom formerly prevailed of confining all the princes of the blood royal in a palace on a high mountain, during their lives, or till they were called to the throne; but this practice, it appears, has now fallen into disuse.

**Cities, Chief Towns.** Gondar, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It consists of about ten thousand families in time of peace; the houses are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the construction within the tropical rains. On the west of the town is the king's house, formerly a structure of considerable consequence. It was a square building flanked with square towers. It was formerly four stories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country southward to Lake Tzana. Great part of this house is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the two lowest floors of it, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are surrounded by a substantial stone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the street. There appear to have been never any embrasures for cannon, and the four sides of the walls are above an English mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of observations of the sun and stars, is in N. lat. 12° 34' 30"; its longitude is 37° 33' east from Greenwich.

Dixan is the first town in Abyssinia, on the side of Taranta. It is built on the top of a hill perfectly in form of a sugar-loaf; a deep valley surrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds spirally up the hill till it ends among the houses. It is true of Dixan, as of most frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries resort thither. The town consists of Moors and Christians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of these sects is a very extraordinary one, that of selling children. The Christians bring such as they have stolen in Abyssinia to Dixan as a sure deposit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Masuah, whence they are sent over to Arabia or India. The priests of the province of Tigré, especially those near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat. 14° 57' 55" north, and long. 40° 7' 30" east of the meridian of Greenwich.

Axum is supposed to have been once the capital of Abyssinia, and its ruins are now very extensive; but, like the cities of ancient times, consist altogether of public buildings. In one square, which seems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece, of granite, and, on the top of that which is standing, there is a patera, exceedingly well carved, in the Greek taste. Axum is watered by a small stream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley where stand the rows of obelisks. The spring is received into a magnificent basin 150 feet square, and thence is carried at pleasure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting pomegranates, neither are these very excellent. The latitude of this town is 14° 6' 36" north.

Masuah. The houses of this town, which is situated upon an island bearing the same name, on the Abyssinian shore of the Red Sea, are in general built of poles and bent grass, as in the towns of Arabia; but besides these, there are about twenty of
stone, six or eight of which are two stories each. North lat. 15° 35' 5", east long. 39° 36' 30".

Trade.] There is a considerable deal of trade carried on at Masuah, narrow and confined as the island is, and violent and unjust as is the government. But it is all done in a slovenly manner, and for articles in which a small capital is invested. Property here is too precious to risk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every transaction.

Gondar, and all the neighbouring country, depend for the necessities of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of such articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the sources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where sixty miles in length, nor half that in breadth. These Agows come constantly in succession, a thousand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with these commodities, to the capital.

It may naturally occur that, in a long carriage, such as that of a hundred miles in such a climate, butter must melt, and be in a state of fusion, consequently very near putrefaction: this is prevented by the root of an herb, called Moc-moc, yellow in colour, and in shape resembling nearly a carrot: this they bruise and mix with their butter, and a very small quantity preserves it fresh for a considerable time.

Language.] A variety of languages are spoken in this country. The Jews speak a dialect of the Hebrew: the Moors an impure Arabic; the Gallas have likewise a language of their own. The dialect of the court is that of Amhara; that of Tigré, however, approaches nearest to the old Ethiopian, which has a considerable affinity to the Arabic, and is called leshone geves, or the learned language; and is still used not only in all their literary and religious books, but also in their public instruments and records.

Religion.] The inhabitants of Abyssinia consist of Christians, Jews, Mohammedans, and Pagans: about one-third part are Mohammedans, who are every where intermixed with the Christians. The pagans are chiefly the Gallas, besides some others who are dispersed through several of the provinces of the Abyssinian empire.

Mr Bruce informs us, from the annals of Abyssinia, that in the time of Solomon all this country was converted to Judaism, and the government of the church and state modelled according to what was then in use at Jerusalem.

Some ecclesiastical writers, rather from attachment to particular systems, than from any conviction that the opinion they espouse is truth, would persuade us, that the conversion of Abyssinia to Christianity happened in the days of the apostles; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apostle of the Abyssinians) in the year of Christ 333, according to our account.

Their first bishop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and instructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St Athanasius, then sitting in the chair of St Mark, it follows, that the true religion of the Abyssinians, which they received on their conversion to Christianity, is that of the Greek church. They receive the holy sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the husk together as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. They observe also circumcision.

The Abyssinian church is governed by a bishop or metropolitan, styled Albusa (our father), and sometimes, though improperly, patriarch, sent them by the Coptic patriarch of Alexandria, residing at Cairo, who is the only person that ordains priests.

Army.] The military force of this country, according to Mr Bruce, has been greatly exaggerated: that traveller does not suppose that any king of Abyssinia ever commanded 40,000 effective men, at any time, or on any occasion, exclusive of his own household troops, which are about 8000 infantry.

Revenue.] This arises from different imposts on the trade of the country; the sale of the great places of the kingdom; and a tenth, levied every third year, on all the cattle in the empire. The whole amount of these is not easily estimated, but it appears that it falls very short of what might be expected from a country of which the sovereign is the sole proprietor and disposer.
ROYAL TITLE, ARMS.] The Abyssinian monarchs assume the title of Negus or Negus, and are always addressed either by that or Nagusha Nagashi, king of kings; or by that of Natzeke, which is equivalent to the French Sire. Those who approach them prostrate themselves before them; and when they are seated in council, they are concealed from view.

The device of these sovereigns is a lion passant proper in a field of gules, with this motto, *Mo Anbaa am Nzizlet Solomon am Negade Jude*—"The lion of the race of Solomon and tribe of Judah, hath overcome."

LITERATURE.] With respect to arts and sciences, the Abyssinians are very unformed, and will probably long continue so, both from the form of their government, and their natural indolence, and from the little intercourse they have with any nations in which knowledge is cultivated.

HISTORY.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the history of so barbarous and uncivilized a people will, we presume, afford but small amusement to our readers, whatever satisfaction they may have received from surveying the manners and customs of the people, and the natural history of the country, we shall therefore make no farther apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyssinia, but refer those who have any desire of information upon this subject, to the second volume of the Travels of our adventurous author, where they will find a very ample detail through more than 700 pages of a ponderous quarto.

INTERIOR COUNTRIES OF AFFRICA;

FEZZAN, BORNOU, CASHNA, TOMBUCTOO, HOUSSA, DAR-FUR, &c.

It having been long a subject of complaint that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the interior districts of Africa, a number of learned and opulent individuals formed themselves into a society for the purpose of exploring them. The association was formed on the 9th of June, in the year 1788; and on the same day a committee of its members, viz. Lord Rawdon, the Bishop of Landaff, Sir Joseph Banks, Mr Beaufoy, and Mr Stuart, were invested with the direction of its funds, the management of the correspondence, and the choice of the persons to whom the geographical mission was to be assigned. Persuaded of the importance of the object which the association had in view, their committee lost no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them, and appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected researches, they were chosen. One was Mr Ledyard; the other a Mr Lucas.

Mr Ledyard undertook, at his own desire, the difficult and perilous task of traversing from east to west, in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the widest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure he left London June 30. 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of August.

Hence he transmitted such accounts to his employers as manifest him to have been a traveller who observed, reflected, and compared; and such was the information which he collected here from the travelling slave-merchants, and from others, respecting the interior districts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Senaar (six hundred miles to the south of Cairo); but death, attributed to various causes, arrested him at the commencement of his re-searches, and disappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

Mr Lucas embarked for Tripoli, October 19. 1788, with instructions to proceed over the desert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to transmit, by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan or the traders thither, might be able to af-
ford respecting the interior of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coast of Guinea.

4 Instructions to undertake great enterprises are more easily given than executed. So Mr Lucas found; only a part of the plan was this geographical missionary able to carry into execution. He set out, indeed, mounted on a handsome mule, presented to him by the bey, the pasha's eldest son, in company with sheereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan, intending to penetrate from Tripoli even to Gambia; but his peregrinations, which began February 1, 1798, terminated at Mesurata on February 7th.

Deprived of visiting Fezzan, and the other inland districts of Africa, Mr Lucas solicited the information of his fellow travellers, and transmitted to the society the result of his conferences with a sheereef Imhammed, who described the kingdom of Fezzan to be a small circular domain, placed in a vast wilderness, as an island in the midst of the ocean, containing near a hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzook is the capital, distant south from Mesurata about three hundred and ninety miles. In this kingdom are to be seen some venerable remains of ancient magnificence, some districts of remarkable fertility, and numerous smoking lakes, producing a species of fossil alkali called *trona*.—We shall presently give a more circumstantial and authentic account of this country, from the description of it by Mr Horneman, a later traveller, under the patronage of the African society, who was at Mourzook, and resided there several months in the years 1798 and 1799.

The narrative proceeds to state, that south-east of Mourzook, at the distance of one hundred and fifty miles, is a sandy desert, two hundred miles wide, beyond which are the mountains of Tibesti, inhabited by ferocious savages, tributary to Fezzan. The valleys between the mountains are said to be fertilized by innumerable springs, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibestins to the king of Fezzan is twenty camel-loads of senna.

This kingdom is inconsiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Cashna, or Kassina, which lie south of Fezzan, occupying that vast region which spreads itself from the river of the Antelopes for twelve hundred miles westward, and includes a great part of the Niger's course. Cashna, or Kassina, we are informed, contains a thousand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is still more considerable, thirty languages are said to be spoken. The latter is represented as a fertile and beautiful country, its capital being situated within a day's journey of the river *Wod-el-Gasel*, which is lost in the sandy wastes of the vast desert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdsmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whose wealth consists in their cattle *. (Bornou, or Borna, is a word signifying the land of Noah; for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various sorts of grain, the use of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only instrument of husbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two species of melons, the water and the musk, are produced in large abundance; but one of the most valuable of its vegetables is a tree called *kedeyna*, which in form and height resembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the shell are both in great estimation, the first as a fruit, the last on account of the oil which it furnishes when bruised, and which supplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a substitute for the oil of olives, p. 139. Bees, it is added, are so numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we must refer to the work. The population is described by the expression a *countless multitude*. We shall pass over the nature of their religion, which is Mohammedan; of their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the singular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceased sovereign: but the account of the present sultan, his wives and his children (p. 227), is too curious not to be exhibited.

The present sultan, whose name is Ali, is a man of an unostentatious, plain appearance; for he seldom wears any other dress than the common blue shirt of cotton or silk.

* Horses and horned cattle, goats, sheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.
and the silk or muslin turban, which form the usual dress of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his seraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are said to be five hundred in number, and he himself is described as the reputed father of three hundred and fifty children, of whom three hundred are males; a disproportion which naturally suggests the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection the joy of seeing herself the supposed parent of a future candidate for the empire, sometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a stranger.

We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not possessed by them.

South-east from Bornou lies the extensive kingdom of Begarreme; and beyond this kingdom are said to be several tribes of negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human flesh. These, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmees; and when they have taken as many prisoners as their purpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarreme. It is farther said, that if any of them, exhausted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horsemen seizes one of the oldest, and, cutting off his arm, uses it as a club to drive on the rest.

We are not much disposed to give credit to this relation. That the negroes, who are sold for slaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable; and that they should be driven along with the mangled limbs of their associates, utterly exceeds belief.

The empire of Cashna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou.

After perusing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures, and commerce of these regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but suspect considerable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often absent three years, sufficiently evince; but that they are divided into regular and civilized states, may be a question. A thousand towns and villages in one empire, and thirty different languages spoken in the other, manifest a disposition in the shereef Imamhmed to enlargement, or, at least, to retain loose reports. That they should be acquainted with, yet not possess fire-arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fish that abound in its waters, but little accords with the history of their commerce, and of their progress in manufactures.

Under the patronage of the same society for making discoveries in the interior countries of Africa, Mr. Mungo Park has since performed a journey eastward, from the mouth of the Gambia to Silla, on the river Niger, above a thousand miles from the Atlantic; and, to use the words of major Rennell, brought to our knowledge more important facts respecting the geography of western Africa, both moral and physical, than have been collected by any former traveller.

Mr. Park set out from Pisania (a British factory on the banks of the Gambia) on the 2d of December 1793, and took his route through the kingdoms of Wooll, Bondou, Kayaaga, Kasson, Kaarta, and Ludamar, to Bambarra. The country of Wooll, he tells us, every where rises into gentle acclivities, which are generally covered with extensive woods, and the towns are situate in the intermediate valleys; the chief productions are cotton, tobacco, and different kinds of corn. Medina, the capital of this kingdom, is a place of considerable extent, and may contain from eight hundred to a thousand houses. The country of Bondou, like that of Wooll, is very generally covered with woods; but in native fertility, in the opinion of our traveller, is not surpassed by any part of Africa. The name of the capital of this country is Fatteconda. The inhabitants are of the tribe of the Foulahs, who are in general of a tawny complexion, with small features, and soft silky hair. The Foulahs of Bondou are naturally of a mild and gentle disposition: but they evidently consider all the negro natives as their inferiors; and, when talking, of different nations, always rank themselves among the white people. In Kayaaga, the next kingdom, the air and climate are more pure and salubrious than at any of the settlements towards the coast; the face of the country is everywhere interspersed with a pleasing variety of hills and valleys; and the windings of the Senegal river, which descends from the rocky hills of the interior, make the scenery on its banks very picturesque and beautiful. The inhabitants are called Serawollies, or, as the French write
it, Seraccoets. Their complexion is a jet black; their government is a despotic monarchy; and they are habitually a trading people. In the kingdom of Kasson, of which Kooniakarry is the capital, from the top of a high hill Mr Park had an enchanting prospect of the country. The number of towns and villages, and the extensive cultivation around them, surpassed every thing he had yet seen in Africa. A gross calculation may be formed of the number of inhabitants in this delightful plain, from the fact, that the king of Kasson can raise four thousand fighting men by the sound of his war-drum. At Kemmoo, the capital of Kaarta, Mr Park had an audience of the king, who advised him to return to Kasson; telling him it was not in his power at present to afford him much assistance, for that all kind of communication between Kaarta and Bambarra had been interrupted for some time past, in consequence of a war between the two kingdoms. Our traveller, however, resolved to continue his journey, and proceed to Jarra, a town in the kingdom of Ludamar, whence he sent presents to Ali, the sovereign, then encamped at Benowm, requesting permission to pass through his territories. Several days afterwards, one of Ali's slaves arrived with instructions, as he pretended to conduct him as far as Goomba, on the farther frontier; but, before he arrived there, he was seized by a party of Moors, who conveyed him to Ali at Benowm, who detained him a prisoner more than three months. He, however, at length found means to make his escape, in the confusion which ensued in consequence of the success of the army of the king of Kaarta, who had invaded the country. His joy at his escape, he tells us, it is impossible to describe; but he soon found that his real situation was distressful in the extreme: he was in the midst of a barren wilderness; and, after travelling a long time, exposed to the burning heat of the sun, reflected with double violence from the hot sand, his suffering from thirst became so intolerable, that he fainted on the sand, and expected the immediate approach of death. Nature, however, at length resumed its functions; and, on recovering his senses, he found the sun just sinking behind the trees, and the evening become somewhat cool. It soon after rained plentifully for more than an hour, and he quenched his thirst by wringing and sucking his clothes, by which he was sufficiently relieved to enable him to pursue his journey; and, after travelling several days more, he at length came in sight of one of the principal objects pointed out for his reach—the river Niger. "I saw," says he, "with infinite pleasure, the great object of my mission—the long-sought for, majestic Niger, glittering to the morning sun, as broad as the Thames at Westminster, and flowing slowly to the eastward." I hastened to the brink, and, having drunk of the water, lifted up my fervent thanks in prayer to the Great Ruler of all things, for having thus far crowned my endeavours with success."

He had now reached Sego, the capital of Bambarra, which he thus describes:—"Sego, properly speaking, consists of four distinct towns; two on the northern bank of the Niger, and two on the southern. They are all surrounded with high mud walls; the houses are built of clay, of a square form, with flat roofs; some of them have two stories, many of them are white-washed. Besides these buildings, Moorish mosques are seen in every quarter; and the streets, though narrow, are broad enough for every useful purpose, in a country where wheel-carriages are entirely unknown. From the best inquiries I could make, I have reason to believe that Sego contains, altogether, about thirty thousand inhabitants. The view of this extensive city, the numerous canoes upon the river, the crowded population, and the cultivated state of the surrounding country, formed altogether a prospect of civilization and magnificence which I little expected to find in the bosom of Africa.—Sego is situate, as nearly as can be ascertained, in north lat. 14 deg. 10 min.: west long. 2 deg. 26 min."

From Sego, Mr Park continued his journey along the banks of the Niger to Silla, a large town about eighty miles to the east of Sego; and here, the tropical rains being set in, his finances expended, and various other difficulties concurring to render his farther progress extremely dangerous, if not impracticable, he terminated his travels to the eastward "at a point (says Major Rennell) somewhat more than sixteen degrees east of Cape Verd, and precisely in the same parallel. The line of distance arising from this difference of longitude, is about 941 geographical miles, or 1090 British, within the western extremity of Africa; a point which, although short by two hundred miles of the desired
station, Tombuctoo, the attainment of which would unquestionably have been attended with great éclat, was yet far beyond what any other European, whose travels have been communicated to the European world, had ever reached."

Mr Park gives the following account of Tombuctoo and Houssa, from the information he was able to collect concerning those cities, at Sego, and in the course of his journey:

"To the north-east of Masina (a kingdom on the northern bank of the Niger, at a short distance from Silla) is situate the kingdom of Tombuctoo, the great object of European research; the capital of this kingdom being one of the principal marts for that extensive commerce which the Moors carry on with the Negroes. The hopes of acquiring wealth in this pursuit, and zeal for propagating their religion, have filled this extensive city with Moors and Mohammedan converts; the king himself, and all the chief officers of state, are Moors: and they are said to be more severe and intolerant in their principles than any other of the Moorish tribes in this part of Africa. I was informed by a venerable old negro, that when he first visited Tombuctoo, he took up his lodging at a sort of public inn, the landlord of which, when he conducted him into his hut, spread a mat on the floor, and laid a rope upon it, saying, 'If you are a Mussulman, you are my friend; sit down: but if you are a Kafr (infidel), you are my slave, and with his rope I will lead you to market.' The present king of Tombuctoo is named Abu Abrahima. He is reported to possess immense riches. His wives and concubines are said to be clothed in silk, and the chief officers of state live in considerable splendour. The whole expense of his government is defrayed, as I was told, by a tax upon merchandise, which is collected at the gates of the city.

The city of Houssa (the capital of a large kingdom to the eastward of Tombuctoo) is another great mart for Moorish commerce. I conversed with many merchants who had visited that city, and they all agreed that it is larger and more populous than Tombuctoo. The trade, police, and government, are nearly the same in both; but, in Houssa, the Negroes are in greater proportion to the Moors, and have some share in the government."

Mr Park was likewise told by a shereef who resided at Walet, the capital of the kingdom of Beeroo, to the northward of Sego, and who had visited Houssa, and lived some years at Tombuctoo, "that Houssa was the largest town he had ever seen: that Walet was larger than Tombuctoo: but being remote from the Niger, and its trade consisting chiefly of salt, it was not so much resorted to by strangers: that between Benowm and Walet was ten days’ journey, but the road did not lead through any remarkable towns, and travellers supported themselves by purchasing milk from the Arabs, who keep their herds by the watering-places: two of the days’ journey was over a sandy country without water. From Walet to Tombuctoo was eleven days more: but water was more plentiful, and the journey was usually performed upon bullocks. He said there were many Jews at Tombuctoo; but they all spoke Arabic, and used the same prayers as the Moors."

The city of Tombuctoo is placed by Major Rennell, from a comparison of all the accounts received of it, in north latitude 16° 30' east longitude 1° 33'.

According to the report of Mr Park, the interior parts of Africa are inhabited by three distinct races of men; the Mandingoes, or proper negroes; the Foulahs, or white Ethiopians of Ptolemy and Pliny, who have neither the crisped hair, nor jetty blackness of the Mandingoes; and the Moors, natives of Arabia, who in their persons and complexions exactly resemble theMulattoes of the West Indies, and who are bigotted Mohammedans, and of a disposition most perfidious and sanguinary. Of these three nations, though they are frequently intermixed, the negroes, whether Mandingoes or Foulahs, are generally found to the south of the Moors. The negroes, for the most part, cultivate the grounds; the Moors, like the Arabians, from whom they are descended, are roving shepherds, or travelling merchants, who, it seems, from the earliest times, to have overspread the great African desert and the Oases, or fertile islands, thinly scattered through that sandy ocean. Hence they extended their arms southwards, and made themselves masters of several of the negro kingdoms of the Niger; so that
their dominions form a narrow belt running from west to east, on the skirts of the desert, from the coasts of the Atlantic to the mountains of Abyssinia.

We shall now give some account of the travels of Mr Horneman, whom we have mentioned above, and who in like manner travelled under the directions and patronage of the African society.

On the 6th of September, 1798, Mr Horneman set out from Cairo with the Fezzan caravan, for the purpose of making discoveries in the interior of Africa. The caravan proceeded by Ummesogier, a small village containing but few inhabitants, to the Oasis of Siwah, which is only twenty hours journey from Ummesogier. At Siwah, Mr Horneman saw the ruins which had before been discovered by Mr Browne, whose observations he confirms. From Siwah the caravan proceeded by Augila, a town known to Herodotus, who places it at ten days journey from the city of the Ammonians, to Temissa, in the territory of Fezzan; thence to Zuila, in the same territory; and thence to Mourzook, the capital, where it arrived on the 17th of November.

The cultivated part of the kingdom of Fezzan, according to Mr Horneman, is about 300 English miles in length from north to south, and 200 miles from east to west; but the mountainous region of Harutsch, to the east, and other districts to the south and west, are reckoned within its territory. The borderers on the north are Arabs, dependent, though rather nominally than really, on Tripoli. To the east the country is bounded by the mountains called the black and the white Harutch, and by deserts. To the south and south-east is the country of the Tibboes; to the south-west that of the wandering Tuaricks; and to the west are Arabs. The climate is at no season temperate or agreeable. During the summer the heat is intense; and when the wind blows from the south, is scarcely supportable even by the natives. The winter would be moderate, were it not that a bleak and penetrating north wind frequently prevails. It rains but seldom, and then but little in quantity; but violent winds are frequent. Dates may be considered as the natural and staple produce of the country; some senna is likewise grown in the western parts; and the climate and soil suit wheat and barley; but from the indolence of the people, their unacquaintance with the arts of agriculture, and the oppressions of the government, there is not sufficient corn grown for the consumption of the inhabitants, who rely for subsistence on importations from the Arab countries to the north. There are but few horses or cattle in Fezzan; the principal domestic animal is the goat. Camels are extremely dear, and only kept by the principal persons, and more wealthy merchants.

The population of the country is estimated by Mr Horneman at 70 or 75,000 souls. He says it contains a hundred and one towns and villages, the names of the principal of which, next in order to Mourzook, the capital, and imperial residence, are Sockna, Sibba, Hun, and Wodon, to the north; Gatron to the south; Yerma to the west; and Zuila to the east.

The complexion of the Fezzaners is a deep brown; their hair is black and short; their form of face such as may be termed regular, and their nose less flattened than that of the negro. They are but of an ordinary stature, and their limbs are by no means muscular. Their men, walk, and every motion and gesture, denote a want of energy either of mind or body. Their dress consists of a shirt or frock, made of a coarse linen or cotton cloth brought from Cairo, and coarse woollen cloth of their own manufacture, called abbe. The middling classes wear frocks made at Souda of dyed blue cloth. The richer people and the Mamelukes of the sultan are clothed in the Tripolitan habit; over which they wear a Scudan shirt of variegated pattern and colours, and likewise the abbe. The ornamental distinctions of dress are chiefly confined to the head-dress, and to rings on the arms and legs. The women of distinction divide their hair into curls or tresses, to which they fix pieces of coral and amber, and little silver bells. They also fasten to the top of the head silver cords on which are strung a number of silver rings, which hang on each side pendent to the shoulder. The meaner women wear merely a string of glass beads, and curl their hair above the forehead into large ringlets, into which severally is stuffed a paste made of lavender, caraway seeds, cloves, pepper, mastich, and laurel leaves, mixed up with oil. The women of Fezzan generally have a great fondness for dancing, and the wanton manners and public freedoms which, although Mo-
hammedans, they are permitted, astonishes the Mohammedan traveller. The men are much addicted to drunkenness. Their beverage is the fresh juice of the date-tree called *jugib*, or a drink called *busa*, which is prepared from dates, and is very intoxicating.

The commerce of Fezzan is considerable, but consists merely of foreign merchandise. From October to February, Mourzook is the great market and place of resort for various caravans from Cairo, Tripoli, Soudan, and companies of Tibboe and Arab traders. The caravans from the south and west bring to Mourzook slaves of both sexes, ostrich feathers, tiger skins, and gold, partly in dust and partly in native grains, to be manufactured into rings and other ornaments, for the people of Interior Africa. From Bornou copper is imported in great quantities; from Cairo silks and woollen cloths; and from Tripoli, fire-arms, sabres, knives, &c.

Fezzan is governed by a sultan descended from the family of the shereefs. His power over his own dominions is unlimited, but he holds them tributary to the pasha of Tripoli. The tribute was formerly 6000 dollars, but it is now reduced to 4000; and an officer from Tripoli comes annually to Mourzook, to receive this sum, or its value in gold, senna, or slaves. The throne is hereditary; but the crown does not, in all cases, descend directly from father to son; the eldest prince of the royal family succeeds, perhaps a nephew, in preference to a son who is younger. This custom frequently occasions contest and bloodshed. The sultan’s palace or house is situate within the castle or fortress of Mourzook, where he lives retired with no other inmate but the eunuchs who wait on him. His harem, consisting of a sultana and about forty slaves, is contiguous: he never enters it; but the female whom he at any time wishes to see, is conducted to his apartment. The apparel of the sultan, on days of state and ceremony, consists of a large white frock or shirt, made in the Soudan manner, of stuff, and brocaded with silver and gold, or of sattin interwoven with silver. Under this frock he wears the ordinary dress of the Tripolitans; but the most remarkable appearance is that of his turban, which from the fore to the hinder part extends a full yard, and is not less than two-thirds of a yard in breadth. The revenues of he sultan are produced from a tax on cultivated lands, duties on foreign trade paid by the caravans, from royal domains, and predatory expeditions.

The religion of the Fezzaners is the Mohammedan. Justice is administered, as in other Mohammedan countries, by an officer called a cadi, who is here, at the same time, the head of the clergy, and possesses great influence and authority with the people.

The name or title of the present sultan of Fezzan is, “Sultan Mohammed ben Sultan Mansur”; but when he writes to the pasha of Tripoli, he only styles himself shereef.

Mr Horneman has since renewed his travels in the same track, and a letter, dated Mourzook, April 6th, 1800, has been received from him by the society. He was then preparing to set out with the caravan for Bornou, whence he proposed to proceed to Cashna, and penetrate, if possible, to Tombuctoo. From the abilities and diligence of this enterprising traveller, should no adverse accident occur to him, much curious and useful information may be expected.

We shall here add a short account of the country of Dar-Fur, another kingdom of the interior of Africa lately visited by Mr Browne. “Dar-Fur, or the country of Fur, is situated to the south of Egypt and Nubia, and to the west of Abyssinia. Cobbe, its capital, stands, according to Mr Browne, in north latitude 14° 11’; east longitude 28° 8’. In Dar-Fur wood is found in great quantity, except where the rocky nature of the soil absolutely impedes vegetation; nor are the natives assiduous completely to clear the ground, even where it is designed for the cultivation of grain. The perennial rains which fall here from the middle of June till the middle of September in greater or less quantity, but generally both frequent and violent, suddenly invest the face of the country, till then dry and sterile, with a delightful verdure. The tame animals in Dar-Fur are camels, horses, sheep, oxen, and dogs; the wild ones, lions, leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals, and elephants, which, in the places they frequent, go, according to report, in large herds of four or five hundred; it is even said that two thousand are sometimes found together. The antelope and ostrich are also extremely common. The population of the country Mr Browne estimates at 200,000 souls: Cobbe, the capital, he thinks does not contain more than 6000 inhabitants. This town is more than two miles in length, but very narrow; and the houses, each of which occupies within its inclosure a
large portion of ground, are divided by considerable waste. The walls of the houses are of clay, and the people of higher rank cover them with a kind of plaster, and colour them white, red, and black. The disposition of the people of Dar-Fur is more cheerful than that of the Egyptians. Dancing is practised by the men as well as the women, and they often dance promiscuously. But the vices of thieving, lying, and cheating in bargains, are here almost universal. No property, whether considerable or trifling, is safe out of the sight of the owner. Their religion is the Mohammedan, but they allow polygamy without limitation; and they are little addicted to jealousy. To the women are assigned the most laborious employments: they till the ground, gather in the corn, make the bread, and even build the houses. The government is despotick; though the monarch can do nothing contrary to the koran. He speaks of the soil and productions as his personal property, and of the people as his slaves. His revenues arise from the tenth of all merchandise imported; the tribute of the Arabs who breed oxen, horses, camels, and sheep; and some other duties: the sultan is besides the chief merchant in the country, and dispatches with every caravan to Egypt a great quantity of his own merchandise. The name of the present sultan is Abd-el-rachman. When Mr Browne was in the country, he was admitted to a great public audience given by the sultan. He found him seated on his throne, under a lofty canopy, attended by his guards. The space in front was filled with suitors and spectators to the number of more than fifteen hundred. A kind of hired encomiast stood on the monarch's left hand, crying out, with all his strength, during the whole ceremony—

"See the buffaloe, the offspring of a buffaloe, a bull of bulls, the elephant of superior strength, the powerful sultan, Abd-el-rachman-el-rashid!—May God prolong thy life!—O Master! may God assist thee and render thee victorious!" Abd-el-rachman usurped the throne from his nephew, whom he conquered in battle in the year 1787."

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**WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA.**

ON the western coast of Africa, proceeding southwards from the empire of Morocco, we pass the country of Zahara, inhabited by Moorish and Arab tribes, called the Monselemines, Mongearts, Wadelims, and Trasarts, who extend nearly to the mouth of the river Senegal, where the French had a fort and factory, and were entire masters of the gum-trade. It is called Fort Louis, was taken by the English in 1758, and confirmed to them by the peace of 1763; but in 1783 it was restored to France. Near Cape Verd is the island of Goree, considered as one of the safest, pleasantest, and most important settlements in all Africa. It was subject to France, but has been lately taken by the English. To the southward of Cape Verd, in latitude 8 deg. 12 min. north, and about 12 deg. long. west, is the settlement of SIERRA LEONE, formed from the purest motives of humanity, under the patronage of a very respectable society of gentlemen in London, in the year 1791. The benevolent purposes for which it was intended are, to introduce the light of knowledge and the comforts of civilization into Africa, and to cement and perpetuate the most confidential union between the European colony and the natives of that country.

A settlement of a similar nature was formed upon the island of Bulam, on the same coast, to the eastward of the island of Bisgos. But this is now entirely relinquished. A great part of the colonists were massacred by the natives of the shore at the mouth of the river Gambia, who were accustomed to make annual plantations of rice in Bulam. The surviving colonists took refuge among their countrymen at Sierra Leone.

In the latter end of September 1794, a French squadron attacked this settlement, carried off or destroyed all the stores and whatever they could find belonging to the Company, and burned all the public buildings and houses of the Europeans, and several
Likewise (as they said, by mistake) of those of the negro colonists. The colony, however, has not been abandoned, but the directors have taken such measures as have repaired their losses, and will no doubt tend still more to increase the trade and cultivation of the settlement. The colonists are on the happiest terms of friendship with the natives, and make great progress in clearing and improving the lands allotted them.

The country or coast of Guinea (or Upper Guinea) extends from 12 deg. west long. to 8 deg. east, nearly in the parallel of 6 deg. north lat. It comprehends the grain coast, the tooth coast, the gold coast, the slave coast, (which includes Whidah and Ardrah, now subject to Dahomy) and Benin. The principal kingdom on these coasts is Dahomy, the monarch of which subdued and annexed to his dominions Whidah and Ardrah between the years 1724 and 1727. The country of Dahomy, as known at present (according to the history of it by Mr Dalzel, governor of Cape Coast Castle), is supposed to reach from the sea-coast about 150 or 200 miles inland, though no European has penetrated above half that distance; the capital, Abomey, lies in about 5 deg. north lat. and 3 deg. 20 min. east lon. The soil is a deep rich clay of a reddish colour, with a little sand on the surface. In some places it is a little light and gravelly; but there is not a stone so big as an egg in the whole country, so far as it has been visited by the Europeans. It plentifully produces, according to the quantity of culture, maize and millet, or Guinea-corn of different sorts, a kind of beans, or rather kidney-beans, called calavances, and also a species of beans, called ground-beans. The Dahomans likewise cultivate yams, potatoes of two sorts, the cassada or manioka: the plaintain and the banana, pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, guavas, and other tropical fruits, also abound in this fertile country. Nor is it destitute of productions adapted for commerce and manufactures; such as indigo, cotton, the sugar-cane, tobacco, palm-oil, together with a variety of spices, particularly a species of pepper very similar in flavour, and indeed scarcely distinguishable from the black pepper of the East Indies. Dahomy abounds with buffaloes, deer, sheep, goats, hogs both wild and domestic, poultry of various kinds, particularly pintadas, or Guinea hens, and Muscovy ducks. The elephant, though its flesh be coarse, is made use of as food by the natives; and dogs are reared for the same purpose. The dress of the men in Dahomy consists of a pair of striped or white cotton drawers of the manufacture of the country, over which they wear a large square cloth of the same, or of European manufacture. This cloth is about the size of a common counterpane for the middling class, but much larger for the grandesse. It is wrapped about the loins, and tied on the left side by two of the corners, the other hanging down and sometimes trailing on the ground. A piece of silk or velvet of sixteen or eighteen yards makes a cloth for a grandee. The head is usually covered with a beaver or felt hat, according to the quality of the wearer. The king, as well as some of his ministers, often wears a gold and silver laced hat and feather. The arms and upper part of the body are usually naked; and the feet are always bare, none but the sovereign being permitted to wear sandals. The dress of the women, though simple, consists of a greater number of articles than that of the men. They use several cloths and handkerchiefs; some to wrap round the loins, and others to cover occasionally the breasts and upper part of the body. They adorn the neck, arms, and ankles, with beads and cowries, and wear rings of silver or baser metals on their fingers; girls, before the age of puberty, wear nothing but a string of beads or shells round their loins, and young women usually expose the breasts to view. The general character of the Dahomans is marked by a mixture of ferocity and politeness. The former appears in the treatment of their enemies: the latter they possess far above the African nations with whom we have hitherto had any intercourse; this being the country where strangers are least exposed to insults, and where it is easy to reside in security and tranquillity. The language is that which the Portuguese call Lingua Geral, or General Tongue, and is spoken not only in Dahomy Proper, but in Whidah, and the other dependent states; and likewise in Mahee, and several neighbouring places. With respect to the Dahoman religion, it consists of a jumble of superstitious ceremonies, of which it is impossible to convey any satisfactory idea. The government is, perhaps, the most perfect despotism on the earth; the policy of the country admits of no intermediate degree of subordination between king and slave, at least in the royal presence, where the prime minister is obliged to prostrate himself.
with as much abject submission as the meanest subject. A minister of state, on his entrance, crawls towards the apartment of audience on his hands and knees, till he arrives in the royal presence, where he lays himself flat on his belly, rubbing his head in the dust, and uttering the most humiliating expressions. Being desired to advance, he receives the king’s commands, or communicates any particular business, still continuing prostrate; for no person is permitted to sit, even on the floor, in the royal presence, except the women, and even they must kiss the ground when they receive or deliver the king’s message. The king of Dahomy maintains a considerable standing army, commanded by an agaow or general, with several other subordinate military officers, who must hold themselves in readiness to take the field upon all occasions, at the command of the sovereign. The payment of these troops chiefly depends on the success of the expeditions in which they are engaged. On extraordinary occasions, all the males able to bear arms are obliged to repair to the general’s standard; every caboccer, or grandee, marching at the head of his own people. Sometimes the king takes the field at the head of his troopers; and, on very great emergencies, at the head of his women. Within the walls of the different royal palaces in Dahomy are immured not less than three thousand women, several hundreds of whom are trained to arms under a female general, and subordinate officers appointed by the king, in the same manner as those under the agaow. These warriors are regularly exercised, and go through their evolutions with as much expertise as the male soldiers. They have their large umbrellas, their flags, their drums, trumpets, flutes, and other musical instruments. The singularity of this institution never fails to attract particularly the attention of Europeans, when among other uncommon exhibitions they are presented with the unusual spectacle of a review of female troops.

Benin is a country to the east of Dahomy, and extending from about 9 deg. north latitude to 1 deg. south. The climate is said to be extremely unhealthy and noxious. The animals are elephants, tigers, leopards, apes, and ostriches, and in the rivers are a great number of crocodiles. The dress of the natives is neat and ornamental. The rich wear white calico or cotton petticoats, but the upper part of the body is commonly naked. The women use great art in dressing their hair, which they adjust in a variety of forms. Polygamy is common, and the king is said to have six hundred wives. Though jealous of each other, they are not so of Europeans, as they think it impossible that the taste of the women can be so depraved as to grant any liberties to a white man. Their religion is paganism. The king exercises an absolute authority: three great officers, distinguished by a string of coral, continually attend upon him to consult, instruct, and decide in his name. He can bring into the field an army of 100,000 men.

Benin, the capital, situated on the river Benin or Formosa, was formerly a very closely built and populous city. In the streets, which are long and broad, are many shops filled with European merchandise, as well as with the commodities of the country. A principal part of the town is occupied by the royal palace, which is of vast extent, but neither elegant nor commodious.

To the south of Benin is the country of Loango, which is about 250 miles in length, and 180 in breadth. The climate of this kingdom is nearly as hot as any under the torrid zone, and much hotter than those of Congo and Angola. Loango was formerly subject to, and made a part of, the kingdom of Congo.

Congo (or Lower Guinea), is the name frequently given to the whole tract of country on the coast from the equator to 18 degrees of south latitude, including the kingdoms of Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela; but Congo Proper is only 150 miles broad along the coast, though it extends, it is said, 370 inland. It is bounded on the north by Loango, on the south by Angola, and on the east by an unknown country, the name of which is said to be Metamba. The climate is extremely hot in summer; but the winters are as mild as the finest springs of Italy. The animals it produces are elephants of a monstrous size, lions, leopards, tigers, wolves, zebras, buffaloes, &c. The country is likewise infested with a vast variety of serpents, some of them of a monstrous length and thickness; rattle-snakes, vipers, scorpions, and venomous insects of various kinds, both flying and reptile; the most pernicious and dangerous of which is the ant or pis-mire, which will not only destroy the fruits of the earth, but in the night surround even
beasts and men in prodigious swarms, and devour them in a few hours, leaving only the bones. The character, manners, religion, and government of the natives of Congo, nearly resemble those of the negro kingdom on this coast. The Portuguese have several settlements in this country.

To the south of Congo is the country of Angola, which is said to be divided among a number of petty princes. The Portuguese have several settlements on the coast; but the English and Dutch traffic with the natives, and purchase a great number of slaves.

Between Angola and the country of the Hottentots are the countries of Benguela and Mataman; but these are very little known to Europeans, and the latter is almost entirely desart.

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COLONY OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

THIS territory is the Dutch settlement at the most southern extremity of Africa, extending about 550 miles in length, from west to east, and 315 in breadth, from south to north. It lies between 30 and 34 and a half degrees of south latitude, and 18 and 28 of east longitude, and is divided into four districts: the Cape district; that of Stellenbosch and Drakensteen; that of Zwel lendam, and that of Graaf Reynet.

"Of this extensive territory," says Mr Barrow,* "a very great portion may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even to be employed as pasture for the support of cattle. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with crystallized sand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of acid, saline, and succulent plants, and chains of vast mountains that are either totally naked, or clothed in parts with sour grasses only, or such plants as are noxious to animal life, compose at least one half of the colony of the Cape. Two of these chains of mountains, called the Zwart Berg, or Black Mountain, and the Neuvoeldt Geberigte, inclose together the great Karroo, or dry desert, extending nearly 300 miles in length, and 90 in breadth, and uninhabited by any human creature. Behind the town called Cape town, are the mountains called the Table Mountain, the Devil's Mountain, the Lion's Head, and the Lion's Back. The Table Mountain is a stupendous mass of naked rock, the north front of which, directly facing the town, is a horizontal line, or very nearly so, about two miles in length. The bold face that rises almost at right angles to meet this line has the appearance of the ruined walls of some gigantic fortress; and these walls rise above the level of Table Bay to the height of 3582 feet. The Devil's Mountain on the one side, and the Lion's Head on the other, make, in fact, with the Table, but one mountain: the height of the former is 3315, and that of the latter 2160 feet. The Devil's Mountain is broken into irregular points, but the upper part of the Lion's Head is a solid mass of stone, rounded and fashioned like a work of art, and resembling very much, from some points of view, the dome of St Paul's placed upon a high cone-shaped-hill. From these mountains descend several rivulets which fall into Table Bay, and False Bay; but the principal rivers of the colony are the Berg or Mountain river, the Breede or Broad river, called also the Orange river, which has its periodical inundations like the Nile, and its cataracts; the Sunday river, and the Great Fish river, which is the boundary of the colony to the east.

The climate of the Cape appears to be in general free from the extremes of either heat or cold, and not in reality unhealthy. It has been usual with the Dutch to consider the year as consisting of two periods, called the good and the bad monsoon; but

* Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa, in 1797 and 1798.
as these," Mr Barrow observes, "are neither regular in their returns, nor certain in their continuance, the division into four seasons, as in Europe, appears to be more proper. The spring, reckoned from the beginning of September to that of December, is the most agreeable season; the summer, from December to March, is the hottest; the autumn, from March to June, is variable weather, generally fine, and the latter part very pleasant; the winter, from June to September, though in general pleasant, is frequently very stormy, rainy, and cold. The two most powerful winds are the north-east, and south-west; the first generally commences towards the end of May, and blows occasionally to the end of August, and sometimes through the month of September. The south-east predominates the rest of the year, and when the cloud shews itself on the mountain, sometimes blows in squalls with great violence." The kind of corn generally cultivated in this country is wheat, which richly repays the labour of the husbandman. Barley and rye are likewise grown, the former of which is preferred to oats for feeding horses. The natural productions of the Cape," says Mr Barrow, "are perhaps more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the whole world. Few countries can boast of so great a variety of bulbous rooted plants as Southern Africa. Most of the European, and several of the tropical fruits have been introduced into the colony, and cultivated with success. In every month of the year the table may be furnished with at least ten different sorts of fruit, green and dry. The market is likewise tolerably well supplied with most of the European vegetables for the table, from the farms that lie scattered about the eastern side of the colony, in number about forty or fifty. On some of these farms are vineyards also of considerable extent, producing, besides the supply of the market with green and ripe grapes, and prepared raisins, about seven hundred leaguers or pipes of wine a-year, each containing 154 gallons. Of these, from fifty to a hundred consist of a sweet luscious wine, well known in England by the name of Constantia, the produce of two farms lying close under the mountains, about mid-way between the two bays. The grape is the muscatel, and the rich quality of the wine is in part owing to the situation and soil, and partly to the care taken in the manufacture. No fruit but such as is full ripe, no stalks are suffered to go under the press: precautions seldom taken by the other farmers of the Cape."

The principal wild animals to be met with near the Cape, are wolves, hyænas, and various kinds of antelopes, among which are those called by the Dutch the spring-bok, the gemsboke, and the griesboke, the former of which is remarkable for its agility, whence it derives its name: according to the accounts of the peasants they sometimes go in herds to the amount of ten thousand in number. More inland are lions, tigers, buffaloes, elephants, and in the rivers, hippopotami, called by the Dutch, sea-cows. The horses of the Cape are not indigenous, but were first introduced from Java, and since that, at different times, from various parts of the world. The heavy draught work of the colony is chiefly performed by oxen. The cape ox is distinguished by his long legs, high shoulders, and large horns. The larger kinds of birds which hover round the summit of the Table-mountain, are eagles, vultures, kites, and crows. Mr Barrow wounded a condor, whose wings extended ten feet and an inch.

The general character of the Dutch at the Cape is a phlegmatic dulness, and an eager desire of gain. The minds of every class seem to be wholly bent on trade, yet none are opulent, though many are in easy circumstances. There are no beggars in the whole colony, and but a few who are the objects of public charity. The ladies of the Cape, it has been remarked by most travellers, are pretty, lively, and good-humoured; possessing little of that phlegmatic temper which so distinguishes the other sex. They are expert at the needle, at all kinds of lace knotting and tambour work; and in general make up their own dresses, following the prevailing fashions of England, brought from time to time by the female passengers bound to India. The Dutch planters or farmers farther up the country, are remarkable for their indolence and sensuality, and too many of them for their moroseness, and the severity and cruelty with which they treat the Hottentots, their slaves. They, however, possess one virtue, that of hospitality to strangers, in an eminent degree, and in general are, or affect to be, very religious.

Cape-town, the capital of this colony, and indeed the only assemblage of houses which deserves the name of a town, is pleasantly sitted at the head of Table-bay, on a sloping
plain that rises with an easy ascent to the foot of the Devil's-hill, the Table-mountain, and the Lion's head before-mentioned. The town, consisting of about 1100 houses, built with regularity, and kept in neat order, is disposed into straight and parallel streets, intersecting each other at right angles. Many of the streets are open and airy, with canals of water running through them, walled in, and planted on each side with oaks; others are narrow and ill-paved. Three or four squares give an openness to the town. In one is held the public market; another is the common resort of the peasantry with their waggon ; and a third, near the shore of the bay, and between the town and the castle, serves as a parade for exercising the troops. The barracks, originally intended for an hospital, for corn magazins, and wine cellars, is a large, well designed, regular building, which, with its two wings, occupies part of one of the sides of the great square. The upper part of this building is sufficiently spacious to contain 4000 men. The castle affords barracks for 1000 men, and lodgings for all the officers of one regiment; magazines for artillery, stores and ammunition; and most of the public officers of government are within its walls. The other public buildings are a Calvinist and a Lutheran church, a guard-house, in which the burgour-senate, or the council of burgurers, meet for transacting business relative to the interior police of the town; a large building, in which the government slaves, to the number of 330, are lodged; and the court of justice, where civil and criminal causes are heard and determined. The population of the town is estimated at about 6000 whites, inclusive of the military, and 12,000 slaves:—that of the whole colony, exclusive of the town, is estimated at only 15,000 whites. Between the town and Table-mountain are scattered over the plain a number of neat houses surrounded by plantations and gardens. Of these the largest and nearest to the town is that in which the government-house is erected. It is in length near 1000 yards, and contains about 40 acres of rich land, divided in almost as many squares by oak hedges.*

The government of the Cape is administered by a Dutch governor and lieutenant-governor, assisted by a council. Over each of the four districts there is a civil magistrate, called the landroost, who with six henvraonen, or a council of country burgurers, is vested with powers to regulate the police of his district, superintend the affairs of government, adjust litigations, and determine petty causes. Their decisions, however, are subject to an appeal to the court of justice in Cape-town, in which the basis of the proceedings is the Roman or civil law.

The southern extremity of Africa was discovered by the Portuguese navigator Bartholomew Diaz, in 1492, who gave it the name of Cabo Tormentoso, or the cape of storms, from the boisterous weather which he met with near it; but Emanuel, king of Portugal, on the return of Diaz, changed its name to that of the Cape of Good Hope, from the hope he entertained of finding beyond it a passage to India. This hope was fulfilled by Vasco de Gama, who, having doubled this cape on the 20th November 1497, proceeded to India, and landed at Calicut on the 22d of May 1498. The Portuguese, however, made no settlement in this part of Africa, nearer to the Cape than the banks of the Rio Infante, now the Great Fish River, which is 600 miles distant from it. In 1600 the Dutch first visited it, but for many years only touched at it in their voyages to and from the East Indies, to supply themselves with water and fresh provisions. At length in 1650, a surgeon of one of their India ships, named Van Riebeek, pointed out to the directors of the Dutch East India company the great advantages that would be derived from establishing a settlement on this place. The company adopted his plan, and sent out four ships under his command to commence the settlement he had advised. With some presents of brass, toys, beads, tobacco, and brandy, he purchased of the natives permission to build a fort and form a settlement in their country; and from that time the Cape remained in the undisturbed possession of the Dutch, during the space of nearly 150 years, till it surrendered by capitulation to the British arms under general Alured Clark, and admiral Sir George Keith Elphinstone, on the 16th of September 1795. It was, however, restored by the treaty of Amiens; but again taken possession of by the British under general Baird and Sir Home Popham, in 1806.

* Barrow.
AFRICA.

COUNTRY OF THE HOTENTOTS.

The country of the Hottentots is a large region in the southern extremity of Africa, extending north by west from the Cape of Good Hope beyond the mouth of Orange-river, and from the Cape in an east-north-east direction to the mouth of the Great Fish-river.

The Hottentots of the colony of the Cape, formerly the possessors of the country, are now almost to a man the slaves of the Dutch. "This weak people," says Mr Barrow, "the most helpless, and in their present condition, perhaps the most wretched of the human race, duped out of their possessions, their country, and finally out of their liberty, have entailed upon their miserable offspring a state of existence to which that of slavery might bear the comparison of happiness. It is a condition, however, not likely to continue to a very remote posterity. The name of Hottentot will be forgotten, or remembered only as that of a deceased person of little note. Their numbers of late years have rapidly declined." There are still, however, several tribes to which the general name of Hottentot * is given, as the Namaquas, the Bosjesmans, and the Gonaquas, who still preserve their independence. The former vary but little in their persons and dress from the Hottentots of the Cape and the Gonaquas, though their language is widely different. The Bosjesmen, or men of the bush, so called from their lying in ambush in their predatory expeditions against the farmers of the colony, "are," says Mr Barrow, "an extraordinary race of people. In their persons they are extremely diminutive: the tallest of the men measured only four feet nine inches, and the tallest woman only four feet four inches. One of these, who had several children, measured only three feet nine inches. Their colour, their hair, and the general turn of their features, evidently denote a common origin with the other tribes of Hottentots, though the latter, in point of personal appearance, have greatly the advantage. The Bosjesmen indeed are amongst the ugliest of all human beings. The flat nose, high cheek-bones, prominent chin, and concave visage, partake much of the apeiish character, which their keen eye, always in motion, tends not to diminish. Their bellies are uncommonly protuberant, and their backs hollow; but their limbs seem to be in general well turned and well proportioned. Their activity is incredibly great. The klip-springing antelope can scarcely exceed them in leaping from rock to rock, and they are said to be so swift, that on rough ground, or up the sides of mountains, horsemen have no chance with them. The Bosjesman, however, though in every respect a Hottentot, yet in his turn of mind differs very widely from those who live in the colony. In his disposition he is lively and cheerful, and in his person active. His talents are far above mediocrity; and averse to idleness, he is seldom without employment. Confined generally to their hovels by day, for fear of being surprised and taken by the farmers, they sometimes dance on moon-light nights from the setting to the rising of the sun. This cheerfulness is the more extraordinary, as the morsel they procure to support existence is earned with danger and fatigue. The Bosjesmen neither cultivate the ground nor breed cattle, and their country yields few natural productions that serve for food. The bulbs of the iris, a few roots of a bitter and pungent taste, and the larvae of ants and locusts are all it furnishes; and when these fail they are driven to the necessity of hazarding a toilsome and dangerous expedition into the colony.

Of the Gonaquas, and the Hottentots in general, we shall give an account from M. Vaillant, a late French traveller: "During the thirty-six hours which I spent (says M. Vaillant) with the Gonaqua Hottentots, I had time to make several observations concerning them. I remarked that they made a clapping noise with their tongue, like the rest of the Hottentots. When they accost any one, they stretch forth the hand,

* This name, according to Mr Barrow, is unknown to the Hottentots, except as they have received it from the Dutch, and has no place or meaning in their language. The general name which they bear among themselves, in every part of the country, is Quaqua.
saying *Take!* I salute you. This word and ceremony, which are employed by the Caffirs, or Kaffers, are not used by the Hottentots properly so called.

"This affinity of customs, manners, and even conformation; their being so near Great Caffaria, and the accounts I afterwards received, convinced me that these hordes of Gonaquas, who equally resemble the Caffirs and the Hottentots, must be a mixed breed produced by these two nations. The dress of the men, arranged with more symmetry, has the same shape as that of the Hottentots; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of caives' instead of sheeps' skins; they are both called kross. Several of them wear, hanging from their necks, a bit of ivory, or very white sheep bone; and this contrast of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

"When the weather is excessively hot, the men lay aside every part of their dress that is superfluous, and retain only what they name their jackals. This is a piece of skin of the animal so called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is fastened to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be considered as an useless appendage, and is of very little service to their modesty. The women, much fonder of dress than the men, employ more care in adorning their persons. They wear a kross like the latter, but the apron which conceals their sex is larger than that of the Hottentots. During the great heats they retain only this apron, with a skin which descends behind from their girdle to the calf of the leg: young girls below the age of nine years go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age, they wear nothing but a small apron.

"Whatever may be the extent of the deserts of Africa, we must not form any calculation respecting its population from those innumerable swarms of blacks which are found on the west, and which border all the coast of the ocean from the Canary isles to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard even a conjecture; since by a trade approved by a few, and held in detestation by the greater number, the barbarous navigators of Europe have induced these negroes, by the most villainous attractions, to give up their prisoners, or those who are inferior to them in strength. As their wants increased, they have become inhuman and pernicious beings: the prince has sold his subjects; the mother has sold her son; and nature, as an accomplice, has rendered her prolific.

"This disgusting and execrable traffic is, however, still unknown in the interior parts of the continent. The desert is really a desert; and it is only at certain distances that we meet with a few hordes, that are not numerous, and who live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce of their cattle. After finding one horde, we must travel a great way to find another. The heat of the climate, the dryness of the sands, the barrenness of the earth, a scarcity of water, rugged and rocky mountains, ferocious animals; and, besides these, the humour of the Hottentots, a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament—-are all obstacles to propagation. When a father has six children, it is accounted a phenomenon.

"The country of the Gonaquas, into which I penetrated, did not therefore contain three thousand people in an extent of thirty or forty leagues. These people did not resemble those degenerated and miserable Hottentots, who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies, contemptible and despised inhabitants, who bear no marks of their ancient origin but an empty name; and who enjoy, at the expence of their liberty, only a little peace, purchased at a dear rate, by the excessive labour to which they are subjected on the plantations, and by the despotism of their chiefs, who are always sold to government. I had here an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, valuing nothing but independence, and never obeying any impulse foreign to nature.

"Their huts, constructed like those of the Hottentots in the colonies, were eight or nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox sheep skins, but more commonly with mats. They had only one opening, very narrow and low; and it was in the middle of their hut that the family kindled their fire. The thick smoke with which these kennels were filled, and which had no other vent but the door, added to the stench which they always retain, would have stifled any European who might have had the courage to re-
main in them two minutes: custom, however, renders all this supportable to these vages.

The two colours for which they show the greatest fondness are red and black. The first is composed of a kind of ochre earth, which is found in several places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with grease; this earth has a great resemblance to brick-dust, or tiles reduced to powder. Their black is nothing else than soot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women, indeed, are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments, varied with a certain degree of symmetry: and this part of their dress requires no small length of time. These two colours, so much admired by the Hottentots, are always perfumed with the powder of the boughou, which is not very agreeable to the smell of an European. A Hottentot would, perhaps, find our odours and essences no less insupportable; but the boughou has over our rouge and pastes the advantage of not being perricious to the skin, of not attacking and injuring the lungs; and the female Hottentot, who is acquainted with neither amber, musk, nor benzoin, never knows what it is to be oppressed by vapours, spasms, and the head-ache. The men never paint their faces, but they use a preparation made of both colours mixed to paint the upper lip as far as the nostrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odour of the substance employed for this purpose. Young girls sometimes favour their lovers so far as to apply this paint for them under the nose; and on this point they show a kind of coquetry, which has a very powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, must not infer that the Hottentot women pay so much attention to dress as to neglect those daily and useful occupations to which nature and their usages call them. Separated from Europe by an immensity of sea, and from the Dutch colonies by desert mountains and impassable rocks, too much communication with these people has not yet led them to the excesses of our depravation. On the contrary, when they have the happiness of becoming mothers, Nature addresses them in a different language; they assume, more than in any other country, a spirit suitable to their estate, and readily give themselves up to those cares which she imperiously requires of them.

They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exercise they display great dexterity. Besides gins and snares, which they place at convenient spots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them also, attack them as soon as they appear, and kill them with their poisoned arrows, or their assagays, which are a kind of lances. On the first view of their arrows, one would not suspect how destructive weapons they are: their smallness renders them so much the more dangerous, as it is impossible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and consequently to avoid them. The slightest wound which they make always proves mortal, if the poison reaches the blood, and if the flesh be torn. The surest remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb; but if the wound be in the body, death is unavoidable. The assay is generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; but, besides this, its length renders it not dangerous, for as it may be seen cleaving the air, it is not difficult to avoid it.

The Hottentots have not the least notion of the elements of agriculture; they neither sow nor plant, nor do they even reap any crop. When they choose to give themselves the trouble, they make an intoxicating liquor, composed of honey and a certain root, which they suffer to ferment in a sufficient quantity of water. This liquor, which is a kind of hydromel, is not their usual beverage, nor do they ever keep a stock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themselves in this manner at certain periods. They smoke the leaves of a plant which they name dagha, and not daka, as some authors have written. This plant is not indigenous: it is the hemp of Europe. There are some of the savages who prefer these leaves to tobacco; but the greatest part of them are fond of mixing both together. They set less value on the pipes brought from Europe, than on those which they fabricate themselves; the former appear to them to be too small.

Though they rear abundance of sheep and oxen, they seldom kill the latter, unless some accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for service. Their principal nourishment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows, besides
which they have the produce of their hunting excursions, and from time to time they kill a sheep. To fatten their animals, they employ a process, which, though not practised in Europe, is no less efficacious, and has this peculiar advantage, that it requires no care. They bruise, between two flat stones, those parts which they deprive them of by the knife; and when thus compressed, they acquire in time a prodigious bulk, and become a most delicate morsel, when they have resolved to sacrifice the animal.

"Those oxen which they intend for carrying burdens, must be broke and trained very early to the service, otherwise they would become absolutely untractable. On this account, when the animal is still young, they pierce the cartilage which separates the nostrils, and thrust through the hole a piece of stick about eight or ten inches in length, and almost an inch in diameter. The task of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women: and, as they never beat or torment them, they are surprisingly tractable.

"Of their sheep and kine each village has one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions very different from those which are taken by our herdsmen, beasts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroses, leopards, tigers, hyaenas, and several kinds of wolves more destructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go or send every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, when he is inevitably destroyed.

"These savages measure the year by the seasons of drought and rainy weather. This division is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and it is subdivided into moons; but they never count the days if they exceed ten; that is to say, the number of their figures. Beyond that, they mark the day or the time by some remarkable occurrence: for example, an extraordinary storm, an elephant killed, an infectious disorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the day they distinguish by the course of the sun; and they will tell you, pointing with their fingers, He was there when I departed, and here when I arrived.

"A sense of delicacy induces the Hottentots to keep themselves separate from others when they are sick. They are then seldom seen, and it would appear that they are ashamed of having lost their health.

"When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worst kross, and the limbs are disposed in such a manner that the whole body is covered. The relations then carry it to a certain distance from the horde, and disposing it in a pit dug for this purpose, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with stones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mausoleum proves but a very weak defence against the attacks of the jackal and the hyaena: the body indeed is soon dug up and devoured. However badly this last duty may be discharged, the Hottentots are not much blamed, when we call to mind the funeral ceremonies of the ancient and celebrated Paris, still attached to the custom of exposing their dead on the tops of high towers, in open cemeteries, in order that the crows and the vultures may feed upon them and carry them away in morsels. The children, and, failing them, the nearest relations of the deceased, take possession of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their councils his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor divisions; each attack, or defends after his own manner, the most intrepid march in the van; and when victory declares itself, they do not bestow upon one man the honour of an action which has proved successful by the courage of all; it is the whole nation that triumphs.
"Of all the people whom I ever saw, (observes our author,) the Gonaquas are the only nation that can be considered as free; but they will perhaps be soon obliged, to remove to a greater distance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the east being in general good, the planters endeavour to extend their possessions in that quarter as much as they can, and their avarice doubtless will some day succeed. Misery must then be the portion of these happy and peaceable people; and every trace of their liberty will be destroyed by massacres and invasions. Thus have all those hordes mentioned by old authors been treated; and, by being often dismembered and weakened, they are now reduced to a state of absolute dependence on the Dutch. The existence of the Hottentots, their names, and their history, will therefore in time be accounted fabulous; unless some traveller, who may possess curiosity enough to induce him to discover their remains, should have the courage to penetrate into the remote deserts inhabited by the great Nimiquas, where rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a single plant worthy to engage the attention of the speculative botanist.

"A physiognomist, or, if the reader pleases, a modern wit, would entertain his company by assigning to the Hottentot, in the scale of beings, a place between a man and the orang-outang. I cannot, however, consent to this systematic arrangement; the qualities which I esteem in him will never suffer him to be degraded so far; and I have found his figure sufficiently beautiful, because I experienced the goodness of his heart. It must indeed be allowed, that there is something peculiar in his features, which in a certain degree separates him from the generality of mankind. His cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; so that his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw-bones, on the contrary, extremely narrow, his visage continues still decreasing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankness, which makes his head appear very much disproportioned, and too small for his full and plump body. His flat nose rises scarcely half an inch at its greatest elevation; and his nostrils, which are excessively wide, often exceed in height the ridge of his nose. His mouth is large, and furnished with small teeth well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the nose, like those of the Chinese; and to the sight and touch his hair has the resemblance of wool; it is very short, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no small care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinness of his eye-brows saves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the nose, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as soon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look; which, joined to the natural mildness of his character, destroys that commanding fierceness usual among savages. The women, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the same characteristic marks in their figure: they are equally well made. Their breasts, admirably placed, have a most beautiful form while in the bloom of youth: and their hands are small, and their feet exceedingly well shaped, though they never wear sandals. The sound of their voice is soft; and their idiom, passing through the throat, is not destitute of harmony. When they speak, they employ a great many gestures, which give power and gracefulness to their arms."

The Hottentots are naturally timid; their phlegmatic coolness, and their serious looks, give them an air of reserve, which they never lay aside, even at the most joyful moments: while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themselves up to pleasure with the liveliest joy, and without any restraint.

A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them very much to inactivity and indulgence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a subsistence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as sportsmen, but like people oppressed and tormented by hunger. In short, forgetting the past, and being under no uneasiness for the future, they are struck only with the present: and it is that which alone engages their attention.

They are, however, (observes M. Vaillant) the best, the kindest, and the most hospitable of people. Whoever travels among them may be assured of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive presents, yet they never ask for any thing. If
the traveller has a long journey to accomplish, and if they learn from the information he requires that there are no hopes of his soon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit supply him with provisions as far as their circumstances will allow, and with every thing else necessary for his continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his destination. Such are these people, or at least such did they appear to me, in all the innocence of manners and of a pastoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a state of infancy.

This favourable character of the Hottentots in general is confirmed by Mr Barrow, who says of them: “Low as they are sunk in the scale of humanity, their character seems to have been much traduced and misrepresented. It is true there is nothing prepossessing in the appearance of a Hottentot, but infinitely less so in the many ridiculous and false relations by which the public have been abused. They are a mild, quiet, and timid people; perfectly harmless, honest, faithful; and though extremely phlegmatic, they are kind and affectionate to each other, and not incapable of strong attachments. A Hottentot would share his last morsel with his companions. They have little of that kind of art or cunning that savages generally possess. If accused of crimes of which they have been guilty, they generally divulge the truth. They seldom quarrel among themselves, or make use of provoking language. Though naturally of a fearful and cowardly disposition, they will run into the face of danger, if led on by their superiors; and they suffer pain with great patience. They are by no means deficient in talent, but they possess little exertion to call into action; the want of which has been the principal cause of their ruin.”

CAFFRARIA.

CAFFRARIA is a very extensive region, bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyssinia; on the west by part of Guinea, Congo, and the sea; on the south by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the east by the sea. It is divided into several territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long, and 660 broad.

The men among the Caffres (or Kaffers,) says Lieutenant Paterson, are from five feet ten inches to six feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beasts of prey.

The colour of the Caffres is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The clothing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened on their heads, with many other fantastical ornaments.

The soil of this country is a blackish loamy ground, and so extremely fertile, that every vegetable substance, whether sown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance. There are great variations in the climate; but I had no thermometer to observe the degrees of heat. It seldom rains except in the summer-season, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well supplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furnishes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, which are found in the woods. From what I observed in this country, I am induced to believe, that it is greatly superior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce a variety of arboreous plants, and some of a great size; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were also varieties of beautiful birds and butterflies; but they were so shy, that I was able only to preserve two birds of that country.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle; and to such a height do they carry this passion, that, if one particularly pleases them, they will give

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two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exercise through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances; and in time of war use shields made of the hides of oxen.

To judge of the Caffres by those I had seen, says M. Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquas, though they greatly resemble the latter, but are more robust, and possess a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffres are likewise more agreeable, none of their faces contracting towards the bottom; nor do the cheek-bones of these people project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours, the negroes of Mosambique, but a well formed contour, an agreeable nose, with eyes sparkling and expressive: so that, setting aside our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many women among them who might be thought handsome by the side of an European lady. They do not disfigure themselves by daubing their eyebrows, like the Hottentots, but are very much tattooed, particularly about the face.

The hair of the Caffres, which is strong and curling, is never greased, but they anoint the rest of their bodies, with a view of making themselves active and strong. The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and brass rings. They are seldom seen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tusk of an elephant, which they saw to a convenient thickness, and then polish and round. As these rings cannot be opened, it is necessary to make them big enough to pass the hand through, so that they fall or rise according to the motion of the arm; sometimes they place small rings on the arms of their children, whose growth soon fills up the space, and fixes the ornament; a circumstance which is particularly pleasing to them.

They likewise make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they polish and whiten in the most perfect manner. Some content themselves with the leg-bone of a sheep hanging on the breast. In the warm season the Caffres only wear their ornaments; when the weather is cold they make use of krosses made of the skins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deserves attention, and does not exist elsewhere, is, that the Caffre women care little for ornaments. Indeed, they are well made, and pretty, when compared to other savages; and never use the uncouth profusion of Hottentot coquetry, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like those of the Gonaquas, are bordered with small rows of beads; which is the only vanity they exhibit.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate several vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country; such as tobacco, water-melons, a sort of kidney-beans, and hemp. The women also make baskets, and the mats which they sleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in such a way as to be able to turn them into any shape they please; and they teach them to answer a whistle. When they wish their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the house, and blow this small instrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and so constructed as to be heard at a great distance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The lands of Caffraria, either from their situation, or the number of small rivers that refresh them, are more fertile than that of the Hottentots. The Caffres practise agriculture; which proves they are not naturally wanderers.

I have remarked, continues M. Vaillant, that, notwithstanding the beautiful forests that adorn Caffraria, and delightful pastures which spring up and almost cover the animals which feed on them; notwithstanding those rivers and streams which cross each other in a thousand different directions, to render them rich and fertile; their oxen, their cows, and almost all their animals, are much smaller than those of the Hottentots; a difference which undoubtedly arises from the nature of the sap, and a certain flavour predominant in every kind of grass. I have made the observation both on domestic and wild animals, which never acquire the size of those bred in the dry barren countries I have passed through.

The huts of the Caffres are higher and more commodious than those of the Hottentots: they form perfect hemispheres, and are composed of wooden work, very strong and
compact, covered both within and without of a mixture of earth, clay, and cow-dung. The opening, or door-way, is so low, that to enter the dwelling you must crawl on your hands and knees; which makes it easier to defend themselves against animals, or the sudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth, or fire-place, is in the centre, surrounded by a circular rim which rises two or three inches.

The skin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffre woman wears as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom, which it covers. They have, like the men, a kross, or cloak, of calf or ox skin, divested of the hair; but it is only in the cold or rainy season that either sex wear it. These skins are soft and pliant as the finest stuffs. Let the weather or season prove ever so bad, neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have seen the head of a Caffre adorned with a feather stuck in the hair; but this sight is by no means common.

One part of the daily occupation of the women, is making earthen-ware, which they fashion as dexterously as their husbands; they likewise make a curious kind of baskets, of a texture so compact as to contain milk; and they also prepare the fields for seed, scratching the earth, rather than digging it, with wooden pick-axes.

Industry is a leading trait in the character of the Caffres. Some arts, taught indeed by necessity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, distinguish them as a more civilized people than those towards the south.

Circumcision, which is generally practised among them, prove: that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have simply imitated the inhabitants of some neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance; they do not use it (as they say) in any religious or mystical sense.

They acknowledge a Supreme Being, and believe in a future state, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked punished; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies. They instruct their own children, having no priests; but, instead of them, a kind of sorcerers or conjurors, whom they greatly distinguish and revere.

The Caffres are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people; neither attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed; these being his only resources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher nor better decorated than the rest; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts: the adjoining lands are generally of his own cultivation.

It is a custom among the Caffres, for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nourishment, and which they grind or crush between two stones; for which reason, the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasion small hordes sometimes to occupy a league square of ground; a circumstance never seen among the Hottentots.

The distance of the different hordes makes it necessary that they should have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he sends for and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to the different hordes.

The principal weapon of the Caffre is the lance, or asaygay; which shows his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble, despising, as below his courage, the envenomed dart, so much in use among his neighbours, seeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a shield, of about three feet in height, made of the thickest part of the hide of a bufaloe; this defends him from the arrow, or asaygay, but is not proof against a musket-ball. The Caffre also manages with great skill a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick in the largest part, and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. When in a close engagement, they strike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the distance of fifteen or twenty paces; in which case it seldom fails of the intended effect.
The sovereignty here is hereditary, the eldest son always succeeding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother that succeeds, but the eldest nephew; and in case the king should have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon these occasions the spirit of party sometimes prevails, which gives rise to factions and intrigues that generally end in bloodshed.

Polygamy is customary among the Caffres; their marriages are even more simple than those of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but seldom refuse their consent; after which they rejoice, drink, and dance, for weeks together, according to the wealth of the families; but these feasts are never held but on the first espousals. They have no musical instruments, but such as are used by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the step is not unlike the English.

At the death of the father, the sons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters, claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unless it pleases some man to take them; and if this circumstance takes place during the life of the parents, they receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are seldom buried, but carried away from the kraal, by their family, and deposited in a deep trench common to the whole horde on such occasions, where the wild beasts repair at leisure; which preserves the air from those noxious vapours which otherwise the putrefaction would occasion. The honours of burial are due only to the king or chief of a horde; they cover these bodies with piles of stones in the form of a dome.

EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

On the Eastern coast of Africa, proceeding northwards from the Cape of Good Hope, we find the country of Sofala, where the Portuguese have a settlement of great importance for their trade to the East-Indies, which is protected by a fort built on a small island near the mouth of a river. The natives of Sofala are for the most part black, with short curled hair, there being but very few tawny or brown among them. Those on the coast speak the Arabic language, for they are not the original natives, but descendants of Arabs who settled on this coast. Sofala, according to the report of the Portuguese settlers, contains some gold mines of considerable value.

To the northward of Sofala is Monomotapa or Mocaranga, a country lying between the 15th and 20th degrees of south latitude. The climate is temperate, and the soil fertile in rice and sugar-canes, which last grow without cultivation. There are here vast herds of elephants, and great numbers of ostriches. This country possesses mines of gold and silver. The inhabitants are negroes. Like most of the other nations of Africa, they admit of unlimited polygamy; and the king is said to have above a thousand wives, most of them the daughters of petty chiefs. The army of the king consists only of foot, for there are no horses in the country. The Portuguese had a settlement here in 1560, but they were all murdered or forced away.

Beyond Mocaranga, still proceeding northward, stretches the extensive country of Zanguebar, containing the kingdoms of Mosambique, Melinda, and several others. Mosambique consists of three islands, on the west side of a channel of the same name. The principal, which is not more than three miles in length, and half as much in breadth, is about two miles from the continent. It was seized by the Portuguese in 1497, and they have kept possession of it ever since.

The capital of this island, named likewise Mosambique, is large and well fortified, having a strong citadel to defend the harbour. The Portuguese generally keep a strong garrison here; and trade with the natives, for gold, elephants' teeth, and slaves.
They have built several churches and monasteries, and a large hospital for sick sailors. Their ships always call here in going to the East Indies, and the harbour is so commodious, that whole fleets may anchor, and provide themselves with all necessaries. Mozambique is situated in lat. 15° deg. 5 min. south, lon. 40 deg. 10 min. east.

The kingdom of Melinda produces gold, elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, wax, aloes, senna, and other drugs; also plenty of rice, sugar, cocoa-nuts, and other tropical fruits. The natives are some of them black, and some tawny: the women are mostly of an olive complexion. Their dress, among the higher classes, is remarkably elegant; for they never appear abroad but in fine silks girt with rich gold or silver girdles, collars and bracelets of the same, or something more valuable, and their heads covered with veils. The men wear a kind of turban; in other respects their dress consists of a piece of cotton wrapped about the middle, and descending a little below the knees; their legs, feet, and the rest of the body, are quite bare. The meaner sort, and those who live farther from the coast, wear little else than a piece of cloth round the middle, if we except their shield and weapons, which are the bow and arrows, the scymetar and javelin. Their government is monarchical; and in such veneration is the king held by his subjects, that, whenever he stirs out from his palace, he is carried in a sedan on the shoulders of four or more of the greatest nobles of the kingdom; and incense and other perfumes are burned before him, as he goes through the streets of any city, by a great number of ladies, who sing songs in his praise, accompanied by various kinds of musical instruments. The population of the kingdom is estimated at about 200,000 persons. With respect to religion, the generality are Pagans, some are Mohammedans, and some Christians, converted by the Portuguese, who have in the capital (likewise named Melinda) seventeen churches, nine convents, and warehouses well provided with European goods. The city is surrounded by fine gardens, and has a good harbour defended by a fort; but the entrance is dangerous on account of the great number of shoals and rocks under water.

The country of Ajan is the boundary of Zanguebar towards the north. It lies between lat. 2 deg. and 12 deg. north, extending from the river Magadoxo to Cape Guardafui, and contains several states or kingdoms; the principal of which are Adel or Zeila, and Magadoxo, the inhabitants of both which are Mohammedans. All the eastern coast of Ajan is said to be sandy and barren, but to the north the country is more fertile. The kings of Ajan are frequently at war with the emperor of Abyssinia, and sell the prisoners which they take: they trade likewise in ivory, gold, and horses of an excellent breed.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Of the African islands, some lie in the Eastern, or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western, or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are, Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagascar, the Comora islands, Bourbon and Mauritius.

ZOCOTRA. This island is situate in east long. 55°; north lat. 12° thirty leagues east of Cape Guardafui, on the continent of Africa: it is eighty miles long, and fifty four broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ships used formerly to put in when they lost their passage to India. It is a populous, plentiful country, yielding most of the fruits and plants that are usually found within the tropics, together with frankincense, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mohammedans of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince, or sheik, who is probably tributary to the Porte.
BABELMANDEL. The island of Babelmandel gives name to the strait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is situate, in east long. 44° 30' north lat. 12°; about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyssinian shores. The Abyssinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabsians, formerly contended with great fury for the possession of this island, as it commands the entrance into the Red Sea, and preserves a communication with the ocean. This strait was formerly the only passage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but since the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The island is of little value, being a barren sandy spot of earth not five miles round.

COMORA. These islands are five; Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angaeei, and Comora, situate between 41° and 46° east long. and between 10° and 14° south lat. at an equal distance from Madagascar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, or Hinzuan, the chief, and which exacts tribute from the others, is about thirty miles long and fifteen broad, and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East India ships, bound to Bombay, usually touch here for refreshments. The inhabitants are negroes, of the Mohammedan religion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largest of the African islands, and is situate between 43° and 51° east long. and between 12° and 26° south lat. 300 miles south-east of the continent of Africa; it being nearly 1000 miles in length from north to south, and generally between 200 and 300 miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is extremely rough, between this island and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or passage, through which all European ships in their voyage to and from India generally sail, unless prevented by storms.

Madagascar is a pleasant, desirable, and fertile country, abounding in sugar, honey, vines, fruit-trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious stones, iron, some silver, copper, steel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and champaign; watered with numerous rivers, and well stored with fish. The air is generally temperate, and said to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; some white, some negroes; some Mohammedans, some Pagans. The whites, and those of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coasts, are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language and their religious rites; but here are no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship, except that they offer sacrifices of beasts on particular occasions; as when sick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their assemblies, circumcise their children, declare war, enter into new-built houses, or bury their dead. Some of their ceremonies and practices resemble the Jewish, whence it is conjectured they are descended from Jews who formerly settled here, though no one knows how or when. This island was discovered by the Portuguese, and the French took possession of it in 1741; but the people disliking the government, they were driven out in 1652; since which the natives have had the sole possession of the island, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon each other for slaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their stadtholder. It is situate in east long. 56°, south lat. 20°, about 400 miles east of Madagascar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding fifty large ships, secure against any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce the best ebony in the world, besides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The island is watered with several pleasing rivers, well stocked with fish, and, though the soil is none of the most fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. It was formerly subject to the Dutch, but is now in the possession of the French.

BOURBON. The isle of Bourbon is situate in east long. 54, south lat. 21, about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good
roads for shipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and south sides; but hardly a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting along shore is at all times dangerous. On the southern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames and smoke, with a hideous roaring noise. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the sea and land: sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation; but generally without any other bad consequence than frightening the inhabitants. This island abounds in brooks and springs, and in fruits, grass, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort, in great plenty. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergrise, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle-doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye, and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor. Since the revolution, they have given it the name of Reunion.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar, and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world, and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean, lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa, or the old world, on the east; and America, or the new world, on the west; towards which division we now steer our course, touching in our way at the following islands upon the African coast, that have not yet been described; viz. St Helena, Ascension, St Matthew, St Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verdi, the Canary and Madeira islands.

St HELENA. The first island on this side the Cape is St Helena, situate in west long. 5° 49' south lat. 15° 55', being 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1500 east of South America. The island is a rock, about twenty-one miles in circumference, very high and very steep, and only accessible at the landing place, in a small valley at the east end of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even there. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn: of the last, however, most part is devoured by rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed, so that the flour they use is almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden vegetables. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkeys, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, silks, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c.

St Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese in 1502, on the festival of the empress Helena, mother of the emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here; and the English East India Company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. However, the English, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East India ships that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, most of them descended from Eng.
lish parents. The East India ships take in water and fresh provisions here in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them, outward bound, that they then very seldom see it.

The Company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the Company, besides a public table, well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers, are welcome.

ASCENSION. This island is situate in 7 deg. 57 min. south lat. and 13 deg. 59 min. west long. 600 miles north-west of St Helena: it received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day, and is a mountainous barren island, about twenty miles round, and uninhabited; but it has a safe convenient harbour, where the East India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtle or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above 100 pounds each. The sailors going ashore in the night-time frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

St MATTHEW. This is a small island lying in 6° 1' west long. and 1° 30' south lat. 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time, but afterwards deserted it. This island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. St THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCE'S ISLAND, and FERNANDOPO, are situate in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and are still in the possession of that nation, and furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. west long. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were first discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about twenty in number; but some of them being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St Nicholas, St Lucia, St Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St Antonio, are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans and negroes.

St JAGO, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits, plenty of roots, and garden vegetables; but the plant of most consequence to them is the madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs: Here is also plenty of hogs and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkeys, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya, (famous for an action between an English and French squadron,) is situate on the east-side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships; those outward-bound to Guinea or the East Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of MAYO, or MAY, immense quantities of salt are made by the heat of the sun from the sea-water, which at spring tides is received into a sort of pan formed by a sand-bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English carry on a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ships come hither for a freight of asses, which they carry to Barbadoes, and other British plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even the governor and priests, are all negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The negro governor expects a small present from every commander that loads salt, and is pleased to be invited aboard
their ships. The sea water is so clear on this coast, that an English sailor who dropped his watch perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The island of FOGO is remarkable for being a volcano, continually sending up sulphureous exhalations; and sometimes the flame breaks forth like Etna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice-stones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is situate within cannon-shot of Cape Verd, in N. lat. 14° 42' W. long. 17° 20', and was so called by the Dutch from an island and town of the same name in Holland. It is a small spot not exceeding two miles in circumference; but its importance arises from its situation for trade so near Cape Verd, and it has been therefore an object of contention between European nations. It was first possessed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the English; but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1667 subdued by the French, in whose possession it remained till the year 1759, when the British arms, every where triumphant, again restored it; but it was restored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the English in the American war, but given up again by the peace of 1783.

CANARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are seven in number, and situate between 12 and 19 deg. west long; and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles south-west of Morocco. Their particular names are Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langarote. These islands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the most delicious fruits, especially grapes, which produce those rich wines that obtain the name of Canary, of which the greatest part is exported to England, to the amount, it is computed, in time of peace, of 10,000 hogsheads annually. The Canaries produce those little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now so common and so much admired in Europe.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and so extremely fertile as to produce two harvests in a year. Teneriffe, the largest of these islands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round: a fertile country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil, though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glass observes, that in coming in with this island, in clear weather, the Peak may be easily discerned at 120 miles distance, and in sailing from it at 150. The Peak is an ascent in the form of a sugar-loaf, about fifteen miles in circumference, and, according to the account of Sprat, bishop of Rochester, published in the Philosophical Transactions, nearly three miles perpendicular; but lately ascertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and sometimes throws out such quantities of sulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richest lands into barren deserts.

These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to the navigation on the west coast of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the rest of the world, until they were again discovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they still belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives resemble the Africans in their stature and complexion, when the Spaniards first came among them, their language was different from that spoken on the continent; they retained none of their customs, were masters of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three islands called the Madeiras are situate in a fine climate, in 32º-27º north lat. and from 18º-30º to 19º-30º west long. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many west of Sallee, in Morocco. The largest, from which the rest derive the general name of Madeiras, on account of its being formerly almost covered with wood, is about seventy-five miles long, sixty broad, and 180 in circumference. It is composed of one continued hill of a considerable height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated, and interspersed with vineyards; and in the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country-seats, which form a very agreeable prospect. There is but one considerable town in the whole island, which is named Funchal, seated on the south part of the island, at the bottom of a large bay: towards the sea it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon,
and is the only place where it is possible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it.

Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many ages, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519; but others assert that it was first discovered by an Englishman in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still almost the only people who inhabit it. The Portuguese, at their first landing, finding it little better than a thick forest, rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by setting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing, in great abundance, the richest wine, sugar, the most delicious fruits, especially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax; it abounds also with boars and other wild beasts, and with all sorts of fowls, besides numerous groves of cedar trees, and those that yield dragon's blood, mastic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this isle make the best sweetmeats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This indeed is said to be the first place in the west where that manufacture was set on foot, and from thence was carried to the Brazils in America. The Portuguese, not finding it so profitable as at first, have rooted up the greatest part of their sugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce several sorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the island, Malmsey, and Tent; of all which the inhabitants make and sell prodigious quantities. Not less than 20,000 hogsheads of Madeira, it is said, are yearly exported, the greatest part to the West Indies, especially to Barbadoes; the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when exposed to the sun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is said no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other islands, one called Porto Santo, which lies at a small distance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compass, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ships may ride with safety against all winds except the south-west, and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward-bound. The other island is an inconceivable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward, through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, situate between 25 and 32 deg. west long., and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St Miguel or St Michael, Tercera, St George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century, by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery; on which the Portuguese set sail immediately and took possession of them, which they still retain. They were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air, but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered; and also by inundations of the surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits; they also abound in cattle, fowls, &c. It is said that no poisonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and that, if carried thither, they will expire in a few hours.

St Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious and has good anchorage; but it is exposed to the south-east winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor of these islands, as well as of the bishop.
AMERICA.

ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many respects more to that of nature than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country require that we should in some measure vary our plan, and, before describing its present state, afford such information with regard to its discovery as is most necessary for satisfying our readers.

Towards the close of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their support to commerce. An interference of interests inspired a mutual rivalry; but in traffic Venice was much superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the most valuable in the world, but hitherto entirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this state of affairs, Christoval, or Christopher Colon, more generally known by his Latinized name Columbus, a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of sailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. But this proposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, and laid his scheme before the court of France, where his reception was still more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next resort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a great but uncertain design. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another: they had no idea of venturing boldly into the open sea. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expense, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, still remained firm; he became the more intent on his design the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource; and there, after eight years' attendance, he succeeded, and chiefly through the interest of queen Isabella. Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; the most formidable was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered in an unknown ocean, and that the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return. But the firmness of the commander, and much more the discovery of land after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the com motion. Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands; but here, to his surprise and sorrow, discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island which he called Hispaniola, or St Domingo, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and, what was of still greater consequence, as it insured his favourable reception at home, promising, from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries; and, having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.
The court was then at Barcelona: Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, the utensils, and ornaments, of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands in the great sea which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had discovered were considered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion was detected, and the true position of the new world was ascertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of the West Indies is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of Indians to its inhabitants. Thus were the West Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East; and, even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending so unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately prepared; all the necessaries for conquest or discoveries were embarked; 1500 men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the most ample authority. It is impossible to determine whether the genius of this great man, in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or his sagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, most deserves our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which, considering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with such a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleasure of seeing them. With this view he made for Hispaniola, where he established a colony; and erected forts in the situations most advantageous for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for establishing this colony, with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no further, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed a rich discovery; but whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. These islands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the necessaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean: he called them Jardin de la Reina, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactress, who was always present to his memory. In the same voyage, Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and sands, that he returned to Hispaniola without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprise.

By the first success of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but, by a continuance of the same success, admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in motion against him; and there is no difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan. An officer was dispatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning to Europe, in order to obviate the objections or calumny of his enemies. It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He designed to stand to the southward of the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to
proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands, or what continent, might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniences from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured with a smart gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a seaman saw land, which was an island, on the coast of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was surprised with an appearance he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict between the side of the sea and the rapid current of the immense river Oronoco. But sailing forward, he plainly discovered that they were in fresh water: and judging rightly that it was improbable any island should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distresses of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus landed at several places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wished to acquire the reputation of Columbus, without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brazil, which makes at present the most valuable part of their possessions: Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the north-east coasts, which afterwards composed the British empire of North America: and Amerigo Vespuccia, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent of America, and, being a man of address, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now imposed on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus, or Colon, was the first discoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the smallest mortifications to which this great man was compelled to submit; for such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after discovering the continent, and making settlements in the islands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory so much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which disfigured all the exploits of those who came after him, and accomplished the execution of his plan. He fully vindicated himself at court, was restored to favour, and undertook another voyage, in which he suffered great fatigues. He returned to Spain, and died at Valladolid, in 1506, in the 59th year of his age. The succeeding governors of Cuba and Hispaniola endeavoured to purchase the same advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good sense and humanity. These islands contained mines of gold. The Indians only knew where they were situated: and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of persuasion, hurried them to acts of the most shocking violence and cruelty against those unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treasure. The slaughter once begun, they set no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hispaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de las Casas, a witness of those barbarous depopulations, says that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy savages, almost naked and unarmed, were pursued like deer into the forests, devoured by dogs, killed with gun-shot, or surprised and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only visited the continent. From what they saw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a still more valuable conquest. Fernando Cortez was dispatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horses, and a small number of field pieces. With this inconsiderable force, he proposed to subdue the most powerful state on the continent of America; this was the empire of Mexico, rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indian passionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whose fame it arms struck terror into the neighbouring nations. Never history, that was true, was more improbable and re-
The empire of Mexico had subsisted for ages; its inhabitants, it is said, were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a polished and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whose wisdom is still admired in this particular, that the year consisted nearly of 365 days. Their superiority in military affairs was the subject of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the sure basis of laws combined with religion, seemed to bid defiance to time itself. Mexico, the capital of the empire, situate in the middle of a spacious lake, was the noblest monument of American industry. It communicated with the continent by immense causeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of stone, its squares and market-places, the shops which glittered with gold and silver, and the sumptuous palaces of Montezuma, some erected on columns of jasper, and containing whatever was most rare, curious, or useful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with a feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance; the warlike animals on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had wafted them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they spared neither age nor sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states upon the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into their alliance, and joined arms with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and, in his progress, discovered a volcano of sulphur and salt-petre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress without daring to oppose it. This sovereign is reported, by the boasting Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vassals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants armed with bows and arrows; and yet he dared not resist a handful of Spaniards, aided by a few Americans whose allegiance would be shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spanish victories, which always marched before them.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only excited the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition was made to their entry into his capital. A palace was set apart for Cortez and his companions, who were already treated as the masters of the new world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot for his destruction to be concealed; but he had no pretence for violence: Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most terrible of all engines to the Americans. At last, a circumstance took place which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea to receive the necessary reinforcements, he erected a fort, and left behind him a small garrison at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him, though, at the same time, he alleged that the Spaniards in general would never be persuaded of it, unless he returned along with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview showed the superiority of European address. A powerful monarch, in his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the inclination of a few strangers who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest re-
spect, or rather superstitious veneration, for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and, at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect, Montezuma was the first to teach them more politeness. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards, Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long time; but on one of these occasions, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character, by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which, in a few days, occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who, from timidity and feebleness of character, co-operated with the Spaniards, elected a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who, from the beginning, discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct, the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom a little before they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico.

The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which, distributed among his soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high-priest, condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed his sense of the pains that he endured, "Do you imagine I lie on a bed of roses?" The high-priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico; which, with the golden Castile, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they obtained intelligence of another great empire situated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold and silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America that deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, it did not choose to adventure on new enterprises, certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours and at the expense of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques a priest, but a man of considerable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprize, could neither read nor write. They sailed over into Spain, and, without difficulty, obtained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, drawn by the slaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with the Mexicans in favour of the Spanish nation, and were, besides, of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprise us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumstances, likewise, which conspired to assist him, and which, as they discover somewhat of the history and religion of these countries, and of the state of the human mind in this immense continent, it may not be improper to relate.
Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of those uncommon men, who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended, therefore, to be descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction; a larger still he subdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilised the dispersed barbarous people; he subjected them to laws, and trained them to arms; he softened them by the institution of a benevolent religion; in short, there was no part of America where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of such mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great god the Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guiana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and from this marriage sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huescar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huescar, as a prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed state was the kingdom of Peru when Pizarro advanced to attack it. The ominous predictions of religion, too, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire by unknown persons, whose description exactly corresponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called barbarians, but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilized than himself. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and, having butchered 5000 of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly attached to their emperor as were the Mexicans. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat for his ransom. On this occasion the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most sumptuous temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negociation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external show of friendship, between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being on an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause should suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not sufficient to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000l. sterling; and, considering the value of money in Europe at that time, was prodigious; on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares
of the chief commanders and other officers, each private soldier had above 2000l. English money. With such fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be subjected to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, sensible that avarice would still detain a number of his army, and that those who returned with such magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold. These expectations were abundantly verified: It was impossible to send out better recruiting officers than those who had themselves so much profited by the field; now soldiers constantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immense ransom was only a further reason for detaining Atabapita in confinement, until it was discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether the Spaniards believed he had no more to give; and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince from whom they expected no further advantage; or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and duplicity which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs; it is certain, that, by his command, Atabapita was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a pretended charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances of equal impertinence. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother, Huescar, had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huescar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the ync, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huescar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabapita; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here, at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another: their battles accustomed these harmless people, to blood; and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a total lethargy, that, in the course of these disputes among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and the interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city of Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and, after many difficulties, made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the southward of Pizarro’s government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district; but the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him lay to the southward of Cusco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in question.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro’s troops to his own as he judged necessary, he penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at a distance, they were very nearly successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than, &c.  

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linishing all views of distant conquests, he returned to secure the grand object of their former labours. He raised the siege, with infinite slaughter of the assailants; but having obtained possession of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprise, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned, from the practice of Christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit their contests to subside. “Let us retire,” said they, “from among them; let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations.” This resolution was instantly put in practice: the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with success: but the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro’s life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never since ventured to make head against the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now sole master of the field, and of the richest empire in the world, was still urged on by his ambition to undertake new enterprises. The southern countries of America, into which he had some time before dispatched Almagro, offered the richest conquest. Towards this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, composed of entire silver, had been discovered, the shell of which only remains at present. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of the Amazons: an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country; but as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Pizarro, meeting with repeated success, and having no superior to contend, no rival to keep him within bounds, now gave loose reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the basest tyranny and cruelty against all who had not concurred in his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himself had founded. The partizans of old Almagro now declared his son, of the same name, their viceroy; but the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V., then king of Spain, who sent over Vaca di Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the most advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines of La Plata and Potosi, which were formerly private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, since the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that Castro had not been sufficiently skilled in gaining the favour of the Spanish ministry, by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would always expect from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice a council was sent over to control Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. The party spirit, but just extinguished, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, set himself at the head of his brother’s partisans, with whom many new malecontents had united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He strengthened daily, and even went so far as to behead a governor who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spanish fleet in the South
Seas, by whose means he proposed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the situation of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of their mistake in not sending into America men whose character and virtue only, and not opportunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing from Castro only, by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and the same disinterested spirit. All those who had not joined Pizarro's revolt flocked to his standard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connections; the admiral was gained over by insinuation to return to his duty: and Pizarro himself offered a full indemnity, provided he would return to the allegiance of the Spanish crown. But so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than submit to any officer of Spain. With those of his partisans, therefore, who still continued to adhere to his interest, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered, and taken prisoner. His execution followed soon after; and thus the brother of him who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice for the security of the Spanish dominion over that country.

The conquest of the great empires of Mexico and Peru is the only part of the American history which deserves to be treated under the present head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent, or of the islands, if it contains either instruction or entertainment, shall be recorded under those particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever composes the character of the natives of America; and as these are extremely similar all over this part of the globe, we shall speak of them in general, in order to save continual repetitions, noticing, at the same time, when we enter upon the description of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

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OF THE ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF AMERICA.

The discovery of America has not only opened a new source of wealth to the busy commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and observe the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human understanding, when untutored by science, or untainted by corruption. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that some speculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impossible they should be of the same species, or derived from one common source. This conclusion, however, is extremely ill-founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the necessities of life, the force of custom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumstances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which characterise nations, and distinguish them from each other.

When thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic they found the inhabitants of the new world immersed in what they call barbarism, but which, however, was a state of honest independence, and noble simplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively speaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almost every European art; even agriculture itself, the most useful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very sparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the necessities of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forests
supplied in great abundance. This exercise, which among them is a most serious occupation, gives a strength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The same cause, perhaps, renders their bodies, in general, where the rays of the sun are not too violent, uncommonly straight and well-proportioned. Their muscles are firm and strong; their bodies and heads flattish, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin is a reddish brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bear's fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumstances and way of life. A people who are constantly employed in procuring the means of precarious subsistence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or high flow of spirits. The Indians, therefore, are, in general, grave even to sadness; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to some nations in Europe, and they despise it. Their behaviour to those about them is regular, modest, and respectful. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, of which that of saying trifles agreeably is one of the most considerable, they never speak but when they have something important to observe; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with some meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almost continually engaged in pursuits which to them are of the highest importance. Their subsistence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the necessaries of life in greatest abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are, for the same reason, extremely small, when compared with civilized societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders useful to one another. These small tribes live at an immense distance; they are separated by a desert frontier, and concealed in the bosom of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

There is established in each society a certain species of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with very little variation; because over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly similar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great instruments of subjection in polished societies, an American has no method by which he can render himself considerable among his companions, but by a superiority in personal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very lavish in her personal distinctions, where all enjoy the same education, all are nearly equal, and will desire to remain so. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing passion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, is better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They are very far, however, from despising all sorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wisdom, which experience has conferred on the aged; and they enlist under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and military address they have learned to repose their confidence. In every society, therefore, there is to be considered the power of the chief and of the elders: and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a species of aristocracy. Among those tribes which are most engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, because the idea of having a military leader was the first source of his superiority, and the continual exigencies of the state requiring such a leader, will continue to support and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather persuasive than coercive: he is reverenced as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no prisons, no officers of justice; and one act of ill-judged violence would deprive him of the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be considered as an aristocracy, have no power. In some tribes, indeed, there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whose influence being constantly augmented by time, is more considerable. But this source of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In most countries, therefore, age alone is sufficient for acquiring respect, in-
fluence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only source of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among the Indians, business is conducted with the utmost simplicity, and such as may recall to those who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the most early ages. The heads of families meet together in a house or cabin appointed for the purpose. Here the business is discussed, and here those of the nation distinguished for their eloquence or wisdom have an opportunity of displaying those talents. Their orators, like those of Homer, express themselves in a bold figurative style, stronger than refined or rather softened nations can well bear, and with gestures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expressive. When the business is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feast upon the occasion, of which almost the whole nation partakes. The feast is accompanied with a song, in which the real or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances, too, though, like those of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind; and their music and dancing accompany every feast.

It often happens, that those different tribes or nations scattered as they are at an immense distance from one another, meet in their excursions after prey. If there subsists no animosity between them, which seldom is the case, they behave in the most friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a state of war, or if there has been no previous intercourse between them, all who are not friends being deemed enemies, they fight with the most savage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they use, it is left to the women. Their most common motive for entering into a war, when it does not arise from an accidental encounter or interference, is either to revenge themselves for the death of some lost friend, or to acquire prisoners, who may assist them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their society. These wars are either undertaken by some private adventurers, or at the instance of the whole community. In the latter case, all the young men who are disposed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a piece of wood to the chief, as a token of their design to accompany him; for every thing among these people is transacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief who is to conduct them fasts several days, during which he converses with no one, and is particularly careful to observe his dreams, which the presumption natural to savages generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies; which among some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelain, or large shell, to their allies, inviting them to come along and drink the blood of their enemies: for with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

"A generous friendship no cold medium knows,
"Burns with one love, with one resentment glows."

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And, indeed, no people carry their friendships or their resentments so far as they do; and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances; that principle in human nature, which is the spring of the social affections, acts with so much the greater force the more it is restrained. The Americans, who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to those objects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined, their breasts are too narrow, to entertain the sentiment of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel to an incredible degree towards those with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or those different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, some facts we are going to relate would excite our wonder, with-
out informing our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth, with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermilion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them a considerable distance, to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian warrior are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; and indeed in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, give them no superiority, because their enemies are equally skilful. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals; they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and, while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many of them as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested; when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musquet-bullets on their faces. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of further resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirit of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues; death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would conceal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouses the fury of savages. They trample, they insult over, the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it meets with no resistance; then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach, in a melancholy and severe gloom, to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival; and the women, with frightful shrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice, to the elders, a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people; and, as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in
the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped away from their eyes, and, by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where they commence their death-song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe, made red hot; which he smokes like tobacco; then they pound the toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off this flesh, thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood, in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours; and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard of torments, often falls into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily takes fire, but burns slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body: they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, even outdo the men in this scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking, and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little inter-
vals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest, which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy almost above human: not a groan, not a sigh, not a distortion of countenance escapes him; he possesses his mind entirely in the midst of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon his countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and though his reproaches exasperate them to a perfect madness of rage and fury, he continues his insults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men: and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwise, as it would be for any European to suffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early institution, and a ferocious thirst of glory. I am brave and intrepid, exclaims the savage in the faces of his tormentors. I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; those that fear them are cowards; they are less than women; life is nothing to those who have courage; may my enemies be confounded with despair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them and drink their blood to the last drop!

Nothing in the history of mankind forms a stronger contrast than this cruelty of the savages toward those with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affections towards their friends, who consist of all those who live in the same village, or are in alliance with it. Among these all things are common; and this, though it may in part arise from their not possessing very distinct notions of separate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the strength of their attachment; because, in everything else, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to serve their friends. Their houses, their provisions, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. Has any one of these succeeded ill in his hunting—has his harvest failed—or is his house burned,—he feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow-citizens. But to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended him, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until, by some treachery or surprise, he has an opportunity of executing a horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment; no distance of place great enough to protect the object: he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impenetrable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed, in general, is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit observing the force of their friendship, which principally appears by the treatment of the dead. When any one of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole; on this occasion a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order: and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmost pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present and to join in the solemnity. At this time, all who have died since the last solemn occasion (which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight among others) are taken out of their graves: those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcasses.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. I cannot describe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Laflatt, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations.

Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human misery, in death,
which appears in a thousand various shapes of horror in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and smoked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; while others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more, than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness, gathering up carefully even the smallest bones: handling the carcases disgustful as they are with every thing loathsome, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tireful journeys of several days, without being discouraged by the offensiveness of the smell, and without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in the tender condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. The dead bodies are carried from the cabins for general re-interment. A great pit is dug in the ground; and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit; when the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve, with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and, over these, with bark, on which they throw stones, wood, and earth. Then, taking the last farewell, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal among them, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul is separated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require, and take delight in, the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those who in their life-time had been fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails, and enjoy all sensual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religion. Areskoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and, according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they shall be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun or moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods; traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except, when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii, spirits who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from
the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether their patients will recover, and in what manner they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and in almost every disease direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is enclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red-hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics, of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dextrous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have just been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteristics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America were very different. On the first appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their discoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemisphere. They were different in their features and complexion; they were not only averse to toil, but seemed incapable of it; and when roused by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they sunk under tasks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with ease. This feebleness of constitution seemed almost universal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were also struck with the smallness of their appetite for food. The constitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abstinence of the most mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans insatiably voracious; and they affirmed that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was sufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very sparing, so limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raised what was sufficient for their own consumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their industry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were easily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards settled in any district, such a small addition of supernumerary mouths soon exhausted their scanty stores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South America, compared with those of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, less vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle but dastardly spirit, more enslaved by pleasure, and sunk in indolence.

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

This great Western Continent, frequently denominated the New World, extends from the 80th degree north to the 56th degree south latitude; and, where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 136th degree of west longitude from London; stretching between 8000 and 9000 miles in length, and its greatest breadth 4000 miles. It lies in both hemispheres, has two summers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two great oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa; and to the west by the Pacific, or Great South Sea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of
the world. It is composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other on the
south, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a kind of isthmus
1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, so extremely narrow, as to make the
communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only sixty miles
over. In the great gulf which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and
southern continents, lie a multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fer-
tile, and denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands
of Asia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the East Indies.

Before we proceed to treat of separate countries in their order, it will be proper to
take notice of those mountains and rivers which disdain, as it were, to be confined
within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent.
For though America in general be not a mountainous country, it has the greatest
mountains in the world. In South America, the Andes, or Cordilleras, run from
north to south along the coast of the Pacific Ocean. They exceed in length any chain
of mountains in the other parts of the globe: extending from the Isthmus of Darien to
the Straits of Magellan, they divide the whole southern parts of America, and run a
length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length; for, though in
part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow. Chimborado, the
highest of the Andes, is 20,608 feet, of this about 2400 feet from the summit are always
covered with snow. Caraz was ascended by the French astronomers, and is said to
be 15,800 feet high. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents,
or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole,
and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American States, separating them
from Canada and Louisiana, and called the Apalachian or Alleghany mountains; if that
may be considered as a mountain, which upon one side is extremely lofty, but upon
the other is nearly on a level with the rest of the country.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered; and
that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the con-
venience of trade, and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North Amer-
ica, those vast tracts of country situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an im-
mense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the
Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to sev-
eral great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from north to south till it falls in-
to the Gulf of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of more than 3000 miles,
and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Missouri, the Ohio, and
other great rivers, scarcely inferior to the Rhine or the Danube; and on the north, the
river St Laurence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself
into the ocean near Newfoundland: all of them being almost navigable to their heads,
lay open the inmost recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for com-
merce, as must produce the greatest advantage, whenever the country adjacent shall
come to be fully inhabited by an industrious and civilized people. The eastern side of
North America, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, and Potow-
mack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation:

hence many parts of the settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable
rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be said to have each a
harbour at his door.

South America is, if possible, in this respect even more fortunate. It supplies much
the two largest rivers in the world, the river of Amazonas, and the Rio de la Plata, or
Plate River. The first, rising in Peru, not far from the South Sea, passes from west
to east, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a course of more than
2500 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers.
The Rio de la Plata rises in the heart of the country, and, having its strength gradu-
ally augmented by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such
vehemence into the sea, as to make its taste fresh for many leagues from land. Be-

sides these, there are other rivers in South America, of which the Orinoco is the most
considerable.
A country of such vast extent on each side of the equator must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climate. It is a treasury of nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and higher perfection. The gold and silver of America have supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that the gold and silver of Europe now bear little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewise to lower their value. To these, which are chiefly the productions of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the British empire in this part of the world. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, log-wood, brazil, fustic, pimento, lignum vitae, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate-nut; sugar, cotton, tobacco, bañillas, red-wood, the balsam of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jesuits bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the discovery of America, we were either entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatanos, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes; great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants: and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection as in their native ground.

With respect to the quadrupeds of this new world, it is proper to observe, in general, that they are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If, with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapuret, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. They have no lions, nor, properly speaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquareiti among them, are desplicable, in comparison of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tiger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tiger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals, therefore, in the southern parts of America, are different from those of the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those which, being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada, as Russia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tiger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America are smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of the Author of it, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to southern America, in a few generations becomes much less; but then it also becomes more prolific; and, instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would
be unequal to the contest, and we should soon perceive them to become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America, so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spanish, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portions, extending from New Mexico and Louisiana, in North America, to the straits of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brasil, which belongs to Portugal; for, though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the first discovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coast. It was a long time before we made an attempt to settle in this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, first showed the way, by planting a colony in the southern parts, which he called Virginia, in honour of his mistress, queen Elizabeth.

The French, from this period until the conclusion of the war in 1763, laid a claim to, and actually possessed, Canada and Louisiana, comprehendin all that extensive inland country, reaching from Hudson’s Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the same name, on the south.

The multitude of islands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided among the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four small islands, which in any other hands would be of no consequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America. We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but Labrador, or new Britain, and the country round Hudson’s Bay, with those vast regions towards the pole, are little known.

---

A SUMMARY VIEW OF THE FIRST SETTLEMENTS OF NORTH AMERICA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Names of Places</th>
<th>When settled</th>
<th>By whom</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Quebec</td>
<td>1608</td>
<td>By the French</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia, June 10</td>
<td>1609</td>
<td>By Lord Delawar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newfoundland, June</td>
<td>1610</td>
<td>By Governor John Guy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York, New Jersey</td>
<td>1614</td>
<td>By the Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plymouth</td>
<td>1620</td>
<td>By part of Mr Robinson’s congregation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Hampshire</td>
<td>1623</td>
<td>By a small English colony, near the mouth of Piscataqua river</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>1627</td>
<td>By the Swedes and Finlanders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania, Massachusetts Bay</td>
<td>1628</td>
<td>By Captain John Endicot &amp; Company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>1633</td>
<td>By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman-catholics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>1635</td>
<td>By Mr Penwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhode Island</td>
<td>1635</td>
<td>By Mr Roger Williams, and his persecuted brethren</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Names of Places. When settled. By whom.

New Jersey 1664 { Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II. and made a distinct government and settled some time before this by the English.
South Carolina 1669 By Governor Sale.
Pennsylvania 1682 By W. Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North Carolina, about 1728 { Erected into a separate government, settled before by the English.
Georgia 1732 By General Oglethorpe.
Kentucky 1773 By Col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont 1777 { By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England.
Territory NW. of Ohio river 1787 By the Ohio and other Companies.

THE GRAND DIVISIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New Britain</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>318,750</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Great Britain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td>Quebec</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Scotland</td>
<td>850</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>57,000</td>
<td>Halifax</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Brunswick</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>150,000</td>
<td>Halifax</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New England</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>87,400</td>
<td>Boston</td>
<td>27,60 W.</td>
<td>United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>84,000</td>
<td>New York</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>6300</td>
<td>Perth-Amboy</td>
<td></td>
<td>United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>44,300</td>
<td>Philadelphia</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>14,000</td>
<td>Annapolis</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>446</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>70,000</td>
<td>Williamsburg</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>34,000</td>
<td>Edenton</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>20,000</td>
<td>Charles-town</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>Savannah</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Florida</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>St. Augustine</td>
<td></td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Florida</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>60,000</td>
<td>Pensacola</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>1200</td>
<td>640</td>
<td>516,000</td>
<td>New Orleans</td>
<td>4080 SW.</td>
<td>United States</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Mexico &amp;</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>600,000</td>
<td>Santa Fe</td>
<td></td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>St. Juan</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico or</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>318,000</td>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>4900 SW.</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Spain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### AMERICA.

#### GRAND DIVISIONS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nations</th>
<th>Leng.</th>
<th>Bread.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
<th>Dist. &amp; bearing from London</th>
<th>Belongs to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Terra Firma</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>700,000</td>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>4650 SW.</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>1800</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>970,000</td>
<td>Lima</td>
<td>6520 SW.</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 length, 960 breadth.

| Guiana                 | 780   | 480    | 250,000    | Surinam Cayenne | 3840 SW.                 | Dutch      |
| Brasil                 | 2560  | 70     | 940,000    | St Sebastian    | 6000 SW.                  | French     |
| Parag. or La Plata     | 1600  | 1000   | 1,000,000  | Buenos Ayres    | 6040 SW.                  | Portugal   |
| Chili                  | 1200  | 500    | 206,000    | St Jago        | 6000 SW.                  | Spain      |
| Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia | 1400  | 400    | 325,000    |              |                            | Ditto      |

The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there.

#### The Principal ISLANDS of NORTH AMERICA belonging to Europeans, are.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISLANDS</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Breadth</th>
<th>Square Miles.</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
<th>Belongs to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In the Gulf of St. Lawr.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newfoundland</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>35,500</td>
<td>Placentia</td>
<td>Great Britain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Breton</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>Louisbourg</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St John's</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>Charlestown</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Bermuda Isles</td>
<td>20,000 acres</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
<td>St George</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Bahama ditto</td>
<td>very numerous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nassau</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>Kingston</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbadoes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>Bridgetown</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Christopher</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>Base-terre</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antigua</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>St John's</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevis and Montserrat</td>
<td>each of these is 18 circumference</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Chalestown</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barbuda</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>Plymouth</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anguilla</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominica</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>Rousseau</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Vincent</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>Kingston</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Granada</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>St George's</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tobago</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>108</td>
<td></td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Principal ISLANDS of NORTH AMERICA belonging to Europeans, continued,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISLANDS</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Breadth</th>
<th>Square Miles</th>
<th>CHIEF TOWNS</th>
<th>Belongs to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>38,400</td>
<td>Havana</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispaniola</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>56,000</td>
<td>St Domingo</td>
<td>Do &amp; Fran.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Porto Rico</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>3,200</td>
<td>Porto Rico</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trinidad</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2,897</td>
<td>St Joseph</td>
<td>Britain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Margarita</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>624</td>
<td></td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martinico</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>St Peter's</td>
<td>France</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guadaloupe</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>Basse-terre</td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Lucia</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Bartholomew</td>
<td>all of them in-considerable.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The Bay</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Descada, and Marigalante</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Eustatia</td>
<td>29 circum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carassu</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>342</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Thomas</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>circum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Croix</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Basse End</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ditto</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

British Islands in North America, and the West Indies, 46,930 square miles.

* In the present war with France, some of these islands have repeatedly changed their masters. But as the events of war are uncertain, it is impossible to ascertain with any precision to whom they belong, until the termination of hostilities.
† Lately ceded to Sweden by France.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Of the rise, progress, and most remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the establishment of the United States of America, we have already given an account in our view of the principal transactions in the history of Great Britain. It was on the fourth of July, 1776, that the Congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the United Colonies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. They also published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America," and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship, for their common defence, for the maintenance of their li-
berties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel in common all the attacks that might be levelled against all or any one of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But, for the more convenient management of the general interest of the United States, it was determined that delegates should be annually appointed, in such manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday in November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. No state was to be represented in congress by less than two, nor more than seven members; and no person was capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years; nor was any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining questions in the United States, in congress assembled, each state was to have one vote, and to abide by the determination of the United States in congress assembled, on all questions submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the confederation were to be inviolably observed by every state, and the union to be perpetual; nor was any alteration henceforth to be made in any of them, unless previously agreed to in a congress of the United States, and afterwards confirmed by the legislature of that state. It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies of America, as independent states. Holland acknowledged them as such April 19, 1782; and, on the 30th of November, 1782, provisional articles were signed at Paris by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic majesty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be free, sovereign, and independent states; and these articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as such February 5, 1783; Denmark the 25th of February; Spain in March, and Russia in July, 1783.

The following Calculations were made from actual Measurement of the best Maps, by Thomas Hutchins, Esq. Geographer to the United States.

The territory of the United States contains, by computation, a million square miles,* in which are

Deduct for water

640,000,000 of acres

51,000,000

Acres of land in the United States

589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the west temporary line of Pennsylvania on the east, the boundary line between Britain and the United States, extending from the river St. Croix to the north-west extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the north, the river Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio on the west, and the river Ohio on the south, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennsylvania, contains, by computation, about four hundred and eleven thousand square miles; in which are

Deduct for water

263,040,000 of acres

43,040,000

To be disposed of by order of congress

220,000,000

* The addition of the country of Louisiana, lately purchased of France by the United States, will, it is estimated, enlarge the territory of the latter by 450,000 square miles.
The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western territory, containing, as above stated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by the cession of some of the original thirteen states, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for sinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new states, with republican constitutions, similar to the old states near the Atlantic Ocean.

The territory of the United States is in length 1250 miles, and in breadth 1040; lying between 31 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and between 64 and 96 degrees of west longitude. They consist at present of sixteen separate independent states, having governors, constitutions, and laws of their own, united under a general federal constitution, administered by an elective head, and by a proportionate number of representatives of the people from all the states. They are classed in three grand divisions, as follows:

I. The New England, or Eastern, or Northern States.
Vermont
New Hampshire
Massachusetts, including the District of Maine
Rhode Island, and Connecticut

II. The Middle States.
New York
New Jersey
Pennsylvania
Delaware

III. The Southern States.
Maryland
Virginia
Kentucky
North Carolina
South Carolina
Georgia
Tennessee

Besides which, there is the extensive north-western territory mentioned above, which is gradually settling, and is hereafter, when its population shall be sufficiently increased, to be divided into new states.

Population of the United States.] According to the census taken by order of congress in 1790, the number of the inhabitants of the United States of America was 3,929,326, of whom 697,697 were slaves. By the census taken in like manner in 1800, they amounted to 5,305,638, including 893,331 slaves.

Trade.] The trade of the United States has greatly increased, in consequence of the long war between England and France since the French revolution. The exports of these States, in the year ending in September 30, 1796, amounted to 67,664,097 dollars, though six years before their value was only about 18 millions of dollars; and 1801 they were estimated at above 70 millions.

Revenue.] The revenue of the United States is derived from duties on merchandise and tonnage, some internal duties, and the sale of lands. The duties on merchandise and tonnage amounted in the year ending September 30, 1801, to 10,500,000 dollars, and the whole of the revenue to 10,600,000 dollars. The expenditure for the same year was 3,500,000 dollars; leaving a surplus of 7,100,000 dollars to be applied to the liquidation of the public debt, which, in the same year, amounted to 77,881,800 dollars. The civil list is about 300,000 dollars annually.

Military force.] The military strength of this country consists in a militia, estimated by Mr Morse at 900,000 men; there is also a regular force of about three or four thousand men, to defend the frontiers of the Union, and to man the several fortresses in the different parts of the United States. Their marine consists, as yet, only of a few frigates, and small armed vessels.

Present and future constitution of Congress.] Such are the extensive dominions dependent on congress, which, together with a president chosen for four years, consists, since 1789, of a senate and house of representatives. The senate is composed of two senators from each state, elected for six years; and the house of representatives of one representative, chosen every second year, for every thirty-three thou-
sand inhabitants in each estate, until the number has exceeded one hundred; since which there is not to be less than one representative for every forty thousand, until the number of representatives amounts to two hundred. When this takes place, the proportion between the people and their representatives is to be so regulated by congress, that there shall not be less than two hundred representatives, nor more than one representative for every fifty thousand persons. This is the ultimate limit to which the Americans as yet look forward, in the constitution of the general government of the Union.

The seat of congress and government, after the year 1800, was to be and has been removed to the new City of Washington, now building on a tract of land ceded by the States of Virginia and Maryland to the United States, and called the Territory of Columbia. This city, which has been several years building, stands at the junction of the river Patowmack and the Eastern Branch, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity, and beauty, by none in America. It is laid out in straight streets from north to south, intersected by others running due east and west. The principal streets are from 150 to 160, and the others from 90 to 110 feet wide. The capital or state-house is situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country round. The population of this new city was in 1801, 3210; and that of the whole territory of Columbia, 8144. The city of Washington is 42 miles south-west of Baltimore, and 144 in the same direction from Philadelphia; in north lat. 28.53; west long. 77.43.

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NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>between 41 and 48 north latitude</td>
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<td>Breadth</td>
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<td>65 and 74 west longitude</td>
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<td></td>
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</table>

Boundaries.] BOUNDED on the north by Lower Canada; on the east by New Brunswick and the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by the Atlantic and Long-Island Sound; and on the west by New York. It comprehends the States of Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

Face of the Country, Mountains, &c.] New England, is a high, hilly, and in some parts, a mountainous country. The mountains are comparatively small, running nearly north and south, in ridges parallel to each other. Between these ridges flow the great rivers in majestic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger streams which proceed from the mountains on each side. To a spectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a state of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They seem an ocean of woods, swelled and depressed in its surface, like that of the great ocean itself.

There are four principal ranges of mountains, passing nearly from north-east to south-west, through New England. They consist of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many spurs, deviating from the course of the general range; which spurs are again broken into irregular hilly land. The main ridges terminate, sometimes in high bluff heads, near the sea-coast; and sometimes by a gradual descent in the interior parts of the country. These ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and springs of water,
that give rise to numberless streams of various sizes. No country on the globe is better watered than New England.*

CLIMATE.] New England, though situate almost ten degrees more to the south than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer and is more severe than with us. The summer is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the same latitude. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country so healthy, that it is reported to agree better with British constitutions than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boisterous in the winter season, and naturalists ascribe the early approach, and the length and severity of the winter, to the large fresh-water lakes lying to the north-west of New England, which, being frozen over several months, occasion those piercing winds which prove so fatal to mariners on this coast.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The most remarkable bays and harbours are those formed by Plymouth, Rhode Island, and Province Plantations; Monument Bay; West Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape Cod; Boston harbour; Piscataway; and Casco Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Cod, Marble Head, Cape Ann, Cape Nettic, Cape Porus, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small Point.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] It has been already observed, that the lands lying on the eastern shore of America are low, and in some parts swampy, but farther back they rise into hills. In New England, towards the north-east, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The soil here is various, but best as you approach the south-ward Round Massachusetts Bay the soil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the first planters found the grass above a yard high. The uplands are less fruitful, being for the most part a mixture of sand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadow and pasture-land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much success; the wheat is subject to be blasted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flourishes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower sort of the people. They have likewise malt, and brew it into a beer which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cider and spruce-beer: the latter is made of the tops of the spruce fir, with the addition of a small quantity of molasses. They likewise raise in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a single apple-tree has produced seven barrels of cider in one season.

But New England is chiefly distinguished for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, ash, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypress, beech, walnut, chestnut, hazel, sassafras, sumach, and other woods used in dying or tanning leather, carpenter’s work, and ship-building. The oaks here are said to be inferior to those of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and formerly furnished the royal navy of England with masts and yards. They draw from their trees considerable quantities of pitch, tar, resin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the soil produces hemp and flax. A ship may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their forests, and indeed ship-building forms a considerable branch of their trade.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furnish many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horses of New England are hardy, mettlesome, and serviceable, but smaller than ours, though larger than the Welsh. They have few sheep; and the wool, though of a staple sufficiently long, is not nearly so fine as that of England. Here are also elks, deer, hares, rabbits, squirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, minxes, martens, racoons, sables, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, oounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the most singular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the mose, or moose deer, of which there are two sorts; the common light gray moose, which resembles the ordinary deer; these herd sometimes

* Morse’s American Geography.
thirty together; and the larger black moose, whose body is about the size of a bull; his neck resembles a stag’s, and his flesh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip, and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way; and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to bay; but when chased, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heath-cocks, herons, storks, black-birds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are, rattle-snakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared parts of these countries, where, with the owls, they make a most hideous noise in the summer evenings.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of different kinds, such as the whalebone whale, the spermaceti whale, which yields ambergris, the fin-backed whale, the scrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and send besides some ships every year to fish for whales in Greenland, and as far as Falkland islands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from twenty to thirty feet long, with strong teeth and jaws, persecutes the whale in these seas; but, afraid of his monstrous strength, they seldom attack a full-grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobscot, there is a mackerel fishery; they likewise fish for cod in the winter, which they dry in the frost.

**Metals.**] Rich mines of iron, of a most excellent kind and temper, have been discovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

**Rivers.**] The rivers are the Connecticut, Thames, Patuxent, Merimac, Pisca-taway, Saco, Casco, Kennebec, and the Penobscot, or Pentagonet.

**Religion.**] Calvinism, from the principles of the first settlers, has been very prevalent in New England: many of the inhabitants also formerly observed the sabbath with a kind of Jewish rigour; but this has of late been much diminished. There is at present no established religion in New England; but every sect of Christians is allowed the free exercise of their religion, and is equally under the protection of the laws. They annually celebrate fasts and thanksgivings. In the spring, the several governors issue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiously observed in fasting, humiliation, and prayer, throughout their respective states, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harvest, that gladsome era of the husbandman’s life, a day of public thanksgiving is appointed, enumerating the public blessings received in the course of the year. This pious custom originated with their venerable ancestors, the first settlers. This custom so rational, and so well calculated to cherish in the minds of the people a sense of their dependence on the Great Benefactor of the world for all their blessings, it is hoped, will ever be sacredly preserved. The Connecticut province has lately provided a bishop for the episcopalian among them, by sending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjuring bishops of the episcopal church in that kingdom.

**Population, Inhabitants.**] New England contained, according to the census of 1790, 1,009,522 souls; and, according to that of 1800, 1,233,011.

* The New Englanders are generally tall, stout, and well-built. They glory, and perhaps with justice, in possessing that spirit of freedom, which induced their ancestors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardships of

* By a late account there are 400 Independent and Presbyterian churches in this province, 55 Baptist, and 31 of other denominations.

† Morse’s American Geography.
settling in a wilderness. Their education, laws, and situation, serve to inspire them with high notions of liberty. In New England, learning is very generally diffused among all ranks of people, from the excellent establishment of schools in every town-ship. A person of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found.

The inhabitants of New England are almost universally of English descent; and it is owing to this circumstance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the English language has been preserved among them so free of corruption. It is true, that from laziness, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accustomed themselves to use some peculiar phrases, and to pronounce certain words in a flat, drawling manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New Englander from his manner of speaking; but the same may be said with regard to a Pennsylvanian, a Virginian, or a Carolinian; for all have some phrases and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themselves, which distinguish them from their neighbours.

History.] As early as 1606, king James I. had, by letters patent, erected two companies, with a power to send colonies into those parts then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-east coast of America was sometimes called. No settlements, however, were made in New England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themselves with sending out a ship or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fish upon their coast. This continued to be the only sort of correspondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620, when the religious dissensions, by which New England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbishop Laud persecuted all sorts of non-conformists with an unrelenting severity. Those men, on the other hand, were ready to submit to all the rigour of persecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they considered as abuses of the most dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly in order to obtain liberty of conscience. America opened an extensive field. Thither they might transport themselves, and establish whatever sort of religious polity they were inclined to. With this view, having purchased the territory which was within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of settling it in whatever way they chose, 150 persons embarked for New England, and built a city, which, because they had sailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithstanding the severity of the climate, the unwholesomeness of the air, and the diseases to which, after a long-sea-voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were exposed; notwithstanding the want of all sorts of conveniences, and even of many of the necessaries of life, those who had constitutions fit to endure such hardships, not dispirited or broken by the death of their companions, and supported by the vigour then peculiar to Englishmen, and the satisfaction of finding themselves beyond the reach of the spiritual arm, set themselves to cultivate this country, and to take the best steps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themselves, for the same reasons, uneasy at home, passed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the close of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salam, Dorchester, Charlestown, and Boston; which last became the capital of New England. But as necessity is the natural source of that active and frugal industry which produces every thing great among mankind, so an uninterrupted flow of prosperity and success occasions those dissensions which are the bane of human affairs, and often subvert the best-founded establishments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from persecution, became in a short time strongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in that age superior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking which at present distinguishes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of universal toleration, which, to the honour of the first settlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigotted Calvinists; and though they had felt the weight of persecution themselves, they had no charity for those who professed sentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the same so-
ciety, without maintaining the same religious opinions; and wherever there were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and established separate governments. Hence several slips, torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, planted themselves in a new soil, and spread over the country. Such was that of New Hampshire, which continues to this day a separate jurisdiction; such was that of Rhode Island, whose inhabitants were driven out from the Massachusetts colony (for that is the name by which the government first erected in New England was distinguished) for supporting the freedom of religious sentiments, and maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right over the speculative opinions of mankind. Those liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and, such is the connection between justness of sentiment and external prosperity, that the government of Rhode Island, though small, became extremely populous and flourishing. Another colony, driven out by the same persecuting spirit, settled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of such as were dissatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America, indeed, was now become the main resource of all discontented and enterprising spirits; and such were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that, in 1637, a proclamation was published, prohibiting any person from sailing thither, without an express licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is said that Oliver Cromwell, Mr Hampden, and others of the party, were detained from going into New England, after being on shipboard for that purpose.

These four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at first, and still continue, under separate jurisdictions. They were all of them, by their charters, originally free, and in a great measure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magistrates, the governor, the council, the assembly, and the power of making such laws as they thought proper, without sending them to Great Britain for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be opposite to those of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. when he and his ministers wanted to destroy all charters and liberties, the Massachusetts colony was accused of violating their charter, in like manner as the city of London; and, by a judgment in the King's Bench of England, was deprived of it. From that time to the revolution they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extensive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was vested in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, justices, and sheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entrusted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the governor had a negative on the choice of counsellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reason for what he did in this particular, or restrained to any number: authentic copies of the several acts passed by this colony, as well as others, were to be transmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed with three years after they were presented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magistrates, or acts of government whatever, were valid without the governor's consent in writing; and appeals for sums above 300l. were admitted to the king and council. Notwithstanding these restraints, the people had still a great share of power in this colony; for they not only chose the assembly, but this assembly, with the governor's concurrence, chose the council, resembling our house of lords; and the governor depended upon the assembly for his annual support.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 168</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth from 99 to 19</td>
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</table>
BOUNDARIES.] NEW Hampshire is bounded by Lower Canada on the north; by the district of Maine on the east; by Massachusetts on the south; and by Connecticut river, which separates it from Vermont, on the west. It is divided into five Counties, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rockingham</td>
<td>Portsmouth and Concord</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strafford</td>
<td>Dover and Durham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheshire</td>
<td>Charles-town and Keene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hillsborough</td>
<td>Amberst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grafton</td>
<td>Plymouth</td>
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</table>

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of New Hampshire is healthful, the weather is commonly serene, and not so subject to variation as in the more southern states. From the vicinity of the White Mountains, this country is extremely cold in winter. In summer the heat is great, but of short duration. The shore is mostly a sandy beach, adjoining to which are salt-marshes, which produce good pasture for cattle and sheep. The interval lands on the margin of great rivers are the most valuable, because they are often overflowed and enriched by the water from the uplands, which brings a fat slime or sediment. On Connecticut river these lands are from a quarter of a mile to a mile and a half on each side, and produce grass, corn, and grain, especially wheat, in greater abundance and perfection than the same kind of soil does in the higher lands. The wide-spreading hills are esteemed warm and rich; rocky moist land is accounted good for pasture; drained swamps have a deep mellow soil, and the valleys between the hills are generally very productive. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, pulse, hops, esculent roots and plants, flax and hemp, are raised in immense quantities in New Hampshire: Apples and pears are the most common fruits in this state; but tree fruit of the first quality cannot be raised in such a northern climate as this without particular attention. The uncultivated lands are covered with extensive forests of pine, fir, cedar, oak, walnut, &c.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The most considerable rivers of this state are the Connecticut, Merrimack, Piscataqua, Saco, Androscoggin, Upper and Lower Amonoosuck, besides many other smaller streams. The chief lakes are Winnipescogee, Umbagog, Sunapee, Squam, and Great Ossipee.

MOUNTAINS.] New Hampshire is intersected with several ridges of mountains, among which are the Blue Hills, and the lofty ridge which divides the Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, denominated the Height of Land. But the White Mountains, which run through this state, are undoubtedly the highest in all New England. Their height above an adjacent meadow is 3500 feet, and the meadow is 3500 feet above the level of the sea. They are almost continually covered with snow and ice, whence they have received the name of White Mountains. Though they are seventy miles inland, they are visible many leagues off at sea. One of their loftiest summits, which makes a majestic appearance along the shore of Massachusetts, has lately been distinguished by the name of Mount Washington.

METALS, MINERALS.] Iron, lead and copper ores, and several kinds of earths and clays, are found in this state. It produces red and yellow ochres, steatites, or soap-rock, the best lapis-specularis, a kind of talc, commonly called isinglass; crystals, alum, vitriol, freestone, and black lead.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Portsmouth is the metropolis, and the largest town in New Hampshire. Its harbour is one of the finest on the continent, having a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burden, and being so well defended against storms by the land that ships may securely ride there in any season of the year. Concord is a very flourishing town, pleasantly situated on the Merrimack river. The legislature of late have commonly held their sessions here; and, from its central situation, and a thriving back country, it will probably become the permanent seat of government.

TRADE.] The trade of this state is considerable, though it is not to be ranked among the great commercial states. Its exports consists of lumber, ship-timber, whale-oil, flax-seed, live-stock, beef, pork, Indian corn, pot and pearl-ashes, &c. In 1790,
there belonged to Piscataqua 33 vessels above 100 tons, and 50 under that burden. The value of the exports from that port in 1793, amounted to 198,197 dollars. The bank of Hampshire was established in 1792, with a capital of 60,000 dollars; by an act of assembly the stock-holders can increase it to 200,000 dollars in specie, and 100,000 dollars in any other estate.

**Population.**] The number of inhabitants in New Hampshire, according to the census taken by order of congress in 1790, was 141,885. By that of 1800, they amounted to 183,858. In 1767, they were estimated at only 52,700.

**Colleges and academies.**] The only college in this state is at Hanover, called Dartmouth college, which is amply endowed with lands, and is in a flourishing situation. The principal academies are those of Exeter, New Ipswich, Atkinson, and Amherst.

**Government.**] According to the present constitution, the legislative power, as in the other United States, resides in a senate and house of representatives, which together are here styled the general court, and the supreme executive authority is vested in a governor and council, the latter consisting of five members.

**History.**] This state first began to be settled about the year 1629, and was erected into a separate government in 1679, but seems afterwards to have been under the same governor with Massachusetts; for New Hampshire complained to the king in council against the joint-governor, relative to the boundaries between the two colonies, and, on hearing the complaint, a separate government was appointed in 1740.

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**Vermont.**

**Situation and extent.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 157</td>
<td>between 42 and 45 north latitude, 72 and 73, 30 west longitude.</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 65</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

**Boundaries and divisions.**] BOUNDED on the north by Lower Canada; on the east by Connecticut river, which divides it from New Hampshire; on the south by Massachusetts; and on the west by New York. It is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from south to north, and divides the state nearly in the middle. Its civil division is into eleven counties, as follow:

**West of the Mountain.**

- Bennington
- Rutland
- Addison
- Chittenden
- Franklin
- Orleans
- Orange
- Windsor
- Windham
- Caledonia
- Essex

**Chief Towns.**

- Bennington
- Rutland
- Addison
- Colchester
- Newbury
- Windsor
- Newfane and Putney

**Soil and productions.**] This state, generally speaking, is hilly, but not rocky. West of the mountain, from the county of Rutland, northward to the Canada line, is a flat country, well adapted for tillage. The state at large is well watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. Some of the finest beef-cattle in the world are driven from this state; horses also are raised for exportation. Back from the rivers, the land
is thickly timbered with birch, sugar-maple, ash, butter, nut, and white oak of an excellent quality. The soil is well fitted for wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp, &c.

Population.] In 1790, according to the census then taken, this state contained 85,539 inhabitants, consisting chiefly of emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendants. Two townships in Orange county are settled principally by Scotch. This state is rapidly peopling: the number of inhabitants, in 1801, according to the census of that year, was 154,465.

Lakes and rivers.] The principal rivers in this state are Michiscou, Lamolle, Onion, and Otter-creek rivers which run, from east to west, into Lake Champlain: West, Sexton's Block, Waterquechee, White, Ompompanoosuck, Weld's, Wait's, Passumsick, and several smaller rivers, which run, from west to east, into Connecticut river. Over the river Lamolle is a natural stone bridge, seven or eight rods in length. Otter creek is navigable for boats fifty miles. Its banks are excellent land, being annually overflowed and enriched. Memphremagog is the largest lake in this state. It is the reservoir of three considerable streams, Black, Barton, and Clyde rivers. One of these rises in Willoughby Lake, and forms a communication between it and Lake St Peter's, in the river St Laurence.

Constitution.] The legislature consists of a house of representatives, and a council of twelve, besides the governor, who is president, and the lieutenant-governor, who is officially a member. The freemen meet annually in their several towns to choose the governor, counsellors, and other magistrates; and, to the privilege of voting, all males, twenty-one years old, and of peaceable dispositions, are entitled, after taking the oath of fidelity to the state. The judges of the supreme and county courts, sheriffs, and justices of the peace, are appointed annually, by joint ballot of the council and house. The council may originate bills, other than money bills, and suspend till the next session such bills as they disapprove; but have not a final negative.

Trade and manufactures.] The inhabitants of this state trade principally with Boston, New York, and Hartford. The articles of export are pot and pearl ashes; beef, which is the principal article; horses, grain, some butter and cheese, lumber, &c. Vast quantities of pot and pearl ashes are made in every part of this state: but one of its most important manufactures is that of maple-sugar. It has been estimated, by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every family at the back of Connecticut river, is 200 lb. a year. One man, with but ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550 lb. of a quality equal to imported brown sugar. In two towns in Orange county, containing no more than forty families, 13,000 lb. of sugar were made in the year 1791.

Chief towns.] In a new and interior country, large populous towns are not to be expected. Bennington, situated near the south-west corner of the state is one of the largest. It contains about 2500 inhabitants, a number of handsome houses, a congregational church, a court-house, and gaol.

Windsor and Rutland, by a late act of the legislature, are alternately to be the seat of government for eight years. The former is situated on Connecticut river, and contains about 1700 inhabitants; the latter lies upon Otter creek, and contains upwards of 1500 inhabitants. Both are flourishing towns.

History.] The tract of country called Vermont, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire; and these interfering claims have been the occasion of much warm altercation. They were not finally adjusted till the peace. When hostilities commenced between Great Britain and the colonies, the inhabitants of this district, considering themselves in a state of nature, and not within the jurisdiction of either of New York or New Hampshire, associated, and formed a constitution for themselves. Under this constitution they have continued to exercise all the powers of an independent state, and have prospered. On the 4th of March, 1791, agreeably to an act of congress of December 6th 1790, this state became one of the United States, and constitutes the fourteenth, and not the least respectable, pillar of the American Union.


## Connecticut

### Situation and Extent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 110</td>
<td>71 20 and 73 15 west longitude</td>
<td>4,790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 72</td>
<td>41 0 and 42 2 north latitude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Boundaries and Divisions.** Connecticut is bounded on the north by Massachusetts; on the east, by Rhode Island; on the south, by the sound which divides it from Long Island; and, on the west, by the state of New York.

**Divisions.** It is divided into eight counties, as follows:

- **Counties:** Fairfield, New Haven, Middlesex, New London, Litchfield, Hartford, Tolland, Windham.
- **Chief Towns:** Fairfield, New Haven, Middleton, New London, Litchfield, Hartford, Tolland, Windham.

**Population.** In 1790 the population of this state amounted to 237,946 persons, of whom 2764 were slaves; and in 1801 to 251,002, of whom 951 were slaves. The inhabitants are almost entirely of English descent: there are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scotch or Irish people, in any part of the state.

**Climate, Soil, Produce.** Connecticut, though subject to the extremes of heat and cold in their seasons, and to frequent sudden changes, is very healthful. It is generally broken land, made up of mountains, hills, and vallies; and is exceedingly well watered. Some parts of it are thin and barren. Its principal productions, are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the state, oats, and barley, which are heavy and good, and, of late, buck-wheat; flax in large quantities; some hemp; potatoes of several kinds, which are common to the climate. The soil is very well calculated for pasturage and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed great numbers of neat cattle and horses.

**Chief Towns.** There are a great number of very pleasant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five cities incorporated with extensive jurisdiction in civil causes. Two of these, Hartford and New Haven, are capitals of the state. The general assembly is holden at the former in May, and at the latter in October, annually. Hartford is regularly laid out, the streets intersecting each other at right angles. The other cities are New London, Norwich, and Middleton.

**Harbours, Rivers.** The whole of the sea coast is indented with harbours, many of which are safe and commodious; but those of New London and New Haven are the most important. The principal rivers in this state are, the Connecticut, Housatonic, Thames, and their branches.

**Colleges, Literature.** Yale college, at New Haven, is an eminent seminary of learning; it was founded in the year 1700. It has a public library of about 8000 volumes, and a very complete philosophical apparatus. Academies have likewise been established at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Windham, and Pomfret, some of which are flourishing. In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut; almost every town in the state is divided into districts, and each district has a public school kept in it a part of every year. A thirst for learning prevails among all ranks of people in the state. More of the young men in Con-
necticut, in proportion to their numbers, receive a public education, than in any of the states.

TRADE.] The exports from this state consist of horses, mules, oxen, oak-staves, hoops, pine-boards, oak plank, beans, Indian corn, fish, beef, and pork. The amount of foreign exports, in the year 1794, amounted to 806,746 dollars.

GOVERNMENT.] The supreme legislative authority of the state is vested in a governor, deputy-governor, twelve assistants or counsellors, and the representatives of the people, styled the general assembly. The governor, deputy-governor, and assistants, are annually chosen by the freemen in the month of May. The representatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are chosen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual sessions, on the second Tuesdays of May and October. The general assembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houses. The upper house is composed of the governor, deputy-governor, and assistants; the lower house, of the representatives of the people. No law can pass without the concurrence of both houses.

RELIGION.] All religions that are consistent with the peace of society are tolerated in Connecticut; and a spirit of liberality is increasing. There are very few religious sects in this state. The bulk of the people are congregationalists; and there are besides episcopalians and baptists.

HISTORY.] The first grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth council to the Earl of Warwick, in 1630. The year following the earl assigned this grant to lord Say and Seal, lord Brook, and nine others. Some Indian traders settled at Windsor in 1633. The same year, a little before the arrival of the English, a few Dutch traders settled at Hartford; and the remains of the settlement are still visible on the banks of Connecticut river. In 1634, lord Say and Seal, &c. sent over a small number of men, who built a fort at Saybrook, and made a treaty with the Pequot Indians for the lands on Connecticut river. Mr. Haynes and Mr. Hooker left Massachusetts bay in 1634, and settled at Hartford. The following year, Mr. Eaton and Mr. Davenport seated themselves at New Haven. In 1644 the Connecticut adventurers purchased of Mr. Fenwick, agent for lord Say and Seal and lord Brook, their right to the colony for 1600l. Connecticut and New Haven continued two distinct governments for many years. At length, John Winthrop, esq. who had been chosen governor of Connecticut, was employed to solicit a royal charter. In 1662, Charles II. granted a charter, constituting the two colonies for ever one body corporate and politic, by the name of the governor and company of Connecticut, which charter still continues to be the basis of their government.

RHODE ISLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 47</td>
<td>41. 26. and 42. 10. north latitude</td>
<td>1,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 37</td>
<td>71. 17. and 71. 40. west longitude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] RHODE ISLAND and Providence Plantations, which together form the smallest of the United States, are bounded on the north and east by Massachusetts; on the south by the Atlantic Ocean; and on the west by Connecticut. This state is divided into the five following counties:

- **County:** Newport
- **Chief Towns:** Newport
- **County:** Providence
- **Chief Towns:** Providence
- **County:** Washington
- **Chief Towns:** South Kingston
- **County:** Bristol
- **Chief Towns:** Bristol
- **County:** Kent

---
ISLANDS, HARBOURS.] Narraganset bay contains several fertile islands, the principal of which are, Rhode Island, Cannonicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's, and Hog Islands. Block Island is the southermost land belonging to the state. Rhode Island, from which the state takes its name, is about fifteen miles in length, and about three and a half broad, on an average. The harbours are, Newport, Providence, Wickford, Patuxet, Warren, and Bristol.

RIVERS.] This state is intersected in all directions by rivers, the chief of which are Providence and Taunton rivers, which fall into Narraganset bay.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Iron ore is found in great plenty in several parts of this state; there is also a copper mine, mixed with iron strongly impregnated with loadstone. Abundance of lime-stone is also found here.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Rhode Island is as healthy a country as any in America. The winters, in the maritime parts of the state, are milder than in the inland country, the air being softened by a sea vapour, which also enriches the soil. The summers are delightful, especially in Rhode Island, where the extreme heats, which prevail in other parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreshing breezes from the sea. This state produces rye, barley, oats, and in some parts, wheat, sufficient for home consumption; and the various kinds of grasses, fruits, and culinary roots and plants, in great abundance, and in perfection: cider is made for exportation. The north-western parts of the state are but thinly inhabited, and are more rocky and barren than the other parts.

POPULATION.] The state of Rhode Island in 1790 contained 68,825 persons, of whom 948 were slaves. In 1801 the number of inhabitants was 69,122, of whom 380 were slaves.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The principal towns in the state of Rhode Island are Providence and Newport. The former is situate at the head of Narraganset bay, on both sides of Providence river, over which is a bridge 160 feet long and 22 wide. It is a large and handsome town, containing several elegant buildings, and about 6400 inhabitants.

Newport is situate at the south-west end of Rhode Island. The harbour (which is one of the finest in the world) spreads westward before the town. The entrance is easy and safe, and a large fleet may anchor in it, and ride in perfect security. Newport contains about 1000 houses.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The town of Bristol carries on a considerable trade to Africa, the West Indies, and to different parts of the United States; but by far the greatest part of the commerce of Rhode Island is at present carried on by the inhabitants of the flourishing town of Providence, which had, in 1791, 129 sail of vessels, containing 11,942 tons. The exports from this state are, flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, onions, butter, cheese, barley, grain, spirits, cotton and linen goods. The imports consist of European and West Indian goods, and log-wood from the bay of Honduras. Upwards of 600 vessels enter and clear annually at the different ports in the state. The amount of exports from this state to foreign countries for one year, ending Sept. 30, 1791, was 470,131 dollars; and in 1794, 954,573 dollars. The inhabitants of this state are rapidly improving in manufactures. A cotton manufacture has been erected at Providence. Jeans, fustians, denims, thicksets, velvets, &c., are here manufactured, and sent to the southern states. Large quantities of linen and tow-cloth are made in different parts of this state for exportation; but the most considerable manufactures here are those of iron, such as bar and sheet iron, steel, nail rods and nails, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots, and other household utensils; the iron-work of shipping, anchors, and bells.

GOVERNMENT.] The constitution of Rhode Island is founded on the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663; and the frame of government was not essentially altered by the revolution. The legislature of the state consists of two branches; a senate, or upper house, composed of ten members, besides the governor and deputy-governor, called in the charter assistants; and a house of representatives, composed of deputies from the several towns. The members of the legislature are chosen twice a year; and there are two sessions of this body annually, viz. on the first Wednesday in May, and the last Wednesday in October.
Religion.] Liberty of conscience has been inviolably maintained in this state ever since its first settlement. So little has the civil authority to do with religion here, that no contract between a minister and a society (unless incorporated for that purpose) is of any force. It is probably for these reasons that so many different sects have ever been found here; and that the Sabbath, and all religious institutions, have been more neglected in this than in any other of the New England states.

College.] A college, called Rhode Island college, is established at Providence. It is a spacious edifice, and contains upwards of sixty students. It has a library, containing nearly 3000 volumes, and a valuable philosophical apparatus.

History.] This state was first settled from Massachusetts. Mr Roger Williams, a minister, who came over to New England in 1631, was charged with holding a variety of errors, and was on that account forced to leave his house, land, wife, and children, at Salem, in the dead of winter, and to seek a residence without the limits of Massachusetts. Governor Winthrop advised him to pursue his course of Nehiganset, or Narraganset bay, which he did, and fixed himself at Secunk, or Seekhonk, now Reho both. But that place being within the bounds of the Plymouth colony, governor Winslow, in a friendly manner, advised him to remove to the other side of the river, where the lands were not covered by any patent. Accordingly, in 1636, Mr Williams, and four others, crossed Seekhonk's river, and landed among the Indians, by whom they were hospitably received, and thus laid the foundation of a town, which, from a sense of God's merciful providence to him, he called Providence.

### MASSACHUSETTS, INCLUDING THE DISTRICT OF MAIN.

#### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>48,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth</td>
<td>60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>between 64-57 and 73-38 west longitude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-13 and 48-15 north latitude</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Boudaries.**] Massachusetts, which, with the District of Maine, constitutes one of the United States, is bounded on the north by Vermont and New Hampshire; on the east by the Atlantic ocean; on the south by the Atlantic, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; and on the west by New York.

This state is divided into seventeen counties,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties.</th>
<th>Chief Towns.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suffolk</td>
<td>Boston</td>
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<tr>
<td>Norfolk</td>
<td>Dedham</td>
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<tr>
<td>Essex</td>
<td>Salem</td>
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<tr>
<td>Middlesex</td>
<td>Charlestown</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hampshire</td>
<td>Northampton</td>
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<tr>
<td>Worcester</td>
<td>Worcester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plymouth</td>
<td>Plymouth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnstable</td>
<td>Barnstable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duke's county</td>
<td>Edgarton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nantucket</td>
<td>Nantucket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bristol</td>
<td>Taunton</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berkshire</td>
<td>Stockbridge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Boston: 42-23 N. lat. 70-59 W. long.
District of Maine.

York .............................. York
Cumberland ........................ Portland
Lincoln ............................ Pownalborough
Hancock ............................ Hancock
Washington ........................ Machias.

Population.] The number of inhabitants in Massachusetts was, in 1790, 378,787. By the late census of 1860, they amounted to 422,945; and those of the District of Maine to 151,719, together 574,564. This is the only state in the union in which there are no slaves; slavery was abolished by the legislature some years ago.

Climate, soil, and produce.] The climate is similar to that of the other northern states. In the District of Maine the heat in summer is intense, and the cold in winter extremely severe. In Massachusetts are to be found all the varieties of soil from very good to very bad; and capable of yielding in abundance all the different productions common to the climate: such as Indian corn, rye, wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hops, potatoes, field-beans and peas, apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, &c.

Bays, capes, and islands.] The chief bays are, Massachusetts, Ipswich, Boston, Plymouth, and Barnstable; the most remarkable capes, Ann, Cod, Malabar, Poge, and Gay Head; the principal islands, Plum island, Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, Elizabeth islands, and numerous small isles in Boston Bay.

Metals, minerals.] Iron ore, in immense quantities, is found in various parts of this state; as likewise copper ore, black lead, pipe-maker's clay, yellow and red ochre, alum, and slate. Several mineral springs have been found in different parts of the country.

Rivers.] The country is well watered by a number of small rivers, of which the principal are Mystic and Charles rivers.

Chief towns.] Boston is the capital of this state, the largest town in New England, and the third in size and rank in the United States. It is built on a peninsula of irregular form, at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay, and is joined to the main land by an isthmus at the south end of the town. It is two miles long, but of unequal breadth; the broadest part is 726 yards. In 1790, it contained 2376 dwelling-houses, and 15,038 inhabitants; but the increase has been very considerable since. It contains nineteen edifices for public worship, of which nine are for congregationalists, three for episcopalian, and two for baptists: the friends, Roman-catholics, methodists, Sandemanians, and universalists, have one each. There are also seven free-schools, besides a great number of private schools. The harbour is capacious enough for 500 vessels to ride at anchor in good depth of water, while the entrance is so narrow as scarcely to admit two ships abreast. The wharfs and quays in Boston are about eighty in number, and very convenient for vessels. Long Wharf, or Boston Pier, in particular, extends from the bottom of State-street 1743 feet into the harbour in a straight line. The breadth is 104 feet. At the end are 17 feet of water at ebb-tide. Long Wharf is covered on the north side with large and commodious warehouses, and in every respect exceeds any thing of the kind in the United States. Charles river and West Boston bridges are highly useful and ornamental to Boston, and both are on Charles river, which mingles its waters with those of Mystic river, in Boston harbour. Charles river bridge connects Boston with Charlestown, in Middlesex county, and is 1503 feet long, 42 feet broad, and stands on 75 piers. West Boston is 3483 feet long, stands on 180 piers, and exceeds the other as much in elegance as in length. The view of the town, as it is approached from the sea, is truly beautiful and picturesque. It lies in a circular and pleasingly irregular form round the harbour, and is ornamented with spires, above which the monument of Beacon Hill rises pre-eminent; on its top is a gilt eagle, bearing the arms of the union, and on the base of the column are inscriptions commemorating some of the most remarkable events of the late war. The town is governed by nine select men, chosen at an annual meeting in March, when twelve overseers, twelve constables, and some other officers are chosen. Attempts have been made to change the government of the town from its present form to that of a city; but this measure, not according with the democratic spirit of the people, has as yet failed.
Plymouth was the first town built in New England, and peopled principally by the descendants of the first settlers. The rock on which their forefathers landed was conveyed in 1774 from the shore to a square in the centre of the town, where it remains as a monument. The situation of the town is pleasant and healthful.

Salem is the second town in this state. It contained, in 1790, 928 houses, and 7921 inhabitants. It is a very commercial place, and is connected with Beverly by Essex bridge, upwards of 1500 feet in length, erected in 1789. The harbour is defended by a fort.

Portland is the capital of the District of Maine. It has a most excellent, safe, and capacious harbour, and is one of the most thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. In 1795 a fort, a citadel, and a battery of ten pieces of cannon, were erected for its defence.

Commerce and Manufactures.] This state, including the District of Maine, owns more than three times as many tons of shipping as any other of the states; and more than one-third part of the whole that belongs to the United States. Upwards of 89,000 tons are employed in carrying on the fisheries, 46,000 in the coasting business, and 96,500 in trading with almost all parts of the world. Pot and pearl-ashes, staves, flax-seed, and beeswax, are carried chiefly to Great Britain, in remittance for their manufactures; masts and provisions to the East Indies; fish, oil, beef, pork, lumber, and candles, are carried to the West Indies, for their produce; and the two first articles, fish and oil, to France, Spain, and Portugal; roots, vegetables, and fruits, to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; hats, saddlery, cabinet-work, men's and women's shoes, nails, tow-cloth, barley, hops, butter, and cheese, to the southern states. The value of exports in the year 1791 was 2,445,975 dollars, and in 1794, 5,380,703 dollars. Great quantities of nails are made in this state. The machine invented by Caleb Leach, of Plymouth, will cut and head 5000 nails in a day, under the direction of a youth of either sex. There is also a machine for cutting nails at Newbury Port, invented by Mr. Jacob Perkins, which will turn out two hundred thousand nails in a day. The nails are said to have a decided superiority over those of English manufacture, and are sold 20 per cent. cheaper. There are in this state upwards of twenty paper-mills, which make more than 70,000 reams of writing, printing, and wrapper-paper, annually. There were, in 1792, 62 distilleries, which distilled in one year from foreign materials 1,900,000 gallons. There are several snuff, oil, chocolate, and powder-mills: there are indeed few articles which are essentially necessary, and minister to the comfort and convenience of life, that are not manufactured in this state.

Government.] The legislature of Massachusetts consists of a senate, and a house of representatives; which, together with the governor and lieutenant-governor, are elected annually by the people; electors must be twenty-one years of age, have freeholds of the annual value of three pounds, or personal estate to the value of sixty pounds. To be eligible to the office of governor or lieutenant-governor, the candidate must have resided in the estate seven years, and during that time must have been seized of a freehold of one thousand pounds. Senators must have resided five years in the state, and have possessed a freehold to the value of three hundred pounds, or personal property to the value of six hundred pounds. A representative must have resided one year in the town which he is chosen to represent, and have been seized therein of freehold estate to the value of one hundred pounds, or been possessed of personal property to the value of two hundred pounds. From the persons returned as senators and counsellors, being forty in all, nine are annually elected, by joint ballot of both houses, for the purpose of advising the governor in the execution of his office. All judicial officers, the attorney and solicitor-general, sheriffs, &c. are, with the advice of the council, appointed by the governor. The judges (except justices of the peace, whose commissions expire in seven years, but may be renewed) hold their offices during good behaviour.

University and Academy.] There is a university at Cambridge, four miles west of Boston, the college buildings of which are four in number, and named Harvard, Hollis, and Massachusetts Halls, and Holden Chapel. This university generally has from 140 to 200 students; and as to its library, philosophical apparatus, and professor.
ships, it is at present the first literary institution on this continent. It takes date from the year 1638 seven years after the first settlement in the township.

In May 1780, the council and house of representatives of Massachusetts passed an act for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences. It is entitled the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. The first members were named in the act, and never were to be more than two hundred, nor less than forty.

History. An account of the first settlement and early history of Massachusetts has already been given under the general head of New England. In consequence of the revolt of the American colonies from the authority of Great Britain, on the 25th of July 1776, by an order from the council at Boston, the declaration of the American congress, absolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the British crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the state-house in that town; and a constitution or form of government, for the commonwealth of Massachusetts, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and established by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October 1780.

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PENN SYLV ANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees. Sq. Miles.
Length 290 \{74 and 80 west longitude.\} 45,900.
Breadth 150 \{39 and 42 north latitude.\}

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by New York and Lake Erie, on the north; by Delaware river, which divides it from New Jersey, on the east; by a part of Virginia, and by Maryland and Delaware, on the south; and by the North western territory, and a part of Virginia, on the west.

Divisions.] The state of Pennsylvania contains twenty-three counties.

Counties. Chief Towns.
Philadelphia PHILADELPHIA. \{N. lat. 40.\}
Chester Chester
Bucks Newtown
Berks Reading
Northampton Easton
Lancaster Lancaster
York York
Cumberland Carlisle
Montgomery Norriston
Dauphin Louisburg
Luzerne Wilksbarre
Northumberland Sunbury
Franklin Chamberstown
Huntingdon Huntingdon
Westmoreland Greensburg
Fayette Union
Washington Washington

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### Counties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allegany</td>
<td>Pittsburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>Chester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mifflin</td>
<td>Lewiston</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bedford</td>
<td>Bedford</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somerset</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lycoming</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Climate, Soil, Produce

The climate, soil, and produce do not materially differ from those of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is sweet and clear. The summers continue from December till March, and are so extremely cold and severe, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, August, and September, are almost intolerably hot; but the country is refreshed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked, in general, that in all parts of the United States, from New York to the southern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four species, all different from those we have in Europe. But, whether from some fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the soil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a sort of wine with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these states, that towards the south it is not so good for shipping as that of the more northern countries. The farther southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily: which property, as it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

Pennsylvania produces all the various kinds of grain common to the neighbouring states; but wheat is the principal, and of most general cultivation. The vine is much cultivated in this state, and good wine has been made from the grapes raised here.

### Population

The inhabitants of Pennsylvania in 1790 amounted to 434,373, including 3737 slaves; and in 1800 to 602,365, including 1706 slaves; or about thirteen for every square mile.

### Rivers

The rivers are, the Delaware, which is navigable more than two hundred miles above Philadelphia; the Susquehanna and Schuylkill, which are also navigable a considerable way up the country. These rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largest fleets, render this state admirably suited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

### Metals, Minerals

Iron ore abounds in this state; and copper and lead are found in some places. Lime-stone is common, as also several kinds of marble; and in the middle and western parts of the country there is abundance of coal.

### Origin and Character of the Inhabitants

The inhabitants of Pennsylvania are principally the descendants of English, Irish, and Germans, with some Scotch, Welch, Swedes, and a few Dutch. There are also many of the Irish and Germans, who emigrated when young or middle-aged. The Friends and Episcopalians are chiefly of English extraction, and compose about one-third of the inhabitants. They live chiefly in the metropolis, and in the counties of Chester, Philadelphia, Bucks, and Montgomery. The Irish are mostly Presbyterians, but some are Roman Catholics. The Germans compose about one-quarter of the inhabitants of Pennsylvania. They consist of Lutherans, who are the most numerous sect; Calvinists, or Reformed Church; Moravians, Roman Catholics, Mennonists, Tunkers, and Zwingfelters, who are a species of Quakers. These are all distinguished for their temperance, industry, and economy. The Baptists, except the Mennonists and Tunker Baptists, are chiefly descended of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous. A proportionate assemblage of the national prejudices, the manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments of all these, will form the Pennsylvanian character.

* This county was purchased from the Indians, in 1768, by Mr Penn, and established in 1771.
COMMERCÉ, MANUFACTURES.] The commerce of Pennsylvania is very flourishing. It is principally carried on from Philadelphia; and there are few commercial ports in the world where ships from Philadelphia may not be found in some season of the year. The number of vessels which entered this port in 1786 was 19,10; and, in 1795, 1620. The clearances in the latter year were 1789. It is not mentioned, however, how many of these were coating vessels. The number of vessels built in 1795 was 31, of which 23 were ships and brigs. In the year 1792, Philadelphia shipped 420,000 barrels of flour and middlings. The value of exports from the State of Pennsylvania in the year ending September 30, 1791, was $3,436,092 dollars; and, in 1795, $11,518,260 dollars. The existing war has occasioned some extraordinary articles in the exportation of late; coffee and other commodities having been carried to Philadelphia, and thence to Hamburgh, as neutral ports.

The manufactures of this state are of numerous kinds. Iron-works are of long standing, and their products increase in quantity, and improve in quality. There are also improving manufactures of leather, paper, cotton, gun-powder, copper, lead, tin, and earthen-ware.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Pennsylvania contains several very considerable towns, such as Lancaster, Carlisle, and Pittsburg. But the city of Philadelphia, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, eclipses the rest, and merits particular attention. It was built after the plan of the famous William Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situate about 120 miles from the sea, by the course of the bay and river; and 55 or 60 in the south-eastward direction. The ground-plot of the city is an oblong square, about one mile from north to south, and two from east to west; lying in the narrowest part of the isthmus, between the Delaware and Schuykill rivers, about five miles in a right line above their confluence, where the Delaware is a mile broad. The city is intersected by a great number of streets crossing each other at right angles. Of these there were originally nine, which extended from the Delaware to the Schuykill, and were crossed by twenty-three others running north and south. The number of squares formed by these streets, in the original plan, was 184; but as several of them have lately been intersected by new streets, their number now amounts to 304; and several of these are again intersected by lanes and alleys. Market-street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole length of the city, from river to river; and near the middle is intersected by Broad-street, 113 feet wide, running nearly north and south. The other streets are 50 feet wide, except Arch-street, which is 65 feet. Most of the city is well paved with foot-paths of brick, furnished with common sewers and gutters, so that the streets are in general kept very clean and neat. The houses in the city and suburbs are generally of brick, three stories high, in a plain decent style, without much display of ornament. In 1794 there were 9000 houses in this city, and 400 which were building; and the present number of inhabitants is estimated at about 70,000. Philadelphia contains 27 places of public worship, belonging to different sects. The state-house is a magnificent building, erected in 1795. In 1787 an elegant court-house, or town-hall, was built on the left of the state-house, and on the right, a philosophical hall. Here likewise is a public observatory, and several other public buildings. The city is governed by a mayor, recorder, fifteen aldermen, and thirty common-council-men, according to its present charter, granted in the year 1789. A malignant fever raged here in 1793, which in the course of August and three succeeding months carried off 4021 of the inhabitants; and this fatal distemper for several years returned annually.

Lancaster, the chief town of Lancaster county, is the largest inland town in the United States: it contains about 7 or 800 houses, and 5000 inhabitants. Carlisle contains about 400 houses, and 1500 inhabitants.

GOVERNMENT.] According to the actual constitution, the legislative power is administered by a senate and house of representatives; the executive by a governor; and the judiciary by a supreme court, a court of common-pleas, and a court of quarter sessions of the peace. The legislature and governor are elected by the freemen; the governor for three years; the representatives, and a fourth part of the senate, annually.
The number of representatives must not be less than sixty, nor exceed one hundred; nor that of senators less than a fourth, nor greater than a third part of the number of representatives. The electors of the magistrates must have attained the age of twenty-one, have resided in the state two years, and paid taxes. The representatives must have been inhabitants of the state three years, and, the last year previous to their election, have resided in the county which chooses them. The qualifications of twenty-five years of age, and of four years residence, are required in senators: and the governor must have attained the age of thirty, and have resided in the state seven years; and he is not eligible more than nine years in twelve. The senators are divided by lot into four classes; and the seats of one class vacated and re-filled yearly.

University, Colleges.] There is an university at Philadelphia, and colleges at Carlisle and Lancaster. The Episcopalians have an academy at York-town, in York county. There are also academies at German-town, at Pittsburg, at Washington, at Allen's-town, and other places: these are endowed by donations from the legislature, and by liberal contributions of individuals. The legislature have also reserved 60,000 acres of the public lands for public schools. The United Brethren, or Moravians, have academies at Bethlehem and Nazareth, on the best establishment of any schools perhaps in America. The literary, humane, and other useful societies are more numerous, and flourishing in Pennsylvania than in any of the sixteen states. Among these is one which deserves a particular notice, that is, the American Philosophical Society, held at Philadelphia. This society was formed, January 2d, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time, and were created one body corporate and politic, with such powers, privileges, and immunities, as are necessary for answering the valuable purpose which the society had originally in view, by a charter granted by the commonwealth of Pennsylvania on the 15th of March 1780. This society has published two very valuable volumes of their transactions: one in 1771, and the other in 1786. In 1771 it consisted of nearly 300 members, and upwards of 120 have since been added; a large proportion of whom are foreigners.

Religion.] Liberty of conscience is allowed in this state in its fullest extent. The proportions in which the several different sects prevail, may be estimated from the number of congregations in Pennsylvania, as given by Dr Morse, viz. Presbyterians, 86; German Calvinists, 84; nearly 84 of German Lutherans; Friends, or Quakers, 54; Episcopalians, 26; Baptists, 15; Roman Catholics, 11; Scotch Presbyterians, 8; Free Quakers, 1; Universalists, 1; Covenanters, 1; Methodists, 3 or 4; and a Jewish synodogue; the whole amounting to 384.

History.] This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. When these nations, however, were expelled from New York by the English, admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the Island of Jamaica (under the auspices of Cromwell), being in favour with Charles II. obtained a promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and, after much court-solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine Mr Penn be little known but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation, in a character no less respectable, is universal among all civilised nations. The circumstances of the times engaged vast numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the Quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed; but it was to his own wisdom and ability that they are indebted for that charter of privileges which placed this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man as the chief and only foundation of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of the colony. No laws could be made but by the consent of the inhabitants. Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The disputes between individuals were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity
extended also to the Indian nations; instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and the oldest right, was vested in them. William Penn, in short, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statute placed next to those of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and, as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention, that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted were at twenty pounds the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother country, land rented at twenty shillings the acre, and, even at several miles distance from that city, sold at twenty years purchase.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congress of America met in September 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there till the king's troops made themselves masters of that city on the 26th of September 1777. But in June 1778 the British troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the residence of the congress.

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**NEW JERSEY.**

**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 160</td>
<td>39 and 41-24 north lat.</td>
<td>9,320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 50</td>
<td>74-44 and 75-33 west long.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Boundaries, divisions.** NEW JERSEY is bounded on the west and southwest by Delaware river and bay, which separates it from the states of Pennsylvania and Delaware; on the south-east and east, by the Atlantic Ocean, the Sound which separates Staten Island from the continent, and Hudson's river; and on the north, by a line drawn from the mouth of Mahakakkamak river, to a point in Hudson's river.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Districts</th>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>East Division contains</td>
<td>Middlesex</td>
<td>Perth Amboy and New Brunswick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monmouth</td>
<td>Shrewsbury and Freehold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Essex</td>
<td>Elizabeth and Newark</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Somerset</td>
<td>Boundbrook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bergen</td>
<td>Hackensack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Burlington</td>
<td>BURLINGTON {40-8 north lat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gloucester</td>
<td>75-0 west long.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Salem</td>
<td>Woodbury and Gloucester</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cumberland</td>
<td>Salem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cape May</td>
<td>Hopecwell, Bridgetown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hunterdon</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Morris</td>
<td>TRENTON {40-15 north lat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sussex</td>
<td>74-15 west long.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Division contains</td>
<td>Hunterdon</td>
<td>Morristown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Morris</td>
<td>Newton</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Rivers.** These are the Delaware, Raritan, and Passaik, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract: the height of the rock from which the water falls is said to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.
Climate, soil, and produce.] The climate is much the same with that of New York; the soil is various; at least one-fourth part of the province is barren sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c., in great perfection.

Population.] The number of inhabitants in New Jersey in 1790 was 164,139, of whom 11,423 were slaves; in 1801 they amounted to 211,149, including 12,422 slaves.

Trade, manufactures.] The trade of this state is carried on almost solely with and from those two great commercial cities, New York on one side, and Philadelphia on the other, though it wants not good ports of its own. Manufactures here have hitherto been inconsiderable, if we except the articles of iron, nails, and leather. The iron manufacture is, of all others, the greatest source of wealth to the state. In Morris county alone are no less than seven rich iron mines. In the whole state it is supposed there is yearly made about 1200 tons of bar iron, and as many of pig iron, exclusive of hollow ware, and various other castings, of which vast quantities are made.

Chief towns.] Trenton is the largest town in and the metropolis of this state, where the legislature stately meets, the supreme court sits, and most of the public offices are kept. It contains between two and three hundred houses, and about 2000 inhabitants.

Perth Amboy and Burlington were formerly the seats of government: the governor generally resided in the latter, which is pleasantly situate on the river Delaware, about twenty miles from Philadelphia. The former is as good a port as most on the continent, and the harbour is safe, and capacious enough to contain many large ships.

Metals, minerals.] In this state are several iron mines, and in Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

Government.] By the Charter of Rights, established by the provincial congress, July 2. 1776, the government of New Jersey is vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The members of the legislative council are to be freetholders, and worth at least one thousand pounds real and personal estate; and the members of the general assembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All the inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for representatives in council and assembly, and for all other public officers. The elections of the governor, legislative council, and general assembly, are to be annual; the governor and lieutenant-governor to be chosen out of, and by the assembly and council. The judges of the supreme court are chosen for seven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

Religion and learning.] According to the present constitution of this province, all persons are allowed to worship God in the manner that is most agreeable to their own consciences; nor is any person obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpose of building or repairing any church or churches, for the maintenance of any minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himself to perform. There is to be no establishment of any one religious sect in this province, in preference to another; and no protestant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

Colleges.] A college, called Nassau Hall, was established at the town of Princeton, in this province, by governor Belcher, in 1746, which has the power of conferring the same degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There are generally between eighty and a hundred students here, who come from all parts of the continent, some even from the extremities of it. There is another college at Brunswick, called Queen's College, founded a little before the war, and in considerable repute. There are also several academies.

History.] New Jersey is part of that vast tract of land which, we have observed, was given by king Charles II. to his brother James duke of York: he sold it, for a valuable consideration, to lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret (from which it received its present name, because Sir George had estates in the island of Jersey), and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a surrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which she accepted: after which it became a royal government.
DELAWARE.

Situation and Extent.

Miles. | Degrees. | Sq. Miles.
---|---|---
Length 92 | between 38-29 and 39-54 north lat. | 2000
Breadth 24 | 75 2 and 75-48 west long. | 2000

Boundaries.] DELAWARE is bounded on the east by the river and bay of the same name, and the Atlantic Ocean; on the north, by Pennsylvania; and on the south and west by Maryland. It is divided into the three following counties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Newcastle</td>
<td>Newcastle, Wilmington</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kent</td>
<td>Dover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sussex</td>
<td>Lewes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Population.] The number of inhabitants in Delaware in 1790 was 59,094, of whom 887 were slaves: in 1801 they amounted to 64,273, including 6153 slaves.

Air, Soil, and Produce.] The air is in general healthy; but in some parts, where there are large quantities of stagnant water, it is less salubrious. The soil along the Delaware river, and from eight to ten miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, adapted to the various purposes of agriculture. From thence to the swamps the soil is light, sandy, and of an inferior quality. Wheat grows here in such perfection, as not only to be particularly sought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the Union, but also to be distinguished and preferred for its superior qualities in foreign markets. Besides wheat, this state generally produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buck-wheat, and potatoes.

Rivers.] In the southern and western parts of this state, spring the head-waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chester, Sassafras, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into Chesapeake bay. Some of them are navigable twenty or thirty miles into the country for vessels of fifty or sixty tons.

Chief towns.] Dover, being the seat of government, is considered as the metropolis, though it contains but about a hundred houses; but Wilmington is the most considerable town in the state, containing 600 houses, and 3000 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in squares, similar to Philadelphia.

Metals, Minerals.] There are few minerals in this state, excepting iron: large quantities of bog iron ore, very fit for castings, are found in Sussex county, among the branches of Nanticoke river.

Trade and Manufactures.] The staple commodity of this state is wheat, which is manufactured into flour, and exported in large quantities. Besides wheat and flour, lumber and various other articles are exported from Delaware. The amount of exports from this state in the year 1795 was 158,041 dollars. Among other branches of industry exercised in and near Wilmington are a cotton manufactory, and a bolting manufactory. In the county of Newcastle are several fulling-mills, two snuff-mills, one slitting-mill, four paper-mills, and sixty mills for grinding grain, all turned by water.

Religion.] In this state there are a variety of religious denominations. Of the Presbyterian sect there are 24 churches; of the Episcopal 14; of the Baptists 7; of the Methodists a considerable number. Besides these, there is a Swedish church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldest churches in the United States.

Government.] At the late revolution, the three counties of Delaware were erected into a sovereign state, having a governor, senate, and house of representatives. The senators are nine in number, three from each county, and the representatives twenty-seven. The former must be twenty-seven years old, and the latter twenty-four; and senators must have a freehold of two hundred acres, or real and personal estate to the value of one thousand pounds. The governor is not eligible more than three years
In six. In other particulars the constitution of Delaware almost exactly agrees with that of Pennsylvania.

Learning.] There is no college in this state. There is an academy at Newark, incorporated in 1769. The legislature, in January 1796, passed an act to create a fund for the establishment of schools throughout the state.

History.] Settlements were made here by the Dutch about the year 1623, and by the Swedes about the year 1627. Their settlements were comprehended in the grant to the duke of York; and William Penn united them to his government by purchase. They were afterwards separated in some measure from Pennsylvania, and denominated the Three Lower Counties. They had their own assemblies, but the governor of Pennsylvania used to attend, as he did in his own proper government.

NEW YORK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 350</td>
<td>between 40 and 45 north latitude</td>
<td>24,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 300</td>
<td>73 and 80 west longitude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Boundaries.] NEW YORK is bounded on the south and south-west by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; and on the east and north-east by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the north-west by Canada.

This state, including the island of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, is divided into the twenty-one following counties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties.</th>
<th>Chief Towns.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Albany</td>
<td>New York</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulster</td>
<td>Albany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duchess</td>
<td>Kingston</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange</td>
<td>Poughkeepsie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Chester</td>
<td>Orange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King's</td>
<td>Bedford, White Plains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queen's</td>
<td>Flatbush, Brooklyn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suffolk</td>
<td>Jamaica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richmond</td>
<td>East Hampton, Huntingdon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>Richmond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Columbia</td>
<td>Salem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinton</td>
<td>Hudson, Kinderhook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Montgomery</td>
<td>Platsburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renselaer</td>
<td>Johnstown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ontario</td>
<td>Lansinburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Herkimer</td>
<td>Canadaque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Otsego</td>
<td>German Flats</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tioga</td>
<td>Cooper's Town</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saratoga</td>
<td>Chemango, Union Town</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Onondago</td>
<td>Saratago</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Rivers.] The principal of these are Hudson's and the Mohawk: the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with a great variety of fish; on this the cities of New York and Albany are situate.
The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is six hundred miles from New York. It is navigable, for sloops of eighty tons, to Albany, and for ships to Hudson. About sixty miles above New York the water becomes fresh. The river is stored with a variety of fish, which renders a summer-passage to Albany delightful and amusing to those who are fond of angling. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is said to fall thirty feet perpendicular; but, including the descent above, the fall is as much as sixty or seventy feet, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

Capes.] These are Cape May, on the east entrance of Delaware river; Sandy Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the east end of Long Island.

Cities.] The city of New York stands on the south-west end of York Island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well situate for trade, at the mouth of Hudson’s river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns towards Canada and the lakes. The city is in length above two miles, and its mean breadth about a mile. This city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery: in the fort is a spacious mansion-house, for the use of the governor. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. A fourth part of the city was burnt down by some incendiaries in 1776, on the king’s troops taking it. A great part of the inhabitants, reckoned in 1790 at 33,131, are descended from the Dutch families who remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English.

The city of Albany contains about 6000 inhabitants, collected from almost all parts of the northern world. As great a variety of languages are spoken in Albany as in any town in the United States. Adventurers in pursuit of wealth are led hither by the advantages for trade which this place affords. Situated on one of the finest rivers in the world, at the head of sloop-navigation, surrounded with a rich and extensive back country, and the store house of the trade to and from Canada and the lakes, it must flourish, and the inhabitants cannot but grow rich.

The city of Hudson, however, is their great rival, and has had the most rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is 130 miles north of New York. It was not begun till the autumn of 1783.

Commerce, Manufactures.] The situation of New York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the states. It has at all seasons of the year a short and easy access to the ocean. It commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled and best cultivated parts of the United States. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New Englanders use; and they have a share in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They used to take almost the same sort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports were said to amount to 526,000l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000. The exports from this state in 1791 amounted to 2,505,465 dollars: and in 1795 to 10,304,580 dollars, or above two millions sterling.

The city of New York contains a great number of people who are employed in the various branches of manufactures; viz. wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf sugar, bread, beer, shoes, and boots, saddlery, cabinet work, cutlery, hats, clocks, watches, mathematical and musical instruments, ships, and every thing necessary for their equipment. A glass work and several iron works have been established.

Population.] The number of inhabitants in this state in 1790 was 340,120, of whom 11,324 were slaves. According to the census of 1800, they had then increased to 586,203, including 20,613 slaves.

Climate, Soil, and Produce.] This province, lying to the south of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of the country is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swel-
ling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the same with that of New, England.

Animals.] In the northern and unsettled parts of this state there are numerous mouse-deer, bears, some beavers, martins, and most of the other inhabitants of the forest, except wolves. The domestic animals are the same in general as in the other states.

Metals and Minerals.] Great quantities of iron ore are found in this state. A silver mine has been worked at Phillipsburg, which produced virgin silver. Lead is found in Herkemer county, and sulphur in Montgomery.

The mineral springs of Ballstown, Saratoga, and New Lebanon, are in great repute. The salt springs of Onondago produce excellent salt; and a spring is said to have been discovered in the Susquehannah country impregnated with nitre, from which saltpetre is made in the same manner as salt from the Onondago springs.

Government.] By the constitution of the state of New York, established in 1777, the supreme legislative power is vested in two separate and distinct bodies of men; the one called “The Assembly of the State of New York,” consisting of seventy members annually chosen by ballot; and the other, “The Senate of the State of New York,” consisting of twenty-four, for four years, who together form the legislature, and meet once at least in every year for the dispatch of business. The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, who continues in office three years, assisted by four counsellors chosen by and from the senate. Every male inhabitant of full age, who possesses a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or has rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty shillings, and been rated and paid taxes to the state for six months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the assembly; but those who vote for the governor, and the members of the senate, are to be possessed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congress, the judges, &c, are to be chosen by ballot of the senate and assembly.

Colleges.] A college was erected at New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but, as the assembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reason never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public seminary in so populous a city. It is now called Columbia College. It has about one hundred and forty students in the four classes, besides medical students.

A college called Union College, was established at Schenectady in 1794, which has now about forty students in the four classes. Besides these there are dispersed, in different parts of the state fourteen incorporated academies, containing in the whole six or seven hundred students. It is also provided, that schools shall be established, one at least in every district of four square miles.

Religion.] It is ordained by the constitution of New York, that the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference, shall for ever be allowed within that state to all mankind.

History.] The Swedes and Dutch were the first Europeans who formed settlements on this part of the American coast. The tract claimed by the two nations extended from the 38th to the 41st degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conquest in 1664; and it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our possession before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king’s brother, James, duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent dated March 20, 1664. On James’s accession to the throne, the right to New York became vested in the crown, and it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people once in seven years, elected their representatives to serve in general assemblies. These three branches of the legislature (answering to those of Great Britain) had power to make any laws not repugnant to those of England; but, in order to their being valid, the royal assent to them was first to be obtained.
VIRGINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.  Sq. Miles.
Length 450 \{ 76 and 83 west longitude. \} 70,000
Breadth 224 \{ 36 and 40 north latitude. \}

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania, and the Ohio river, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by North Carolina, on the south; and by Kentucky, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] Virginia is divided into 82 counties, as follows:

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<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>West of the Blue Ridge.</td>
<td>Ohio</td>
<td>Between James river and</td>
<td>Sussex</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monongalia</td>
<td>Carolina.</td>
<td>Southampton</td>
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<td>Washington</td>
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<td>Prince George</td>
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<td>Between the Blue Ridge and</td>
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<td>the Tide-waters.</td>
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<td>Between James river and</td>
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<td>Carolina.</td>
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<td>Eastern shore</td>
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The following are new Counties.

Campbell
Franklin
Harrison
Randolph
Hardy
Pendleton
Russell
Capes, Bays, and Rivers.] In sailing to Virginia or Maryland, you pass a strait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a passage into the bay of Chesapeake, one of the largest and safest in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the south to the north, is about eighteen miles broad for a considerable way, and seven where it is the narrowest, the waters in most places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vast number of navigable rivers from the sides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, besides others of less note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannoc, and the Potowmac: these are not only navigable for large ships into the heart of the country, but have so many creeks, and receive such a number of smaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, without all manner of doubt, the country in the world of all others of the most convenient navigation. It has been observed, and the observation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

Climate.] In summer the heats here are excessive, though not without refreshing breezes from the sea. The weather is changeable, and the change is sudden and violent. The winter frosts come on without the least warning. To a warm day there sometimes succeeds such an intense cold in the evening as to freeze over the largest rivers.

The air and seasons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryness and moisture. In winter, they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleasant. Their spring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June the heat increases; and the summer is much like ours, being refreshed with gentle breezes from the sea, that rise about nine o'clock, and decrease or increase as the sun rises or falls. In July and August these breezes cease, and the air becomes stagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occasion all the train of diseases incident to a moist climate, particularly agues and intermittent fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any mischief.

Face of the Country.] The whole face of this country is so extremely low towards the sea, that you are very near the shore before you can discover land from the mast-head. The lofty trees, which cover the soil, gradually rise as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting prospect. You travel 100 miles into the country without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extensive coast of North America.

Soil and Produce.] Towards the sea-shore and the banks of the rivers, the soil of Virginia consists of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a distance from the water there is a lightness and sandiness of the soil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and, aided by a kindly sun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been said of the soil and climate, it is easy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The forests are covered with all sorts of lofty trees, and no underwood or bushes grow beneath; so that people travel with ease through them on horseback, under a fine shade which defends them from the sun; the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering shrubs of the richest colours and most fragrant scent. Silk grows spontaneously in many places, the fibres of which are as strong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the snake-root and ginseng, are here in great plenty. There is no sort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are so engrossed with the culture of the tobacco plant, that they think, if corn sufficient for their support can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own consumption, but for exportation, though not in such quantities as might be expected from the nature of the soil, which is admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

Metals and Minerals.] Virginia abounds more with minerals and fossils than any state in the Union. Iron, lead, copper, blacklead, coal, marble, lime-stone, are found in this country: a single lump of gold ore has likewise been found near the falls of Rappahannoc river, which yielded 7 dwt. of gold of extraordinary ductility; but no other indications of gold have been observed. Crystals are common: some amethysts, and one emerald, have been discovered.
POPULATION.] The inhabitants of Virginia amounted, according to the census of 1790, to 747,610, of whom 292,637 were negroes; in 1801, by the census then taken, their number was 880,149, including 346,968 slaves.

ANIMALS.] We shall here observe, that there were neither horses, cows, sheep, nor hogs, in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied so extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the Southern Colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the Colonies, beef and pork were sold here from one penny to two-pence a pound; the fattest pullets at sixpence a piece; chickens at three or four shillings a dozen; geese at ten-pence; and turkeys at eighteen-pence a piece. But fish and wild-fowl were still cheaper in the season, and deer were sold from five to ten shillings a-piece. This estimate may serve for the other American colonies, where provisions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in some still lower. Besides the animals transported from Europe, those natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a sort of panther or tiger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewise that singular animal called the opossum, which seems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix in his History of Canada. It is about the size of a cat; and, besides the belly, common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itself, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture towards the hinder legs, which discovers a great number of teats on the usual parts of the common belly. Upon these, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang, like fruit upon the stalk, until they grow to certain bulk and weight; when they drop off, and are received into the false belly, from which they go out at pleasure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all sorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, whose plumage is crimson and blue; the mocking bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming-bird, the smallest of all the winged creation, and by far the most beautiful, all arrayed in scarlet, green, and gold. It sips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nourishment; and is so delicate to be brought alive into England.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Virginia has produced some of the most distinguished actors in effecting the revolution of America. Her political and military character will rank among the first in the page of history. But it is to be observed, that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public transactions, and who, in short, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themselves with politics, so that their government, though nominally republican, is in fact oligarchical, or aristocratical.

Several travellers give but a very indifferent account of the generality of the people of this state. The young men observe one, generally speaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horse-jockeys. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the discoveries of a Newton, are considered as infinitely inferior to the accomplishments of him who is expert in the management of a cock-fight, or dexterous in manoeuvring at a horse-race. A spirit for literary inquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently subordinate to a spirit of gambling and barbarous sports. At almost every tavern or ordinary on the public road there is a billiard-table, a back-gammon table, cards, and other implements for various games. To these public-houses the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood resort, to kill time, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this business they are extremely expert, having been accustomed to it from their earliest youth. The passion for cock-fighting, a diversion not only inhumanly barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of sense, is so predominant, that they even advertise their matches in the public papers.* This dissipation of manners is the consequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruits of African slavery.

TRADE.] The trade of Virginia consists principally in tobacco, and different kinds of grain. In 1790, about 40,000 hogsheads of tobacco were exported; but its culture

* A traveller through Virginia observes: Three or four matches were advertised in the public prints at Williamsburg; and I was witness to five in the course of my travels from that to Port-Royal.
has since declined, and that of wheat taken place. The greatest quantity of tobacco ever produced in this country was 70,000 hogsheads in the year 1758. The exports from this state, in the year 1792, amounted to 3,549,499 dollars, and in 1796 to 5,268,615 dollars.

Chief towns.] Virginia is not divided into townships, nor are there any large towns, owing probably to the intersection of the country by navigable rivers, which bring the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevent the necessity of their going in quest of it to a distance. The principal towns are, Richmond the capital, Williamsburg, and Norfolk. Richmond contains between 400 and 500 houses, and about 4000 inhabitants. Here is a large state-house, or capitol, lately erected on a hill which commands an extensive prospect of the lower part of the town, the river, and the adjacent country. Williamsburg was the seat of government till 1780. It contains about 100 houses, and about 1400 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in parallel streets, with a pleasant square in the centre, of about ten acres, through which runs the principal street, about a mile in length, and more than 200 feet wide. Norfolk is the most considerable commercial town in Virginia. The harbour is safe and commodious, and large enough to contain 300 ships. In 1790 the number of inhabitants in Norfolk was 2959, including 1294 slaves.

Religion.] The present denominations of Christians in Virginia are: Presbyterians, who are most numerous; Episcopalians, Baptists and Methodists. The first settlers were Episcopalians.

Government.] The present government of this province, as settled, in convention at Williamsburg, July 5th, 1776, is, that the legislative, executive, and judiciary departments be separate and distinct; that the house of delegates be chosen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the district of West Augusta; and one representative for the city of Williamsburg and town of Norfolk. The senate to consist of twenty-four members, also chosen by the freeholders of the state, divided into twenty districts. The executive is a governor and privy council, of eight members, chosen annually by the joint ballot of the general assembly of the state, who also choose the delegates to congress, the judges, and other law officers, president, treasurer, secretary, &c. justices, sheriffs, and coroners, commissioned by the governor and council.

Colleges.] There is a college at Williamsburg, founded by King William, and called William and Mary College. That monarch gave two thousand pounds towards building it, and twenty thousand acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of two thousand pounds a year, and a duty of a penny per pound on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are always appointed by the governors, or visitors. The academy in Prince Edward county has been erected into a college by the name of Hampden Sidney college. There are besides a number of academies in different parts of Virginia: one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, one at Hanover, and others in other places.

History.] This is the first country which the English planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other settlements, as has been already observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that Sir Walter Raleigh applied to court, and got together a company, which was composed of several persons of distinction, and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade and settle a colony in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony, before any proved successful. The three first companies who sailed to Virginia, perished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced almost to the same situation; and being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But, in the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, they were met by lord Delaware, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal govern-
ment of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return to England. He left behind him, however, his son as deputy; with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Sommers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr Newport, for his council. By them, James-Town, the first town built by the English in the New World, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and, under the government of Sir William Berkeley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the restoration there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontent in the colony on account of restraints in trade, became very popular, and threw every thing into confusion. His death, however, restored peace and unanimity.

The government of this province was not at first adapted to the principles of the English constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a subject of Great Britain thinks himself entitled in every part of the globe. It was subject to a governor and council appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increased, the inconvenience of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county into which this country is divided, with privileges resembling those of the representatives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower house of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were appointed, during pleasure, by the Crown; they were styled honourable, and answered in some measure to the house of peers in the British constitution. The lower house was the guardian of the people’s liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bore a striking resemblance to our own. When any bill had passed the two houses, it came before the governor, who gave his assent or negative as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was transmitted to England, and his Majesty’s pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of assembly acted not only as a part of the legislature, but also as privy council to the governor, without whose concurrence he could do nothing of moment; it sometimes acted as a court of chancery.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

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<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Length 134</td>
<td>75 and 80 west longitude</td>
<td>4000</td>
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<td>Breadth 110</td>
<td>38 and 40 north latitude</td>
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Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the north; by the Delaware state, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains, on the west.

Divisions.] Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeake, viz. 1. the eastern; and, 2. the western division.
### Divisions, Counties, and Chief Towns of Maryland

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<tr>
<th>Divisions</th>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
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<tr>
<td>The East Division</td>
<td>Worcester, Somerset, Dorset, Talbot, Cecil, Queen Anne's, Kent, Caroline, St Mary's, Charles, Prince George, Calvert, Ann Arundel</td>
<td>Princess Anne, Snow Hill, Dorset, or Dorchester, Oxford, Queen's Town, Chester, Danton, St Mary, Bristol, Masterkout, Abington, Annapolis, W. lon. 75.8 N. lat. 38-56.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Baltimore, Frederic, Washington, Montgomery, Hartford, Allegany</td>
<td>Baltimore, Frederic Town, Elizabeth Town, Cumberland</td>
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**Rivers.** This country is indented with a vast number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoke, Patuxent, Choptank, Severn, and Sassafras.

**Face of the Country, Climate, Soil, and Produce.** In these particulars this state has nothing remarkable by which it may be distinguished from those already described. The hills in the inland country are of so easy ascent, that they rather seem an artificial than a natural production. The climate is generally mild, and agreeably suited to agricultural productions and a great variety of fruit-trees. In the interior hilly country, the inhabitants are healthy: but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marshes and stagnant waters, they are, as in the other southern states, subject to intermittents. The vast number of rivers diffuses fertility through the soil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco and wheat (which are the staple commodities of this country), hemp, Indian corn, grain, &c.

**Chief Towns.** Annapolis, the capital of Maryland, is a small but well situate town upon the river Patuxent. It is situate on a peninsula formed by the river, and two small creeks, and affords a beautiful prospect of Chesapeake bay, and the eastern shore beyond it. This city is of little note in the commercial world; but is the wealthiest town of its size in the United States. The houses, about 300 in number, are spacious and elegant, and indicate great wealth. The state-house is the noblest building of the kind in the Union. It stands in the centre of the city, from which point the streets diverge in easy direction like radii.

Baltimore is the largest town in the state of Maryland: in size it is the fourth, and in commerce the fifth in rank in the United States. It is situate on the north side of Patapsco river, at a small distance from its junction with the Chesapeake. The town is built around what is called the bason, reckoned one of the finest harbours in America. The number of the inhabitants of the town and precincts in 1791 was 13,503, including 1255 slaves, and they must have greatly increased since.

**Population.** The number of inhabitants has of late years greatly increased, amounting in 1790 to 319,728, of whom 103,036 were slaves; and in 1801 to 349,692, including 107,707 slaves.

**Colleges.** The seminaries of learning in this state are as follow: Washington Academy, in Somerset county, which was instituted by law in 1779. Washington College, instituted at Chester-town in Kent county in 1782. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this institution, of $250l. a-year currency. St John's College was instituted in 1784, to which a permanent fund is assigned of 175l. a-year. This college is at Annapolis. Very liberal subscriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on these seminaries. The two colleges constitute one university, by
the name of "The University of Maryland," whereof the governor of the state for the
time being is chancellor, and the principal of one of them vice-chancellor. The Ro-
man-catholics have also erected a college at George-town on Patowmac river for the
promotion of general literature. In 1785 the Methodists instituted a college at Abing-
ton in Hartford county, by the name of Cokesbury College.

**Trade.** The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the
other states, with the West Indies, and with some parts of Europe. To these places
they send annually about 30,000 hogsheads of tobacco, besides large quantities of wheat,
flour, pig-iron, lumber, and corn-beans, pork, and flax-seed in small quantities; and re-
cieve in return, clothing for themselves and negroes, and other dry goods; wines, sugars,
and other West India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour. The total
amount of exports from Baltimore in 1790 was 2,027,777 dollars, and in 1795, 5,811,379
dollars. In the year 1791 the quantity of wheat exported was 205,571 bushels.

**Religion.** The Roman Catholics, who were the first settlers in Maryland, are the
most numerous religious sect. Besides these there are Protestants, Episcopalians, Pres-
byterians, Calvinists, Lutherans, Friends, Baptists, Methodists; who all enjoy liberty of
conscience.

**Government.** The government of Maryland is vested in a governor, senate of
fifteen, and house of delegates; all which are chosen annually. The governor is elect-
ed by ballot, by the senate and house of delegates; and cannot continue in office longer
than three years successively. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a
freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of suff-
rage in the election of delegates, which is *viva voce*. And persons appointed to any office
of profit and trust, have to subscribe a declaration of their belief in the Christian religion.

**History.** Maryland, like the provinces we have formerly described, owes its set-
tlement to religious considerations. As they, however, were peopled by Protestants,
Maryland was originally planted by Roman-catholics. This sect, towards the close of
Charles the First's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the English na-
tion; and the laws in force against the Papists were executed with great severity. This
in part arose from an opinion, that the court was too favourably disposed towards this
form of religion. It is certain that many marks of favour were conferred on the Ro-
man-catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the most eminent, in great favour with the
court, and on that account most odious to the generality of the English. This noble-
man, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country which formerly was con-
sidered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Hen-
rietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. of France, and spouse to king Charles. The year
following, about 200 popish families, some of considerable distinction, embarked with
Lord Baltimore, to enter into possession of this new territory. These settlers, who had
that liberality and good breeding which distinguish gentlemen of every religion, bought
their lands at an easy price, from the native Indians; they even lived with them for
some time in the same city; and the same harmony continued to subsist between the
two nations, until the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some
planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this popish colony, and inflamed the
Indians against them, by ill-grounded reports, such as were sufficient to stir up the re-
sentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reason to be so. The
colony, however, was not wanting to its own safety on this occasion. Though they
continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and
to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities; the defeat of this
attempt gave a new spring to the activity of this plantation, which was likewise receiv-
ing frequent reinforcements from England, of those who found themselves in danger by
the approaching revolution. But, during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was
overturned in Maryland; Baltimore was deprived of his rights, and a new governor, ap-
pointed by the protector, substituted in his room. At the restoration, however, the
property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in
his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a per-
fet toleration in all religious matters; the colony increased and flourished, and dissent-
ers of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked into Maryland. But
the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expense.

At the Revolution, lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman-catholic. But, after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the interest. The government of this country exactly resembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown.

NORTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 450</td>
<td>between 76 and 83 west longitude.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 180</td>
<td>34 and 37 north latitude.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by South Carolina on the south; and the state of Tennessee on the west.

DIVISIONS.] North Carolina is divided into eight districts, in which are fifty-eight counties.

- Edenton, 9 counties.
  - Chowan
  - Currituck
  - Camden
  - Pasquotank
  - Perquimins
  - Gates
  - Hertford
  - Bertie
  - Tyrrel
  - New Hanover
    - Brunswick
    - Duplin
    - Bladen
    - Onslow
  - Craven
  - Beaufort
  - Carteret
  - Johnson
  - Pitt

- Wilmington, 5 counties.
  - Glasgow
  - Lenoir
  - Wayne
  - Hyde
  - Jones

- Newbern, 10 counties.
  - Salisbury, 9 counties.
    - Morgan, 5 counties.
      - Halifax
      - Northampton
      - Martin
      - Edgecomb
      - Warren
      - Franklin
      - Nash
      - Orange
      - Chatham
      - Granville
      - Person
      - Caswell
      - Wake
      - Randolph
      - Rowan
      - Cabarrus
      - Mecklenburg
      - Rockingham
      - Iredell
      - Surry
      - Montgomery
      - Stokes
      - Guildford
      - Burke
      - Rutherford
      - Lincoln
      - Wilkes
      - Buncombe

The above three districts are on the seacoast, extending from the Virginia line southward to South Carolina. They are called Eastern Districts.
NORTH CAROLINA.

Fayette, Hillsborough, and Halifax, are called Middle Districts, and Salisbury and Morgan, Western Districts. These five districts, beginning on the Virginia line cover the whole state west of the three, maritime districts before mentioned, and the greater part of them extend quite across the state from north to south.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The western hilly parts of North Carolina are as healthy as any part of America; but in the flat country near the sea-coast, the inhabitants, during the summer and autumn, are subject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous symptoms prevail. North Carolina, in its whole width, for sixty miles from the sea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in forests and is barren. On the banks of some of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile and good. The western hilly parts of the state are fertile, and full of springs and rivulets of pure water interspersed; through the other parts are glades of rich swamp, and ridges of oak-land, of a black fertile soil. Sixty or eighty miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains, as in South Carolina and Georgia. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly country; Indian corn, and pulse, in all parts. Cotton and hemp are also considerably cultivated, and might be raised in much greater plenty. The cotton is planted yearly; the stalk dies with the frost. The labour of one man will produce 1000 pounds in the seeds, or 250 fit for manufacturing. The large natural growth of the plains in the low country is almost universally pitch pine, which is a tall handsome tree, far superior to the pitch-pine of the northern states. The swamps abound with cypress and bay-trees.

RIVERS AND CAPES.] The principal rivers of North Carolina are the Chowan, and its branches, Roanoke, Tar, Neus, and Cape Fear, or Clarendon. Most of these and the smaller rivers, have bars at their mouths, and the coast furnishes no good harbours except Cape Fear. The principal capes are, Cape Fear, CapeLook-out, and Cape Hatteras.

POPULATION.] The number of inhabitants in North Carolina, in 1790, was 393,751 of whom 100,571 were slaves; in 1801, 478,103, including 133,296 slaves.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE INHABITANTS.] The people of Carolina live in the same easy, plentiful, and luxurious manner, with the Virginians already described. Poverty is here almost an entire stranger, and the planters are the most hospitable people that are to be met with, to all strangers, and especially to such as, by accidents or misfortunes, are rendered incapable of providing for themselves. The general topics of conversation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c.

Less attention and respect are paid to the women here than in those parts of the United States where the inhabitants have made a greater progress in the arts of civilized life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by observation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilization, in the same proportion will respect for women be increased; so that the progress of civilization in countries, in states, in towns, and in families, may be remarked by the degree of attention which is paid by husbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

The North Carolinians are accused of being rather too deficient in the virtues of temperance and industry; and it is said that a strange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower class of people, before the revolution, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, called gouging:* but we have lately been

* The delicate and entertaining diversion, with propriety called gouging, is thus described. When two boxers are wearied with fighting and bruising each other, they come, as it is called, to close quarters, and each endeavours to twist his forefingers in the ear-locks of his antagonist. When these are fast clinched, the thumbs are extended each way to the nose, and the eyes gently turned out of their sockets. The victor for his expertness receives shouts of applause from the sporting throng, while his poor eyeless antagonist is laughed at for his misfortune.

3 C 3
informed, that in a particular country, where, at the court, twenty years ago, a day seldom passed without ten or fifteen boxing matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight. If indeed the barbarous practice of gouging, which certainly is a disgrace to human nature, still subsists anywhere, it ought to be restrained by a positive law, inflicting on the victor, and on all who aid and abet the savage combatants, the severest punishment.

RELIGION.] The methodists and baptists are numerous and increasing in North Carolina; the Moravians have several flourishing settlements in the upper part of this state; and the quakers have a settlement in New-garden, in Guilford county, and several congregations at Perquimins and Pasquotank.

GOVERNMENT.] By the constitution of this state, which was ratified in December 1796, all legislative authority is vested in two distinct branches, both dependent on the people, viz. a senate and house of commons, which, when convened for business, are styled the general assembly. The senate is composed of representatives, one from each county, chosen annually by ballot. The house of commons consists of representatives chosen in the same way, two for each county, and one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Salisbury, Hillsborough, Halifax, and Fayetteville.

UNIVERSITIES, ACADEMIES.] The general assembly of North Carolina, in 1789, passed a law, incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each district, as trustees of the university of North Carolina. The general assembly, in December 1791, loaned 5000l. to the trustees, to enable them to proceed immediately with their buildings. There is a very good academy at Warenton, another at Williamsborough, in Granville, and three or four others in the state, of considerable note.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Newbern is the largest town in North Carolina, and was formerly the residence of the governor. Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillsborough, Salisbury, and Fayetteville, have each in their turns been the seat of the general assembly. Raleigh, situate near the centre of the state, has lately been established the metropolis.

TRADE.] A great proportion of the produce of the back country, consisting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South Carolina and Virginia. The southern interior counties carry their produce to Charlestown, and the northern to Petersburg in Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the state are, tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, Indian corn, boards, scantling, staves, shingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and some other articles, amounting, in the year ending September 30th 1791, to 324,548 dollars. Their trade is chiefly with the West Indies and the northern states.

HISTORY.] The history of North Carolina is less known than that of any other of the states. From the best accounts that history affords, the first permanent settlement in North Carolina was made about the year 1710, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumstances of great indigence by a calamitous war. The infant colony remained under the general government of South Carolina till about the year 1729, when seven of the proprietors, for a valuable consideration, vested their property and jurisdiction in the crown; and the colony was erected into a separate province, by the name of North Carolina, and its present limits established by an order of George II.

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KENTUCKY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 230</td>
<td>between 81 and 89 west longitude</td>
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<tr>
<td>Breadth 260</td>
<td>31 and 39 north longitude</td>
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</table>
KENTUCKY.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the north-west by the river Ohio; west, by Cumberland river; south, by North Carolina; east, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due south from its source, till it meets the northern boundary of North Carolina.

Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferson. It has since been subdivided into the following fourteen:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jefferson, at the falls of the Ohio</td>
<td>Louisville</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fayette</td>
<td>Lexington</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bourbon</td>
<td>Bourbon</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mercer</td>
<td>Hardsharborough</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nelson</td>
<td>Bardstown</td>
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<td>Madison</td>
<td>Milford</td>
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<td>Lincoln</td>
<td>Versailles</td>
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<td>Woodford</td>
<td>Washington</td>
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<td>Mason</td>
<td>Winchester</td>
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<td>Washington</td>
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<td>Clarke</td>
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<tr>
<td>Scott</td>
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<tr>
<td>Logan</td>
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<tr>
<td>Franklin</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

CLIMATE.] The climate is healthy and delightful, some few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds excepted. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold; none of the neighbouring states enjoying so constant a temperature. The winter, which begins about Christmas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two; and so mild that cattle can subsist without fodder.

SOIL, PRODUCE.] The soil is extremely fertile: the lands of the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50 and 60, and in some instances, 100 bushels of good corn an acre. In common, the land will produce 30 bushels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds common in this climate, yield abundantly. Cotton is with difficulty brought to perfection, but the soil appears to be peculiarly suitable to tobacco.

RIVERS.] The Ohio bounds Kentucky, on the north-western side, in its whole length; and the branches of this river water and fertilize the country in every part. The principal of these are the Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, and Cumberland rivers.

NATURAL CURiosITIES.] The banks or rather precipices of the rivers Kentucky and Dick, may be reckoned among the natural curiosities of this country. Here the astonished eye beholds 300 or 400 feet of solid perpendicular rock, in some parts of the slime-stone kind, and in others of fine white marble, curiously chequered with strata of astonishing regularity. Caves are found amazingly large, in some of which you may travel several miles under a fine lime-stone rock, supported by curious arches and pillars. In most of them run streams of water. Near Lexington are to be seen curious sepulchres full of human skeletons. There are three springs or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which discharge themselves into a common reservoir, and when used in lamps, answer all the purposes of the finest oil.* At a salt spring near the Ohio river very large bones have been found, far surpassing the size of any species of animals now in America: the head appears to have been considerably above three feet long. Dr. Hunter said it could not be the elephant, and that, from the form of the teeth, it must have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been sent to France and England. What animal this is, and by what means its remains are found in these regions (where none such now exist), are very difficult ques-

* Morse's American Geography, p. 407.
tions, and variously resolved. The variety of conjectures only serves to show the futility of all.

Metals, minerals. There are some iron mines in this state, but only one of them, according to the latest accounts, is worked. Iron ore, lime-stone, and numerous unexplored mines of coal, are the only mineral substances observed here.

Animals. Here are buffaloes, bears, deer, elk, and many other animals, common to the United States, and others entirely unknown to them. The rivers abound in the finest fish: salmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook-fish. The paroquet is common here; as is the ivory-bill woodcock, of a whitish colour, with a white plume: the bill is pure ivory. Here is an owl like ours, but different in vociferation. It makes a surprising noise, like a man in distress.

Population. The number of inhabitants in this country has increased, by emigration from the other states, with surprising rapidity. Before the year 1783, they did not exceed 3000. In 1790 they amounted to 73,677, of whom 12,430 were slaves. At the general census in 1800, they were found to be 220,960, including 40,343 slaves; and according to M. Michaux, a late French traveller in this part of America, they were estimated in August, 1802, when he was at Lexington, in this state, at 250,000, including negroes.

Colleges, learning. The legislature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that state, made provision for a college in it, and endowed it with very considerable funds. This college has not flourished, and another has been established, the funds for the support of which have been furnished by liberal contributions. Schools are established in the several towns, and in general regularly and properly maintained. There are two printing-offices at Lexington, and a newspaper is published by each of them, which appears twice a week.

Religion. The baptists are the most numerous religious sect in Kentucky. There are several large congregations of Presbyterians, and some few of other denominations.

Chief towns. Kentucky as yet contains no very large towns; the principal are Lexington, Louisville, Washington, and Frankfort. Lexington contains nearly 300 houses, and about 3000 inhabitants. Frankfort, which is now the seat of government, is less populous.

Trade. Almost all the commerce of Kentucky is carried on by the merchants of Lexington. Seven-tenths of the fabricated articles consumed in Kentucky, as well as in the rest of the United States, are imported from England. They consist principally of coarse and fine iron goods, cutlery, nails, and tin-ware; drapery, mercury, drugs, and fine pottery. Muslins, nankeen, tea, &c. are imported directly from India in American vessels; and they obtain coffee, and raw sugar of different qualities, from the West Indies. These are exchanged for the produce of the country, principally by barter, on account of the extreme scarcity of coin.

Government. By the constitution of this state, formed and adopted in 1792, the legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; the supreme executive in a governor; the judiciary in the supreme court of appeals, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The representatives are chosen annually by the people; the senators and governor are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpose; the judges are appointed, during good behaviour, by the governor, with the advice of the senate. The number of representatives cannot exceed one hundred, nor be less than forty; and the senate, at first consisting of eleven, is to increase with the house of representatives, in the ratio of one to four.

History. The history of this state is the same with that of Virginia, of which it made a part till the year 1782, when it was erected into an independent state. It was first discovered in 1770 by some Virginian hunters, and the favourable account they gave of it, induced others to go thither. However there was not any fixed establishment formed till 1780. At that time this extensive country was not occupied by any
Indian nation: they came there to hunt, but with one accord carried on a war of extirmination against all who attempted to settle there. This was the cause of giving the name of Kentucky to the country, which, in the language of the primitive Americans, signifies the land of blood. When the whites appeared there, the natives gave a still more obstinate opposition to their establishment: for a long time they spread devastation and slaughter through the country, and, according to their custom, put their prisoners to death with the most cruel torments. This state of things lasted until 1783, at which time the American population having become too great for them to be able to penetrate into the heart of the establishments, they were reduced to attacking the emigrants on their road. In 1782, roads for carriages were begun to be opened through the interior of the country. Before that time there were nothing but tracts, passable only by people on foot or on horseback. Until 1788 the road through Virginia was the only one followed by the emigrants who came from the eastern states, to Kentucky. They went first to the block-house, situate at Houlston, to the west of the mountains, and as the government of the United States did not furnish any escort, they waited at this place until their numbers were sufficient to pass safely through the wilderness, an uninhabited interval of a hundred and thirty miles, which they were obliged to cross before they arrived at Crab-orchard, the first post occupied by the whites.

"The enthusiasm for emigrating to Kentucky was at this time carried to such a height in the United States, that in some years as many as 20,000 emigrants went thither, and several of them even abandoned their property, if they were unable to dispose of it in a short time. The influx of new colonists soon raised the price of land in Kentucky, so that from two or three pence an acre, at which it had been sold, it rose rapidly to forty or fifty pence. Speculators took advantage of this infatuation. A multiplicity of illicit means were employed to make these lands sell to advantage. Even forged plans were fabricated, on which rivers were laid down, calculated for the establishment of mills and for other uses. In this manner many ideal lots, from 500 to 100,000 acres, were sold all over Europe, and in some of the large towns of the United States."*

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G E O R G I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 660</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 250</td>
<td>30 and 35 north latitude</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Boundary and divisions.

Bounded by South Carolina and Tennessee on the north and north-east; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by Florida, on the south; and by the river Mississippi on the west. Georgia was formerly divided into parishes, and after wards into three districts, but lately into two districts, viz. Upper and Lower, which are subdivided into 24 counties, as follows:

Districts: Counties: Chief Towns:

Upper District

Camden ............... St. Patrick
Glynn ............... Brunswick
Liberty ............. Sunbury
Chatham ............. \{ Savannah \}{ N. lat. 32\,3. \} \{ W. lon. 81\,15. \}

Lower District

Burke ............... \{ Louisville \}
Effingham .......... \{ Waynesborough \}
McIntosh .......... \{ Ebenezer \}
Scriven ............. \{ New Counties \}
Bryan .............. \* \{ Michaux. \}
**AMERICA.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Districts</th>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>Chief Towns</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Richmond</td>
<td>AUGUSTA</td>
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<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>Colphinton</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wilkes</td>
<td>Washington</td>
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<td>O reefs</td>
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<td>Hancock</td>
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<td>Oglethorp</td>
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<td>Bullock</td>
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<tr>
<td>Columbia</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Climate, soil, and produce.** The climate of Georgia is extremely temperate: the winters there are very mild and pleasant. Snow is seldom or never seen; nor is vegetation often prevented by severe frosts. The soil and its fertility are various, according to situation and different improvements. The eastern part of the state, between the mountains and the ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St Mary's, a tract of country more than 120 miles from north to south, and from 50 to 80 east and west, is level, without a hill or stone. At the distance of about 40 or 50 miles from the seaboard or salt marsh, the lands begin to be more or less uneven, until they gradually rise to mountains. The vast chain of the Alleghany, or Appalachian mountains, which commence with Kaats Kill, near Hudson River, in the state of New York, terminate in Georgia, sixty miles south of its northern boundary. From the foot of this mountain spreads a wide extended plain of the richest soil, and in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of most of the productions of the south of Europe, and of the East Indies. Rice is at present the staple commodity of the state; tobacco, wheat, and indigo, are the other great articles of produce. Besides these, the country yields cotton, silk, Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, olives, and pomegranates. Most of the tropical fruits would flourish in this state with proper attention. The south-western parts of Georgia, and the parts of East and West Florida which lie adjoining, will probably, says Dr Morse, become the vineyard of America. The forests consist of oak, hickory, mulberry, pine, and cedar.

**Population.** The number of inhabitants in Georgia, according to the census of 1790, amounted to 82,548, of whom 29,264 were slaves. The increase by emigration has been very considerable since; as in 1801, according to the census then taken, they amounted to 162,684, including 59,404 slaves.

**Trade.** The chief articles of export from Georgia are rice, tobacco, indigo, sago, timber, naval stores, leather, deer-skins, snake-root, myrtle, and bees' wax, corn, and live-stock. The planters and farmers raise large stocks of cattle, from 1000 to 1500 head, and some more. The value in sterling money of the exports of Georgia, in 1755, was 15,744l.—in 1772, 121,677l.—in 1791 value in dollars 491,472; and in 1796, 950,158 dollars. In 1790, the tonnage employed in this state was 28,546, and the number of American seamen 11,225. In return for her exports, Georgia receives West India goods, teas, wines, clothing, and dry goods of all kinds: from the northern states, cheese, fish, potatoes, cyder, and shoes. The imports and exports are principally to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is the place where the principal commercial business of the state is transacted.

**Chief towns.** The principal towns in Georgia, are Savannah, Augusta, Lousville, Savannah, formerly the capital of the state, is commodiously situate both for inland and foreign trade, seventeen miles from the sea, on a noble river of the same name, which
is navigable for boats upwards of 200 miles. Ships of 300 tons burthen can lie within six yards of the town, and close to a steep bank, extending near a mile along the riverside. The town is regularly built, in the form of a parallelogram, and contained, in 1787, 2300 inhabitants. In the autumn of 1796 more than two-thirds of this town was consumed by fire.

Augusta, till lately the seat of government, is situate in a fertile plain on the south-west bank of the Savannah river, at a bend of the river, where it is nearly 500 yards broad. In 1787, it contained about 200 houses.

Louisville, now the metropolis of the state, is situate on the river Ogeechee, seventy miles from its mouth. The convention for the revival of the constitution sat in this town in May 1795, and appointed the records to be removed, and the legislature to meet here in future.

ISLANDS AND RIVERS.] The whole coast of Georgia is bordered with islands, the principal of which are Skidaway, Wassaw, Ossahaw, St. Catherine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyll, and Cumberland. The chief rivers of Georgia are, the Savannah, which separates it from South Carolina, the Ogeechee, Alatamaha, Turtle River, Little Sitilla, Great Sitilla, St. Mary's, and Apalichicola.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES.] The literature of this state, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan, which, if properly carried into effect, must be attended with great advantages. A college with ample and liberal endowments has been instituted at Louisville. There is also provision made for the institution of an academy in each county of the state, to be supported from the same funds, and considered as parts and members of the same institution, under the general superintendence and direction of a president and board of trustees, selected for their literary accomplishments from the different parts of the state, and invested with the customary powers of corporations. This institution is denominated The University of Georgia. The funds for the support of literary institutions are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to 50,000 acres, a great part of which is of the best quality, and at present very valuable; together with nearly 6,000l. sterling, in bonds, houses, and town lots in Augusta. Other public property, to the amount of 1000l. in each country, has been set apart for the purposes of building and furnishing their respective academies.

The rev. Mr George Whitfield founded an orphan-house at Savannah, which, after his death, was converted into a college for the education of young men designed chiefly for the ministry. The funds for its support are chiefly in rice-plantations and negroes. On the death of the countess of Huntingdon, to whom Mr Whitfield bequeathed this property as trustee, the legislature, in the year 1792, passed a law vesting it in 13 commissioners, with powers to carry the original intention of Mr Whitfield into execution; and, in memory of the countess, the seminary is styled Huntingdon college.

RELIGION.] The different religious sects in Georgia are Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Baptists, and Methodists. They have but few regular ministers among them.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Georgia is vested in a governor, executive council of twelve, and house of assembly of seventy-two representatives.

HISTORY.] The settlement of Georgia was projected in 1732; when several public-spirited noblemen, and others, from compassion to the poor of these kingdoms, subscribed a considerable sum, which, with 10,000l. from the government, was given to provide necessities for such poor persons as were willing to transport themselves into this province, and to submit to the regulations imposed on them. In process of time, new sums were raised, and new inhabitants sent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 persons were settled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected, that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed, as they were, at a great distance from their benefactors, and from the check and control of those who had a natural influence over them, would submit to the magistrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themselves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increased in number and opulence, they thought it hard they should be deprived of. From these corrupt sources
arose all the bad humours which tore to pieces this constitution of government. Dissensions of all kinds sprung up, and the colony was on the brink of destruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the same footing with the Carolinas.

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**TENNESSEE.**

**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 360</td>
<td>between 81 and 91 west longitude.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 105</td>
<td>35 and 36-30 north latitude.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.** BOUNDED, north, by Kentucky, and part of Virginia; cast, by the Stone, Yellow, Iron, and Bald Mountains, which divide it from North Carolina; south, by South Carolina and Georgia; west, by the Mississippi.

This extensive territory is divided into three districts; Washington, Hamilton, and Mero; and fourteen counties, as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Districts.</th>
<th>Counties.</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Districts.</th>
<th>Counties.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mero district</td>
<td>Davidson, Sumner, Robertson, Montgomery</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCE.** The climate of Tennessee is temperate and healthful; the summers are very cool and pleasant in that part which is contiguous to the mountains that divide this state from North Carolina; but on the western side of the Cumberland mountains the heat is more intense, which renders that part better calculated for the production of tobacco, cotton, and indigo. The soil is in general luxuriant, and will afford every production which is the growth of any of the United States. The usual crop of cotton is 800 lbs. to the acre, of a long and fine staple; and of corn from 60 to 80 bushels.

**MOUNTAINS.** The Cumberland mountain, in its whole extent from the great Kanawhaway to the Tennessee, consists of the most stupendous piles of craggy rocks of any mountain in the western country. In several parts of it, for miles, it is inaccessible, even to the Indians on foot. In one place, particularly, near the summit of the mountain, there is a most remarkable ledge of rocks, of about thirty miles in length, and 200 feet thick, showing a perpendicular face to the south east, more noble and grand than any artificial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this stupendous pile, according to a modern hypothesis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee to force their way.

**METALS, MINERALS.** Iron ore abounds in the districts of Washington and Mero. Several lead mines have been discovered. The Indians say that there are rich silver

* About seven and a half millions of acres of this tract only have been yet purchased from the Indians.

† Morse.
mines in Cumberland mountain, but cannot be tempted to discover any of them to the white people. Ores and springs strongly impregnated with sulphur are found in various parts.

Rivers.] The Tennessee, called also the Cherokee river, is the largest branch of the Ohio. It rises in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37, and pursues a course of 1000 miles south and south-west, nearly to latitude 34°, receiving from both sides a number of large tributary streams. It then wheels about to the north, in a circuitous course, and mingle with the Ohio, nearly sixty miles from its mouth. The other rivers are the Cumberland, the Holston, and the Clinch.

Government.] In 1785, in conformity to the resolves of congress, of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this district essayed to form themselves into a body-politic, by the name of the State of Franklin; but, differing among themselves, as to the form of government, and other matters, in the issue of which some blood was shed, and being opposed by some leading persons in the eastern parts, the scheme was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable until 1796, when a convention was held at Knoxville, and on the 6th of February the constitution of the state of Tennessee was signed by every member of it. Its principles promise to ensure the happiness and prosperity of the people.

Religion.] The presbyterians are the prevailing denominations of Christians in this district. The Abingdon presbytery, established by act of synod, in 1788, consisted of twenty-three large congregations.

Chief towns.] Knoxville is the seat of government in Tennessee. It is regularly laid out, in a flourishing situation, and enjoys a communication with every part of the United States by post. It contains about 200 houses. The other principal towns are Nashville and Jonesburgh.

Trade.] This country furnishes many valuable articles of export, such as fine wagon and saddle horses, beef, cattle, ginseng, deer-skins, and furs, cotton, hemp, and flax, which may be transported by land; also iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which might be exported in great quantities, if the navigation of the Mississippi were opened; but there are few of the inhabitants who understand trade, or are possessed of proper capitals; of course, it is badly managed.

Colleges.] Besides private schools there are three colleges established by law: Greenville college in Green's county; Blount college at Knoxville, and Washington college in the county of that name.

Animals.] A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of wild animals, improperly called buffaloes; but the improvident or ill-disposed among the first settlers destroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonness. They are still to be found on some of the southern branches of Cumberland river. Elk or moose are seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively scarce, so that no person makes a business of hunting them for their skins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

Population.] The population of this state, in November 1795, was estimated at 77,262. By the census taken in 1800, it was found to have increased to 105,602, including 13,584 slaves.

History.] The eastern parts of this district were explored by colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, captain Charles Campbell, and Dr T. Walker (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government), as early as between the years 1740 and 1750. In 1755, at the commencement of the French war, not more than fifty families had settled here, who were either destroyed or driven off by the Indians before the close of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the settlement of it recommenced; and, in 1773, the country as far west as the long island of Holstein, an extent of more than 120 miles in length from east to west, had become tolerably well peopled. In 1780, a party of about 40 families, under the guidance and direction of James Robertson (since brigadier-general Robertson of Mero district) passed through a wilderness of at least 300 miles, and founded Nashville. Their nearest neighbours were the settlers of the infant state of Kentucky, between whom and
them was a wilderness of 200 miles. This territory then appertained to North Carolina, which in 1789 ceded it to the United States on certain conditions, and Congress provided for its government.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.  Degrees.  Sq. Miles.
Length 200  between {32 and 35 north lat. 20,000
Breadth 125  78 and 81 west long.

BOUNDARIES, DIVISIONS.] BOUNDED by North Carolina on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; and on the south and south-west by the Savannah river, and a branch of its head-waters, called Tugulo river, which divides this state from Georgia. South Carolina is divided into nine districts, in which are 38 counties, as follow:


Washington District. Chief town Pendleton, Greenville.

Climate and Air. The climate of South Carolina agrees in general with that of North Carolina and Virginia. The weather, as in all this part of America, is subject to sudden transitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat, but not to such violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are seldom severe enough to freeze any considerable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the frosts have never sufficient strength to resist the noon-day sun, so that many tender plants, which do not stand the winter in Virginia, flourish in South Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty.
near Charleston, and excellent in their kinds, both sweet and sour. The salubrity
of the air is different in different parts of the state. Along the sea-coast, bilious diseases,
and fevers of various kinds, are prevalent between July and October; one cause of
which is the low marshy country, which is overflowed for the sake of cultivating rice.
The upper country, situated in the median between extreme heat and cold, is as health-
ful as any part of the United States.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS.] Except the high hills ofantee, the Ridge, and
some few other hills, this country is, like what is called the upper country, one extensive
plain, till you reach the Tryon and Hog-back mountains, 220 miles north-west of
Charleston. The elevation of these mountains above their base is 3840 feet, and
above the sea-coast 4640. Their summit affords an extensive view of this state, North
Carolina, and Georgia. The sea-coast is bordered with a chain of fine islands, the soil
of which is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo and cotton than the main
land, and less suited to rice. The whole state, to the distance of eighty or a hundred
miles from the sea, is low and level, almost without a pebble, and is little better than an
unhealthy salt marsh; but the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and
at 100 miles distance from Charleston, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of a
prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life; nor can any thing be ima-
gined more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposition of this back country.
Here the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heat much more temperate than on
the flat sandy coast.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The soil of South Carolina may be divided into four kinds:
first, the pine barren, which is valuable only for its timber. Interspersed among the
pine barren are tracts of land free of timber, and every kind of growth but that of grass.
These tracts are called savannas, constituting a second kind of soil, proper for grazing.
The third kind is that of the swamps and low grounds on the rivers, which is a mixture
of black loam and fat clay, producing, naturally, canes in great plenty, cypress bays,
loblolly pines, &c. In these swamps rice is cultivated, which constitutes the staple
commodity of the state. The high lands, commonly known by the name of oak and
hickory lands, constitute the fourth kind of soil. The natural growth is oak, hickory,
walnut, pine, and locust. On these lands, in the low country, Indian corn is principally
cultivated; and in the back country, likewise, they raise tobacco in large quantities,
wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, and cotton. From experiments which have been
made, it is well ascertained that olives, silk, and madder, may be as abundantly pro-
duced in South Carolina, and we may add in Georgia also, as in the south of France.
There is little fruit in this state, especially in the lower parts of it. They have oranges,
chiefly sour, and figs in plenty; a few limes and lemons, pomegranates, pears, and
peaches; apples are scarce, and are imported from the northern states; melons, espe-
cially water-melons, are raised here in great perfection.

In South Carolina vegetation is incredibly quick. The climate and the soil have
something in them so kindly, that the latter, when left to itself, naturally throws out an
immense quantity of flowers and flowering shrubs. All the European plants arrive at a
perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper
culture and encouragement, silk, wine, and oil, might be produced in these colonies; of
the first we have seen samples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat in the
back parts yields a prodigious increase.

From what we have observed, it appears that the vegetable productions of this state
are wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, in-
digo, olives, oranges, citron, cypress, sassafras, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine-trees; white
mulberry trees for feeding silk-worms; sarsaparilla, and pines, which yield turpentine,
rosin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary
virtue in curing wounds; and another which yields a balm thought to be little inferior to
that of Mecca. There are other trees besides these, that yield gums.

The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent
spirits, and mead as good as Malaga sack. Of all these the three great staple commodi-
ties at present are the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing surprises an
European more at first sight than the size of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and
other American countries. Their trunks are often from fifty to seventy feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above thirty-six feet in circumference. Of these trunks, when hollowed, the people of Charlestown, as well as the Indians, make canoes, which serve to transport provisions from place to place; and some of them are so large, that they will carry thirty or forty barrels of pitch, though formed of one piece of timber. Of these are likewise made curious pleasure-boats. There are also a variety of medicinal roots; among others, the rattle-snake root, so famous among the Indians for the cure of poison; and the venereal root, which, under a vegetable regimen, will cure a confirmed lues.

Metals, Minerals.] South Carolina abounds with precious ores, such as gold, silver, lead, black-lead, copper, and iron; but it is the misfortune of those who direct their pursuits in search of them, that they are deficient in the knowledge of chemistry, and too frequently make use of improper menstruums in extracting the respective metals. There are likewise rock-chrystal, pyrites, marble beautifully variegated, abundance of chalk, crude alum, nitre, and vitriol.

Rivers and Canals.] South Carolina is watered by many navigable rivers, the principal of which are the Savannah, Edisto, Santee, Pedee, and their branches. The Santee is the largest river in the state. Those of a secondary size are the Wakkamaw, Black, Cooper, Ashepoo, and Combahee rivers. A canal of twenty-one miles in length, connecting Cooper and Santee rivers, is nearly completed, which is estimated will cost 400,000 dollars; and another canal is soon to be begun, to unite the Edisto with the Ashley.

Population.] The number of inhabitants in South Carolina, in 1790, was 249,073, including 107,094 slaves. In 1801, according to the census then taken, they amounted to 345,591, including 146,151 slaves.

Animals.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from those of Virginia; but in both the Carolinas they have a still greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty: black cattle are multiplied prodigiously; to have 200 or 300 cows is very common, but some have 1000 or upwards. These ramble all day at pleasure in the forest; but their calves being separated and kept in fenced pastures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the same manner, and return like the cows; these are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horses, in the woods.

Government.] The government of South Carolina is vested in a governor, senate of thirty-seven, and a house of representatives of one hundred and twenty-four members.

Trade.] The little attention that has been paid to manufactures occasions a vast consumption of foreign imported articles; but the quantity and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the state, except when there have been large importations of negroes. The principal articles exported from this state are rice, indigo, tobacco, skins of various kinds, beef, pork, cotton, pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, myrtle-wax, lumber, naval stores, cork, leather, snake-root, and ginseng. In the most successful seasons, there have been as many as 140,000 barrels of rice, and 1,500,000 pounds of indigo, exported in a year. In 1791, the exports from this state amounted to 1,693,267 dollars, and in 1795 to 5,998,492 dollars.

Chief Towns.] The principal towns of South Carolina are, Charles-town, Georgetown, Columbia, and Camden. Charles-town is by far the most considerable town on the sea-coast for an extent of 600 miles. It is the metropolis of South Carolina, and is admirably situate at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships twenty miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near forty. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than 200 tons burthen, loaded, from entering. The fortifications, which were strong, are now demolished; the streets are well cut: the houses are large and well built; some of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handsome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from one river to the other. In 1787, it was computed that there were 1600 houses in this city, and 15,000 inhabitants, including 5400 slaves. In 1791, there were 16,359 inhabitants, of whom 7684
were slaves. This city has often suffered much by fire: the last and most destructive happened in June 1796. The neighbourhood of Charles-town is beautiful beyond description.

Columbia is a small town in Kershaw county, on the east side of the Congaree, just below the confluence of the Saluda and Broad rivers. It is now the seat of government; but the public offices have, in some measure, been divided, for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each retained in Charles-town.

Colleges, academies.] The literature of this state is but at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flourish. There are several respectable academies in Charles-town, one at Beaufort, on Port Royal island, and several others in different parts of the state. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law; one at Charles-town, one at Winnsborough, in the district of Camden, and the other at Cambridge in the district of Ninety-six. The legislature, in their session in January 1795, appointed a committee to inquire into the practicability of, and to report a plan for, the establishment of schools in the different parts of the state.

Religion.] Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no disputes between different religious sects. They all agree to differ*. The upper parts of this state are settled chiefly by presbyterians, baptists, and methodists. These are some episcopalian, but the presbyterians and independents are most numerous.

History and government.] The first English expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. None of them had success till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time several English noblemen, and others of great distinction, obtained a charter from the crown, investing them with the property and jurisdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to such as were willing to go over into the new settlement, and to submit to a system of laws which they employed the famous Locke to compose for them.

They began their first settlement at a point of land towards the southward of their district, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city called Charles-town, which was designed to be, what it is now, the capital of the province. In time, however, the disputes between the church-of-England-men and dissenters caused a total confusion in the colony. This was rendered still more intolerable by the incursions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their insolence and injustice. In order to prevent the fatal consequences of these intestine divisions and foreign wars, an act of Parliament was passed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords-proprietors accepted a recompence of about £4,000l. for both the property and jurisdiction; and the constitution of this colony, in those respects in which it differed from the royal colonies, was altered. Earl Grenville, however, thought fit to retain his seventh share, which continued in the possession of his family. For the more convenient administration of affairs, Carolina was divided into two districts, and two governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being restored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, these provinces began to breathe, and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity.

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**TERRITORY NORTH WEST OF THE OHIO.**

**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Sq. Miles.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 600</td>
<td>between 37° and 50° north latitude</td>
<td>411,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 700</td>
<td>81° and 98° west longitude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Dr. Morse.
THESE extensive tracts of country is bounded, north, by part of the northern boundary line of the United States; east, by the lakes, and Pennsylvania; south, by the Ohio river; west, by the Mississippi. Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the United States, estimates that this tract contains 263,040,000 acres, of which 43,040,000 are water.

That part of this territory in which the Indian title is extinguished by being purchased from them, and which is settling under the government of the United States, is divided into the following five counties:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>When erected</th>
<th>Counties</th>
<th>When erected</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Washington,</td>
<td>July 26, 1788</td>
<td>Knox,</td>
<td>June 20, 1790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hamilton,</td>
<td>Jan. 2, 1790</td>
<td>Wayne,</td>
<td>1796</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Clair,</td>
<td>April 27, 1790</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

This territory has lately been admitted into the Union, under the denomination of the State of the Ohio.

Population. According to the census taken by order of congress in the year 1800, the population of the north-western territory amounted to 45,365; that of what is called the Mississippi territory to 8850, and that of the Indian territory to 5641.

Face of the country, soil, productions, &c.] The lands on the various streams which fall into the Ohio are interspersed with all the variety of soil that conduces to pleasantness of situation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people.

The sugar-maple is a most valuable tree. Any number of inhabitants may be constantly supplied with a sufficiency of sugar by preserving a few of these trees for the use of each family. One tree will yield about ten pounds of sugar a year, and the labour is very trifling.

Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory; and small and large streams, suitable for mills and other purposes, are interspersed, as if to prevent any deficiency of the conveniences of life.

No country is better stocked with wild game of every kind. Innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle are sheltered in the groves, and fed in the extensive bottoms that every where abound; an unquestionable proof of the great fertility of the soil. Turkeys, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants partridge, &c. are, from observation, believed to be in greater plenty here than the tame poultry in any part of the old settlements in America.

The rivers are well stored with fish of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different sizes: the cat-fish, which is the largest, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from six to eighty pounds.

Rivers.] The Muskingum is a gentle river, confined by banks so high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large batteaux and barges to the Three Legs, and by small ones to the lake at its head. The Hockhocking resembles the Muskingum, though somewhat inferior in size. The Scioto is a larger river than either of the preceding, and opens a more extensive navigation. One hundred and seventy-six miles above the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the Missouri, the Illinois empties itself into the Mississippi, from the north-east, by a mouth about 400 yards wide.

Chief towns.] The chief towns in this territory are Marietta, Chillicothe, and Gallipoli. According to M. Michaux, Marietta is the largest, containing upwards of 200 houses; Chillicothe is the seat of government of the new state of the Ohio, and contains about 150 houses. The inhabitants of Gallipoli are almost entirely French; it contains about 100 houses.

Government.] By an ordinance of congress, passed the 13th of July 1787, this country, for the purposes of temporary government, was erected into one district, subject, however, to a division, when circumstances shall make it expedient.

* Michaux.
In the same ordinance it is provided, that congress shall appoint a governor, whose commission shall continue in force three years, unless sooner revoked. The governor must reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein of 1000 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office.

Congress, from time to time, are to appoint a secretary, to continue in office four years, unless sooner removed, who must reside in the district, and have an estate of 500 acres of land while in office.

The same ordinance of congress provides, that there shall be formed in this territory not less than three, nor more than five states: and when any of the said states shall have 60,000 free inhabitants therein, such state shall be admitted by its delegates into the congress of the United States, on an equal footing with the original states, and shall be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and state-government, provided the constitution and government so to be formed shall be republican, and, so far as it can be consistent with the general interest of the confederacy, such admission shall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a less number of inhabitants in the state than 60,000.

The number of old forts found in this western country are the admiration of the curious. They are mostly of an oblong form, situated on strong well-chosen ground, and contiguous to water. When, by whom, and for what purpose, these were thrown up, is uncertain. They are undoubtedly very ancient, as there is not the least visible difference in the age or size of the timber growing on or within these forts and that which grows without; and the natives have lost all tradition respecting them.

The settlement of this country was checked for several years by the unhappy Indian war. Of this, however, an amicable termination took place on the third of August 1795, when a treaty was concluded; since which a trade has been opened, by a law of congress, with the Indians, on such a liberal footing as promises to give permanency to the treaty, and security to the frontier inhabitants.

**LOUISIANA.**

**Boundaries.**] THIS extensive country, which has been lately ceded by Spain to the French government, and sold by the latter to the United States, is bounded on the east by the river Mississippi, by the gulf of Mexico on the south, and by New Mexico on the east: to the north its boundaries are as yet undefined. Its dimensions consequently cannot be very exactly ascertained; but it has been estimated to extend 1200 miles in length, 649 in breadth, and to contain 460,000 square miles.

**Climate.**] Louisiana is agreeably situate between the extremes of heat and cold. Its climate varies as it extends towards the north. The southern parts, lying within the reach of the refreshing breezes from the sea, are not scorched like those in the same latitudes in Africa; and its northern regions are colder than those of Europe under the same parallels, with a wholesome serene air.

**Rivers.**] Besides the Mississippi, which forms the eastern boundary of this country, Louisiana is watered by a number of fine rivers, among which are the Missoury, the St. Francis, the Natchitoches, the Adayes or Mexicano, the Rouge or Red river, and the Noir or Black river.

**Soil and Produce.**] The soil is particularly adapted to hemp, flax, and tobacco, and indigo is a staple commodity. The timber is as fine as any in the world; and the quantities of live-oak, ash, mulberry, walnut, cherry, cypress, and cedar, are astonishing. The neighbourhood of the Mississippi furnishes the richest fruits in great variety; and the soil, with little cultivation, would produce grain of every kind in the greatest abundance.
METALS, MINERALS.] Iron and lead mines are found here in sufficient quantity to afford an abundant supply of those necessary articles; and it has been said that on the river Rouge there are mines of silver as rich as any in Mexico.

CHIEF TOWNS.] New Orleans is the capital of this country. It was built by the French in 1720, under the regency of the duke of Orleans. In 1758 there were 1100 houses in this town; but in the month of March of that year they were reduced by a dreadful fire to 200. The town has since been rebuilt. In stands on the east bank of the Mississippi, 105 miles from its mouth: in lat. 30° 2' N. long. 89° 50' W.

TRADE.] The chief articles of exportation are indigo, cotton, rice, beans, wax, and lumber.

HISTORY.] The Mississippi, on which this country is situate, was first discovered by Ferdinand de Soto, a Spaniard, in 1541; but no settlement was attempted till the latter end of the next century. In the year 1682, M. de Ia Salle, a Frenchman, travelled through it, and, on his return to France, gave such a flattering account of the country, and the advantages that might be expected to accrue from settling a colony in it, that Louis XIV. was induced to establish a company for that purpose. The attempt, however, had very little success, and in 1763 Louisiana was ceded to Spain. By late treaties it has been again restored to the French, by whom it has been sold to the United States, to whose territory it now appertains.

GREENLAND.

THIS extensive country, though it has been said to belong properly neither to America nor Europe, must certainly be referred to the former continent, whether it be an island, or united to the main land to the north of Davis's Straits, by which is is bounded on the west. To the south it terminates in a point called Cape Farewell, in north lat. 59° 36', west long. 42° 59'; on the south-east it is washed by the Atlantic; and on the east it is bounded by the icy sea, and the strait which separates it from Iceland, from which it is distant about 200 miles; to the north its limits are unascertained.

Greenland was first discovered in the ninth century, by some Icelanders who were by accident driven on the coast. So favourable was the account they gave of the country, that several families went and settled there, and established a colony, which was converted to Christianity by a missionary sent thither in the reign of Olaf, the first Christian monarch of Norway. Under the protection of this prince, the Greenland colony continued to increase and thrive; several towns, churches, and convents, were built, and bishops appointed, under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of Dronthem. The colony appears then to have extended over above 200 miles in the south-eastern extremity of the country, and to have carried on a considerable commerce with Norway; but the intercourse ceased in 1406, when the last bishop was sent, and from that time till the beginning of the last century, all knowledge of Greenland seems in a great degree to have been lost. In 1720, however, Hans Edge, minister of Vingen in Norway, conceived the idea of going in search of the remains of the ancient colony, if any existed; and having, with some difficulty, procured an approbation of his plan from the court of Copenhagen, went to Greenland, where he continued till 1735, preaching the gospel to the natives, and making many converts. His example was followed by several missionaries; and about thirty years afterwards the Moravians began their settlements in the south-west part of the country. Denmark now claims this part of Greenland, and a company is established at Copenhagen, which sends thither three or four ships every year.

By the latest accounts from the missionaries employed for the conversion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 constant inhabitants. Mr
Crantz, however, thinks the roving southlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. They are low of stature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not so tall. The hair of their heads is long, straight, and of a black colour; but they have seldom any beards, because it is their constant practice to root them out. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can also use their hands with much skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers; but they are good-humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their food is principally fish, seals, and sea-fowl. The men hunt and fish; but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it; nay, it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fish upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and also the curriers to dress the pelts, and make clothes, shoes, and boots, out of them; so that they are likewise both shoemakers and tailors. The women also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenter’s work. They live in huts during the winter, which is incredibly severe; but, according to Crantz, the Moravian missionary, in the longest summer days it is so hot, from the long continuance of the sun’s rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments. They are very dexterous in hunting and fishing, particularly in catching and killing seals.

The climate of this country is extremely severe, the greater part of it being almost continually covered with ice and snow. Among the vegetables of this cold country are sorrel, angelica, wild tansey, and scurvy-grass. Europeans have sown barley and oats, which have grown as high as in warmer climates, but have seldom advanced so far as to ear, and never, even in the warmest places, come to maturity. The trees are, some small junipers, willows, and birch. The animals are white hares, foxes, rein-deer, and white bears, which are fierce and mischievous. The only tame animals are a species of dogs resembling wolves. The shores are frequented by the walrus, and several kinds of seals; and the seas contain various species of whales, some of which are white, and others black: the black sort, the grand bay whale, is in most esteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of blubber he affords. He is usually between sixty and eighty feet in length; his tongue is about eighteen feet long, inclosed in long pieces of what is called whale-bone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horse-hair: and on each side of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whale-bone: the bones of his body are as hard as those of an ox, and of no use. A number of ships are employed annually in the whale-fishery in the seas of Greenland. When a whale appears, they man their boats, of which each ship has four or five, carrying six or eight men; and when they come near the fish, the harpooner, who stands at the head of the boat, strikes him with his barbed dart. The creature, finding himself wounded, dives swiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him, if they did not give him line fast enough. Such is the velocity of his motion, that to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope against the side of it, one of the men is constantly employed in wetting it. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms, he is forced to come up again for air, when he spouts out the water with such a terrible noise, that some have compared it to the firing of cannon. As soon as he appears on the surface, the harpooner fixes another harpoon in him, when he plunges again into the deep as before; and, when he again comes up, they pierce him with spears in the vital parts, till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is covered with foam. The boats continue to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength, and when he is dying he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship, if the land be at a great distance: there they cut him in pieces, and, by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. the barrel. The Greenland whale fishery is principally carried on by the English and (when at peace with England) the Dutch nations: in 1785 the former employed 153 ships in this fishery, and the latter 65.
The vast fields and mountains of ice in these seas, many of which are above a mile in length, and 100 feet in thickness, are stupendous, and, when illuminated by the sun's rays, dazzling and beautiful. Their splendour is discernable at the distance of many leagues. In one place, it is said, at the mouth of an inlet, the ice has formed magnificent arches, extending the length of about 25 miles. But when the pieces floating in the sea are put in motion by a storm, and dash one against the other, the scene they exhibit is most terrible. The Dutch had thirteen ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

East Greenland, or Spitzbergen, was for a long time considered as united to, and a part of, West or Old Greenland, but is now known to be a cluster of islands, lying between 76 and 80 degrees of north latitude, and 9 and 24 of east longitude, and is generally referred to Europe. It was discovered, according to some, by Sir Hugh Willsoughby, in 1553; or, as others suppose, by the Dutch navigator Barentz, in 1596. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen (or craggy mountain) from the height and ruggedness of its rocks. The mainland, or principal of these islands, is about 300 miles in length from north to south. The few vegetables and animals are nearly the same with those of West Greenland. The mountains and islands of ice present the same appearance; and the whale fishery is carried on along the coasts. The Russians claim this dreary country, and maintain a kind of colony here from Archangel. The inland parts are uninhabited.

BRITISH AMERICA.

UNDER the general name of British America, is comprehended the vast extent of country bounded on the south by the United States of America and the Atlantic Ocean; on the east by the same ocean and Davis Straits, which divide it from Greenland; extending, on the north, to the northern limits of the Hudson's Bay charter, and westward indefinitely: lying between 42 and 70 degrees of north latitude, and between 50 and 96 of west longitude.

British America is now divided into four provinces, viz. 1. Upper Canada; 2. Lower Canada, to which is annexed New Britain, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay; 3. New Brunswick, originally included in Nova Scotia; 4. Nova Scotia. To these are to be added the islands of Cape Breton and Newfoundland.

The British colonies in North America are under the superintendence of an officer styled the governor-general of the four British provinces in North America, who, besides other powers, is commander in chief of all the British troops in the four provinces, and the governments attached to them, and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces has a lieutenant governor, who in the absence of the governor-general has all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate.

The number of inhabitants in the whole of these northern British colonies has been estimated at about 183,000.

NEW BRITAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 850</td>
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<td>Breadth 750</td>
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**Boundaries.** NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, and New North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands and frozen seas, about the pole, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean on the east; by the bay and river of St Laurence and Canada on the south; and by unknown lands on the west.

**Mountains.** In the northern parts of this country are tremendous high mountains, covered with eternal snow; and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in the winter over all this country which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

**Metals, Minerals.** The mountains of Labrador appear to abound in iron ore. White spar is very common; and that beautiful kind, called, from the country, Labrador spar, is collected on the shores of the sea and lakes by the Esquimaux, or natives, for the rocks have not been discovered. Several small springs have been found which have a weak chalybeate taste.

**Bays, Straits, and Capes.** These are numerous, and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders by whom they were first discovered. The principal bay is that of Hudson, and the principal straits are those of Hudson, Davis, and Belleisle.

**Climate, Soil, Produce.** The climate of these regions is intensely cold, and the country, in consequence, extremely barren. To the northward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth has been supposed incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed committed to the earth in this inhospitable climate has hitherto perished; but perhaps the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway would be more suitable to the soil. All this severity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty two; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

**Rivers, Lakes.** The principal rivers are the Wager, Monk, Seal, Pockerekesko, Churchill, Nelson, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, and Moose; all of which fall into Hudson's and James's bays from the west and south. The mouths of all these rivers are full of shoals, except Churchill's, in which the largest ships may lie; but ten miles higher the channel is obstructed by sand-banks. All the rivers, as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids, and cataracts from ten to sixty feet perpendicular. Down these rivers the Indians traders find a quick passage; but their return is a labour of many months. Copper-mine and McKenzie's rivers fall into the North Sea.

The valleys are in general full of lakes, formed not of springs, but rain and snow.

**Animals.** These are the moose-deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fish, there are whales, morses, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelson, in one season, ninety thousand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty five thousand hares.

All the animals of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals. When that season is over, which continues only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow: every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprising phenomenon; but it is yet more surprising, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried to Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair than they had originally.

**Inhabitants.** The native inhabitants of this country are composed of different tribes; those on the coast of Labrador are called Esquimaux, or Iskimos. These appear to be of a different race from the other native Americans, from whom they are particularly distinguished by a thick and bushy beard. They have small eyes, large dirty teeth, and black and rugged hair. They go well clothed, in skins, principally
of bears, and are said to be very mild tempered and docile. They seem to be the same people with the Greenlanders, and have a resemblance to the Laplanders and Samoieds of the north of Europe and Asia.

**Discovery and Commerce.** The knowledge of these northern seas and countries was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of discovery it seems manifest, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Frobisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure; the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and the third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him, and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1612 and 1667; but, though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to the country. The vast countries which surround Hudson’s Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay; and they have acted under it ever since, with great benefit to the individuals who compose the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of the exclusive company, whose interested spirit has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ but four ships and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales, Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. They export commodities to the value of £6,000l. and bring home returns to the value of £29,340l. which yield to the revenue £3,734l. This includes the fishery of Hudson’s Bay. The only attempt to trade in that part which is called Labrador has been directed towards the fishery, the annual produce of which amounts to upwards of 50,000l.

**Canada.**

**Situation and Extent.**

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<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
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<tr>
<td>Length 1400</td>
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<td>150,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Breadth 400</td>
<td>43 and 50 North latitude.</td>
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**Boundaries.** BOUNDED by New Britain and Hudson’s Bay on the north and east; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the south; and by unknown lands on the west.
Canada is divided into the two provinces of Upper and Lower Canada. The former lies to the north of the great lakes, and is separated from New York by the river St. Lawrence, here called the Cataraqui, and the lakes Ontario and Erie. Lower Canada lies on both sides of the river St. Lawrence, and is bounded on the south by New Brunswick, New England, and New York; and, on the west, by Upper Canada.

CLIMATE.] Winter, in this country, continues with such severity from December to April, that the largest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet in depth; but the air is so serene and clear, and the inhabitants so well defended against the cold, that this season is neither unhealthy nor unpleasant. The spring opens suddenly, and vegetation is surprisingly rapid; the summer is delightful, except that a part of it is extremely hot.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleasant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco in particular thrives well, and is much cultivated. The island of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Lawrence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of British America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almost all the different species of wood and animals that are found in these provinces, we shall, to avoid repetition, speak of them here at some length.

LAKES.] In Canada are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of fresh water, larger than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than 200 leagues in circumference. Erie, or Oswego, longer, but not so broad, is about the same extent. That of the Huron spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not less than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like lake Erie, it is rather long, and comparatively narrow. But the Lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is 500 leagues in circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by the falls of Niagara. The river St. Lawrence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes, by which they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French, when in possession of the province, built forts at the several straits by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of these communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence over all the nations of America which lay near them.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, the Outtauis, St. John, Seguinv, Despraines, and Trois Rivières, but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Lawrence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and, taking its course north-east, washes Mont réal, where it receives the Outtauis, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep, that ships of the line contributed, in the war before the last, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Rosières, where it is ninety miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands; many of them are fruitful, and extremely pleasant.

MOUNTAINS.] There are some mountains in the northern part of this country, and others between Quebec and the sea, but none that deserves particular notice.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found. This country also abounds with coals.

ANIMALS.] These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. It is to the spoils of these that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and most of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been describing. The animals that find shelter and nourishment
in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are stags, elk, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters, beavers, or castors, of which the white are highly valued, being scarce as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though resembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the most curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds: they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The savages, who wage a continual war with this animal, believe it to be a rational creature, that it lived in society, and was governed by a leader resembling their own sachem or prince.—It must indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives it habitation, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of it, are sufficient to show the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even in some instances the superiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and straw colours; but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the skin before it is applied to any use; the green are the furs that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besmear them withunctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down that is manufactured into hats that oly quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have of late found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles: the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a most delicious food, but when boiled it has a disagreeable relish.

The musk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver (weighing about five or six pounds), which it resembles in every thing but its tail; and affords a very strong musk.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. Elks love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no grass, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him; and while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he finds an opportunity to dispatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail so long, that Charlevoix says he twisted it several times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the snout to the tail. It is said that this animal, winding himself about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twist his strong tail round his body, and tear his throat open in a moment.

The buffalo is a kind of wild ox, of much the same appearance with those of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffalo hides are as soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the Indians make of them are hardly penetrable by a musquet-ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domestic animal, but differs in no other respect from those of Europe. Wolves are scarce in Canada, but they afford the finest furs in all the country. Their flesh is white, and good to eat; they pursue their prey to the tops of the tallest trees. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; but those of other colours are more common: and some on the Upper Mississippi are of a silver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thousand antic-tricks, and then spring up and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a most beautiful white fur, except the tip of
his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the smell of which is nauseous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful silver colour, with a bushy tail, and twice as big as the European; the female carries under her belly a bag, which she opens and shuts at pleasure; and in that she places her young when pursued. Here are three sorts of squirrels; that called the flying squirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is easily tamed and is very lively. The Canadian porcupine is less than a middling dog; when roasted, he eats full as well as a sucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from those in Europe, only they turn gray in winter. There are two sorts of bears here, one of a reddish, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the most dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unless when wounded or oppressed with hunger. They run themselves very poor in the month of July, when it is somewhat dangerous to meet them; during the winter they remain in a kind of torpid state. Scarcely any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater solemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought after than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chase supplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercels, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance. Wood-cocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said by some writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian wood pecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird, or humming-bird, is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chaffer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake chiefly deserves attention. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring or row of scales; so that its age may be known by its tail, as we know that of a horse by its teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noise, from which it takes its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant, which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaister to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked; and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers; nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good; it also possesses medicinal qualities.

Some writers are of opinion, that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains perhaps the greatest variety of fish of any in the world, and these in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Besides a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea-plaice; salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourason, sturgeon, the aichigu; the gilthead, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, mackarel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its
howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest is said to weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and, though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting covering for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St Laurence are said to yield a hogshead of oil; and of their skins waistscoats are made, which are excessively strong, and musket-proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle fish, quite round, or rather oval: there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hogs-head, and others but a foot long; they catch only the last, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaice is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chouarson is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, resembling a pike; it is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger; its colour is a silver grey; and there grows under its mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. One may easily conceive, that an animal so well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few instances of fish making prey of the feathered creation, which this fish does, however, with much art. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, in such a manner that nothing is to be seen besides his weapon, which he holds raised perpendicularly above the surface of the water; the fowls which come to take rest, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no sooner alighted, than the fish opens its throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt-water fish, taken on the coast of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigan, and the gilthead, are fish peculiar to the river St Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from those of the Nile.

Timber and Plants.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent to the sight; the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that even among those persons who have taken most pains to describe them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are describing produces, amongst others, two sorts of pines, the white and the red; four sorts of firs; two sorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and the female maple; three sorts of ash trees, the free, the mongrel, and the bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the soft, and the smooth; vast numbers of beech trees and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, some of which, made out of one piece, will contain twenty persons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they sew together with the inner rind, and daub over the seams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter resembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of these canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are also found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which, when shaken in the morning before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant, which resembles a margold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop plant.

Chief Towns.] Quebec, the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all British America, is situate at the confluence of the rivers St Laurence and St Charles, or the
Little river, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble and partly of slate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The town is defended by a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants have been computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all on a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions. That are raised 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, show themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. The country resembles the well settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters live wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richelieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood of the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St Lawrence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c., and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides of the rivers.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St Laurence, which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and when it fell into the hands of the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southermost side of the river, as the hill, on the side of which the town stands, falls gradually to the water. The place is surrounded with a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it became subject to the English it has suffered much by fires.

Population, Inhabitants.] In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador were supposed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants.* There are many different tribes of Indians in Canada; but these people are observed to decrease in population where the Europeans are most numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate use of spirituous liquors, of which they are excessively fond. But as liberty is the ruling passion of the Indians, we may naturally suppose, that, as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more distant regions.

Natural Curiosities.] These are the vast lakes, rivers, and cataracts, of the country. Among the latter the principal is the stupendous fall, or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can express the consternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great a height, upon the rocks below: from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as white as snow, being all converted into foam, through those violent agita-

* In 1754, general Hallicmand ordered a census of the inhabitants to be taken, when they amounted to 113,012 English and French, exclusive of 10,000 loyalists, settled in the upper parts of the province.
tions. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of fifteen miles, and sometimes much further. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of smoke, and exhibiting the resemblance of a rainbow, whenever the sun and the position of the traveller favour. Meanly beasts and fowls here lose their lives, by attempting to swim, or cross the stream in the rapids above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below. Sometimes the Indians, through carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the same fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carcases of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed.

Trade.] The amount of the exports from the province of Lower Canada, in the year 1786, was 343,263l. the amount for imports in the same year was 325,116l. The exports consisted of wheat, flour, biscuit, flax-seed, fish, pot-ash, ginseng, and other medicinal roots; but principally of furs and peltries, to the amount of 285,977l. The imports consisted of rum, brandy, molasses, coffee, sugar, wines, tobacco, salt, provisions for the troops, and dry goods.

Government.] By the Quebec act, passed by the parliament of Great Britain, in the year 1791, it is enacted that there shall be within each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, a legislative council and an assembly, who, with the consent of the governor appointed by the king, shall have power to make laws; but the king may declare his dissent at any time within two years after receiving any bill. The legislative council is to consist of not fewer than seven members for Upper and fifteen for Lower Canada, to be summoned by the governor, who must be authorized by the king. They hold their seats for life, unless they forfeit them by an absence of four years, or transferring their allegiance to some foreign power. The house of assembly is to consist of not less than sixteen members from Upper and fifty from Lower Canada, chosen by the freeholders in the several towns and districts. The council and assembly are to be called together at least once in every year, and every assembly is to continue four years, unless sooner dissolved by the governor.

Language.] The general language of this country is the French; English being confined to the British settlers, who are much fewer in number than the inhabitants of French descent.

Religion.] About nine-tenths of the inhabitants of these provinces are Roman Catholics, who enjoy, under the present government, the same rights and privileges as were granted them in 1772 by the act of Parliament then passed. The rest of the people are Protestants of various sects.

History. This country was discovered by the English as early as 1597; but the first settlement in it was made by the French, in 1608, who retained possession of it till 1760, when it was conquered by the British arms, and, by the treaty of Paris in 1763, ceded by France to the crown of England, under the government of which it has ever since continued.

One of the most remarkable events which history records of this country, is the earthquake in the year 1663, which overwhelmed a chain of mountains of free-stone, more than 300 miles long, and changed the immense tract into a plain.

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NOVA SCOTIA & NEW BRUNSWICK.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

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<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
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<tr>
<td>Length 350</td>
<td>between 43 and 49 north lat.</td>
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<td>Breadth 250</td>
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Boundaries, divisions.] Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, in the original and more extensive application of the name, is bounded by the river St Lawrence on the north; by the gulf of St Lawrence, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by the same ocean, south; and by Canada and New England, west.

This country in 1784, was divided into two provinces or governments, viz. Nova Scotia proper, and New Brunswick. Nova Scotia proper is a peninsula, joined to the continent by a narrow isthmus, at the north-east extremity of the bay of Fundy; it is separated on the north-east from Cape Breton island by the gut of Canso; on the north it has a part of the gulf of St Lawrence, and the straits of Northumberland, which divide it from the island of St John; on the west it has New Brunswick, and the bay of Fundy; on the south and south-east the Atlantic Ocean. Its length is about 235 miles from Cape Sable on the south-west, to Cape Canso on the north-east. Its extreme breadth is 88 miles; but, between the head of Halifax harbour, and the town of Windsor, it is only about 22 miles broad. It contains 8,789,000 acres, of which three millions have been granted, and two millions settled, and under improvement.

New Brunswick is bounded on the westward of the river St Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, to the northward by the same boundary as far as the western extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the eastward by the said bay to the gulf of St Lawrence, to the bay called Bay Verte, to the south by a line in the centre of the bay of Fundy, from the river St Croix aforesaid, to the mouth of the Musquash river; by the said river to its source, and from thence by a due line across the isthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eastern lot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast.

Nova Scotia is divided into eight counties, viz. Halifax, Hants, King's, Annapolis, Cumberland, Sunbury, Queen's, and Lunenburg. These are divided into above 40 townships.

Population.] The whole population of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the islands adjoining, is about 50,000.

Chief towns.] The capital of Nova Scotia proper is Halifax, which stands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most part of the province, either by land-carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war lies during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, of the fishery. The town has an entrenched, and is strengthened with forts of timber. The other towns of less note are Annapolis Royal, which stands on the east side of the bay of Fundy, and, though but a small place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing a thousand vessels at anchor, in the utmost security. St John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy, on the west side.

Since the conclusion of the American war, the emigration of loyalists to this province from the United States has been very great; by them new towns have been raised; as Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water-side, and is said to contain already 9000 inhabitants. Of the old settlements, the most flourishing and populous are, Halifax, and the townships of Windsor, Norton, and Cornwalls, between Halifax and Annapolis. Of the new settlements, the most important are Shelburne, Barr-town, Digby, and New Edinburgh. Large tracts of land have been lately cultivated, and the province is now likely to advance in population and fertility.

The chief towns of Brunswick, are St John's the capital, Frederic-town, St Andrew's and St Ann, the present seat of government.

Soil and produce.] From such an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, till lately, was almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, made little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produced is of a shrivelled kind, like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninsula, to the southward, which do not yield to the best land in New
England, and, by the industry and exertions of the loyalists from the other provinces, are now cultivated, and likely to be fertile and flourishing. In general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new settlements and bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land has been cleared, which abounds in timber; and ship-loads of good masts and spars have been shipped from thence already.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. They are wrapped up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intensely cold; but, though the cold in winter, and the heat in summer, are great, they come on gradually, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in New Brunswick are St John's, which is navigable for vessels of fifty tons, about sixty miles; and St Croix, which divides this province from the district of Maine. The river of Annapolis, in Nova Scotia proper, is navigable fifteen miles for vessels of 100 tons.

ANIMALS.] These provinces are not deficient in the animals of the neighbouring countries, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and quadrupeds, have from time to time been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland is the Cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod-fishing banks, navigable rivers, basins, and excellent harbours.

METALS, MINERALS.] Copper has been found at Cape d'Or, on the north side of the basin of Minas, and there are mines of coal at Cumberland, and on the east river which falls into Picton harbour.

TRADE.] The amount of imports from Great Britain to this country, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about 26,500l. The articles exported in exchange are timber, and the produce of the fishery, which, at a large average amounts to 38,000l.

HISTORY AND SETTLEMENT.] Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his secretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then, it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation, backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English till the peace of Utrecht; and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were transported, in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country, where they erected the town of Halifax, so called from the earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement.

ISLANDS IN NORTH AMERICA.

NEWFOUNDLAND is situate on the east side of the gulf of St Laurence, between 46 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and between 58 and 59 of west longitude. It is separated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the straits of Belleisle, and from Canada by the bay of St Laurence; being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coasts are ex-
ISLANDS IN NORTH AMERICA.

Tremendously subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. The cold of winter is here long continued and severe, and the summer heat, though sometimes violent, is not sufficient to produce anything valuable, the soil being rocky and barren. It is, however, watered by several good rivers, and has many large and excellent harbours. This island seems to be rather hilly than mountainous, with woods of birch, small pine, and fir; but on the south-west side are lofty headlands. It is chiefly valuable for the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals which are called the banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and the United States, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3,000 sail of small craft in this fishery, on board of which, and on shore, to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 100,000 hands. This fishery is computed to yield 300,000l. a year from the cod sold in Catholic countries. The numbers of cod, both on the great bank and the lesser, are inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance, all of which are nearly in equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the island of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts.

The chief towns in Newfoundland, are Placentia, Bonavista, and St John's, but not above 1000 families remain here in winter. A small squadron is sent in the spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the admiral of which, for the time being, is governor of the island, besides whom there is a lieutenant governor, who resides at Placentia.

This island was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1496, and both the French and English had made settlements there in the beginning of the seventeenth century. After various contests and disputes, however, the island was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St Laurence; but with the limitation that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St Pierre and Miquelon, situate to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, under the stipulation that they should erect no fortifications on those islands, nor keep more than fifty soldiers to enforce the police. By the treaty of 1763, the French were to enjoy their fisheries on the northern and western coasts, the inhabitants of the United States having the same privileges as before their independence; and the late treaty of Amiens confirmed the privileges then granted to the French.

St JOHN'S.] Situated in the gulf of St Laurence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, and has many fine rivers; and, though lying near Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to four thousand, submitted quietly to the British arms; and, to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island so well improved by the French, that it was the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It has several fine rivers, and a rich soil. Charlotte-town is the capital, and the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer in the island. The inhabitants are estimated at about five thousand.

CAPE BRETON.] This island, or rather collection of islands, called by the French Les Isles de Madame, which lie so contiguous that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the island of Cape Breton, lies between 45 and 47 deg. north lat. and between 59 and 60 deg. west lon. from London. It is about 100 miles in length, and 50 in breadth; and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait, called the Gut of Conso, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the gulf of St Laurence. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisburg, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water.

The French began a settlement in this island in 1714, which they continued to increase, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, dispossessed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain;
but it was again, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ceded to the French, who spared no
expense to fortify and strengthen it. Notwithstanding which, it was again reduced, in
1758, by the British troops, under general Amherst and admiral Boscawen, together
with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and
twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of
ammunition and stores; and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of
1763, since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisbourg
dismantled.

BERMUDAS, or SUMMER ISLANDS.] These received their first name from
their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Is-
lands, from Sir George Summers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his pas-
sage to Virginia. They are situate at a vast distance from any continent, in thirty-two
deg. north lat. and in sixty-five deg. west long. Their distance from the Land’s End
is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200 and from Carolina
about 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres;
and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there,
expresses it, “walled with rocks.” The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates
in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and
richness of the vegetable productions are perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these
islands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only business
of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000 in number, is the building and navigation of
light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North
America and the West Indies. These vessels are as remarkable for their swiftness,
as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

WEST INDIES.

WE have already observed, that between the two continents of America lie a mul-
titude of Islands which we call the West Indies, and which, (such as are worth cultivation,
now belong to five European powers, Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and
Denmark. As the climate and seasons of these islands differ widely from what we can
form any idea of by what we perceive at home, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of
them in general, and mention some other particulars that are peculiar to the West
Indies.

The climate in all our West India islands is nearly the same, allowing for those acci-
cidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves
produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun goes quite over their heads, pass-
ing beyond them to the north, they are continually subjected to the extreme of a heat
which would be intolerable, if the trade-wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers
strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner
as to enable the cultivator to attend to his business, even under the meridian sun. On
the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows
smartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the sea, to all points of the
compass at once.

In the same manner, when the sun advances towards the tropic of Cancer, and be-
comes vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, as shield the earth from
his direct beams; and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty
with the long drought which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the
latter end of May.

The rains in the West Indies (and we may add, in the East Indies) are by no means
so moderate as with us. Our heaviest rains are but dews comparatively. They are
rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers rise in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water.\* Hence it is, the rivers which have their source within the tropics swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; but so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continued and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable; when in reality, some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailstones very large and heavy.

It is in the rainy season (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assaulted by hurricanes, the most terrible calamity to which they are subject from the climate; these destroy, at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrate the hopes of the planter, often just at the moment when he thinks himself out of the reach of fortune. The hurricane is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance which the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, they see, as the prelude to the ensuing havoc, whole fields of sugar-canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country; the strongest trees of the forests are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their wind-mills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper-bottlers, and stills of several hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour rises five feet, rushes in upon them with irresistible violence.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar: this commodity was not known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not agreed whether the cane, from which this substance is extracted, be a native of America, or brought thither, to their colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but, however that may be, in early times they made the most, as they still do the best sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively and least cloying sweet in nature, and, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses, rum is distilled, and from the scumings of sugar a meamer spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is consumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or distributed from thence to the fishery of Newfoundland, and other parts, besides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of melasses is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be distilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for the cattle; and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

It is computed that, when things are well managed, the rum and melasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have seen, and by others which we may easily imagine, the expenses of a plantation in the West Indies are very great, and the profits, at the first view, precarious: for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling-houses, and the buying and subsisting a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any man to begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5000l. There are, however, no parts of

\* See Watson's Journey across the Isthmus of Darien.
the world in which great estates are made in so short a time, from the productions of the earth, as in the West Indies. The produce of a few good seasons generally provides against the ill effects of the worst; as the planter is sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of 150l. a-year, with overseers under him in proportion to the extent of the plantation: one to about thirty negroes, with a salary of about 40l. Such plantations, too, have a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate, is to let the land, with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of rent, and the keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the net produce of the best years. Such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it. Some are subsisted in this manner; but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork, a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10l. or 12l. annually. The price of men negroes, upon their first arrival, is from 46l. to 50l.; women and grown boys 20s. less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally bring above 60l. upon an average one with another; and there are instances of a single negro man, expert in business, bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

To particularise the commodities proper for the West-India market, would be to enumerate all the necessaries, conveniences, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell; but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or less as a venture, the West-India market is frequently over-stocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and cooperers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant in accumulating riches.

The present state of the population in the British West Indies appears to be about 65,000 whites, and 455,000 blacks. There is likewise in each of the islands a considerable number of mixed blood, and native blacks of free condition. In Jamaica they are reckoned at 10,000; and they do not fall short of the same number in all the other islands collectively taken. The whole inhabitants, therefore, may properly be divided into four great classes: 1. European whites; 2. Creole or native whites; 3. Creoles of mixed blood and free native blacks; 4. Negroes in a state of slavery.

The islands of the West Indies lie in the form of a bow, or semi-circle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida north, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distinguish them into Windward and Leeward Islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Portobello.—The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] This island, which is the first belonging to Great Britain, and also the most important that we arrive at after leaving Florida, lies between the 76th and 79th degrees of west longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude.
From the east and west it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing less towards each end, in the form of an egg. It contains 4,080,000 acres, of which 900,000 were planted in 1675; and in November 1789 there were no more than 1,907,589 acres located, or taken up by grants from the Crown.

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks, heaped by the frequent earthquakes in a stupendous manner upon one another. These rocks, though containing no soil on their surface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flourishing in a perpetual spring; they are nourished by the rains that often fall, and the mists which continually hang on the mountains; and their roots, penetrating the crannies of the rocks, industriously seek out for their own support. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers of pure wholesome waters, which tumble down in cataracts, and, together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees, through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these coffee grows in great plenty. The valleys or plains between those ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven; but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West Indies are into the dry and wet seasons. The air of this island is, in most places, excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea-breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which, when it happens, is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness; and the lightning in these violent storms frequently does great damage. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish-Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemical distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the principal and most valuable production of this island. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to a great extent. It produces also ginger and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cinnamon-tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the manchineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains a most virulent poison; the mahogany, in such use with our cabinet-makers, and of the most valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear; excellent cedars, of a large size, and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much esteemed by the natives, both in food and medicine; the soap-tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive-bark, useful to tanners; the fuscic and red-wood, to the dyers; and lately the log-wood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton tree is still so. No sort of European grain grows here; they have only maize or Indian corn, Guinea-corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them resembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruits, as has been already observed, grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, namees, soursops, papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly-pears, allicada-pears, melons, pommions, guavas, and several kinds of berries, also garden vegetables in great plenty and good. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable. They have great plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceedingly sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome, and hardy. Among the animals are the land and sea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea-hens, geese, duck, and turkeys; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numerous adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and the gallewasp; but
these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the cior, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous or membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and sometimes of the white people. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle or point of a penknife; taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the very bone.

This island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1650; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion. - Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and, having carried the capital, St Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English; and the government of it is one of the richest places, next to that of Ireland, in the disposal of the Crown, the standing salary being 2,500l. per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

We have already observed, that the government of all the British American islands is the same, namely, that kind which we have formerly described under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is universally of the church of England; though they have no bishop, the bishop of London's commissary being the chief religious magistrate in those parts.

Jamaica is divided into three counties, Middlesex, Surry, and Cornwall, which contain, in the whole, twenty parishes. The town of Port-Royal, which now has not above 200 houses, was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload with the greatest ease, induced the inhabitants to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with inconsiderate bravery, and then spent their fortunes in this capital with an inconsiderate dissipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its size, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, so as to leave, in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and swallowed up nine-tenths of the houses, and two thousand people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houses and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were wrecked in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and did not overset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place, appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a second time, ten years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, it was laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants, therefore, resolved to forsake it for ever, and to remove to the opposite side of the bay, where they built Kingston, which has become the capital.
of the island. It consists of upwards of sixteen hundred houses, many of them handsomely built, and, in the taste of these islands, as well as in the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticoes, and every convenience for a comfortable habitation in that climate. The number of inhabitants is between 26 and 27,000. Kingston now ranks as a city, having been incorporated by charter bearing date January 12, 1803. Not far from Kingston stands St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish-Town; which, though at present inferior to Kingston, not containing more than 3000 inhabitants, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

On the 3d of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almost overwhelmed the little sea-port town of Savanna la Mar, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houses were left standing, and a great number of lives were lost. Much damage was also done, and many persons perished in other parts of the island.

The number of white inhabitants in this island in 1787 was 80,000; freed negroes 10,000; maroons 1400; and slaves 250,000; in all 304,000. The value of this island as British property is estimated as follows; 250,000 negroes, at 50l. sterling each, twelve millions and a half; the landed and personal property, and buildings to which they are appurtenant, twenty-five millions more; the houses and property in the towns, and the vessels employed in trade, one million and a half; in all thirty-nine millions. The exports of Jamaica for one year, ending the 5th of January, 1787, amounted in Sterling money to 2,136,442l. 17s. 3d. In 1787, the exports to the United States amounted to 60,095l. 18s.; and importations from the United States to the value of 90,000.

The whole produce of the island may be reduced to these heads: First, Sugars, of which article was exported to Great Britain in 1787, 824,706 cwt. In 1799, 1,135,519 cwt. Most of this goes to London, Bristol, and Glasgow, and some part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, staves, planks, pitch and tar, which they have from hence. Second, Rum, of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great Britain. Third, Melasses, in which they make a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of the grand staple, the Sugar-cane. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter in Jamaica, that island has 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of sugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, Cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweet-meats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carry on a vast and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods.

BARBADOES. This island, the most easterly of all the Caribbees, is situate in 59 degrees west long., and 13 degrees north lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. It contains 106,470 acres of land, most of which is under cultivation; and is divided into five districts and eleven parishes, and contains four towns: Bridgetown, the capital, where the governor resides; Ostins, or Charles-town; St. James, formerly called the Hole; and Speight's-town. When the English, sometime after the year 1625, first landed here, they found it the most savage and destitute place they had hitherto visited. It had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beasts of pasture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield to them a tolerable support; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and
that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably, These prospects, together with the disputes between the king and parliament, which were beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves into this island. And, what is extremely remarkable, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, twenty-five years after its first settlement, that in 1650 it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negroes and Indian slaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour, for they seized upon all those unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery, a practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcilable to us ever since. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate sugar, which soon rendered them extremely wealthy. The number of the slaves therefore was still augmented; and in 1676, it was supposed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this small spot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships one with another, of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports, in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 350,000l. and their circulating cash at home was 200,000. Such was the increase of population, trade, and wealth, in the course of fifty years. But since that time this island has been much on the decline; which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to our own establishments in the neighbouring isles. In 1786 the numbers were, 16,167 whites; 838 free people of colour; and 62,115 negroes. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. The exports, on an average of the years 1784, 1785, and 1786, were 9554 hogheads of sugar; 5448 puncheons of rum, 6320 bags of ginger, 8331 bags of cotton, exclusive of small articles, as aloes, sweetmeats, &c. In 1787, 243 vessels cleared outwards, and the London market price of their cargoes amounted to 539,065l. 14s. 10d. of which the value exported to the United States was 23,217l. 13s. 4d. Here is a college (the only one in the West Indies) founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occasioned vast devastation in Barbadoes: great numbers of dwellings were destroyed, not one house in the island was wholly free from damage, many persons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and many more were driven into the sea, and there perished. By this storm no less than 4326 of the inhabitants lost their lives; and the damage done to the property was computed at 1,520,564l. St CHRISTOPHER's.] This island, commonly called by the sailors, St Kitt's, is situated in 62 degrees west long., and 17 degrees north lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is 20 miles long and 7 broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention: and in 1626 it was settled by the French and English conjointly, but entirely ceded to the latter by the peace of Utrecht. Great quantities of indigo were formerly raised here. In 1770 the exports amounted to above 419,000l. sterling in sugar, molasses, and rum, and near 8000l. for cotton. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it produced in 1787, 231,397 cwt. of sugar, but in 1790 only 113,000 cwt. It is computed that this island contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 negroes. In February 1752 it was taken by the French, but was restored again to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783. The capital is Basseterre. ANTIGUA.] Situate in 61 degrees west long. and 17 degrees north lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, is now preferred to any of the rest of the English harbours, being the best and safest as a dock-yard, and an establishment for the royal navy. St John's is the port of greatest trade; and this capital, which, before the fire of 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward islands. In 1774, the white inhabitants of Antigua of all ages and sexes were 2500, and the enslaved negroes 37,608. NEVIS & MONSTERRAT.] Two small islands, lying between St Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference. In the former of these islands the present number of whites is stated not to exceed 600, while the negroes
amount to about 10,000; a disproportion which necessarily converts all such white men as are not exempted by age and decrepitude into a well-regulated militia, among which there is a troop consisting of fifty horse, well mounted and accoutred. English forces, on the British establishment, they have none. The inhabitants of Montserrat amount to 1300 whites, and about 10,000 negroes. The soil in these islands is pretty much alike, light and sandy, but, notwithstanding, fertile in a high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar-cane. Both were taken by the French in the year 1782, but restored at the ensuing peace.

BARBUDA.] Situate in 18 degrees north lat. and 62 west long. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has an indifferent road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitant's amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situate in 19 degrees north lat. 60 miles north-west of St Christopher's, is about 30 miles long and 10 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situate in 16 deg. north lat. and in 62 west long, lies about halfway between Guadaloupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 16 in breadth: It received its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always opposed our settling here, because it must cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadaloupe. However, by the peace of Paris in 1763, it was ceded in express terms to the English. On account of its situation, between the principal French islands and Prince Rupert's Bay, being one of the most capacious in the West Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itself, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but restored again to Great Britain by the peace of 1783.

St VINCENT.] Situate in 13 deg. north lat. and 61 deg. west long. 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes, 30 miles south of St Lucia, is about 17 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the raising of sugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is less cultivated than formerly throughout the West Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here are also fugitives from Barbadoes and the other islands. The Caribbeans were treated with so much injustice and severity, after this island came into possession of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace of 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.] Granada is situate in 12 degrees north lat. and 62 degrees west long, about 30 leagues south-west of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of New Andalusia, on the Spanish Main. This island is 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. Experience has proved that the soil is extremely proper for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it is as flourishing a colony as any in the West Indies of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the island, supplies it with numerous streams, which adorn and fertilise it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, which render it very convenient for shipping; and it is not subject to hurricanes. St George's bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour or careening place, one hundred large vessels may be moored with perfect safety. This island was taken from the French in 1762; confirmed to the English in 1763; taken by the French in 1779; and restored to the English in 1783. In 1795 the French landed some troops and raised an insurrection here, which was not finally quelled till June 1796.

TRINIDAD.] Situate between 59 and 62 deg. west long. and in 10 deg. north lat. lies between the island of Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the Straits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealth-
ful but fruitful soil, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island, and exacted money from the inhabitants. It was captured by the British arms in February 1797; and finally ceded to England by the treaty of Amiens.

**Virgin Islands.** A number of small islands between Porto Rico and the Leeward Caribbean islands, in about 18 deg. of north lat. The Spaniards gave them the name of the Virgin Islands, in honour of the 11,000 virgins of the legend. They belong principally to the English and the Danes, though the Spaniards claim some small ones near Porto Rico. Tortola, the principal of those which belong to the English, is about 18 miles long and seven broad: it produces excellent cotton, sugar and rum. Vigin Gorda, another of these islands belonging to the English, is about the same size. The islands of St Thomas, St John, and St Croix, which are a part of this group, belong to the Danes.

**Lucayos, or Bahama Islands.** The Bahamas are situate to the south of Carolina, between 12 and 27 degrees north lat. and 73 and 18 degrees west long. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the isle of Cuba; and are said to be 580 in number, some of them only mere rocks; but 12 of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina: they are, however, almost uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas; though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the Gulf of Bahama, or Florida. These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667, when Captain Seyle, being driven among them in his passage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a second time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands for a check to the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle in them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky incidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage, and the Isle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out Captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet, to dislodge the pirates, and for making a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was stationed in the island. Ever since this last settlement, these islands have been improving, though they advance but slowly. In time of war, people gain considerably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves. The Spaniards captured these islands during the American war; but they were retaken by a detachment from St Augustine, April 7. 1783.

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**Spanish Dominions in North America.**

**Old Mexico, or, New Spain.**

**Situation and Extent.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 2000</td>
<td>between 83 and 110 west longitude</td>
<td>318,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 600</td>
<td>8 and 30 north latitude</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Boundaries, Divisions.** Bounded by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north; by the Gulf of Mexico, on the north-east; by Terra Firma, on the south-east; by the Pacific Ocean, on the south-west. It contains three audiences; viz.
OLD MEXICO.

BAYS.] On the North Sea are the guls or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, are the bays of Micoya and Amapa, Acapulco, and Salinas.

WINDS.] In the Gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent sea, there are strong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail everywhere at a distance from land, within the tropics. Near the coast, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds; viz. monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

RIVERS, LAKES.] This country has many large rivers, some of which run into the Gulf of Mexico, and others into the Pacific Ocean. Among the former are the Alvarado, the Coatzacuaco, and the Tabasco; among the latter is the Guadalaxara, or great river. The principal lakes are those of Nicaragua, Chappalan, and Pazaquaro; those of Tetzcuzo and Chalco occupy a great part of the vale of Mexico, which is the finest tract of country in New Spain. The waters of Chalco are sweet; those of Tetzcuzo brackish. These two lakes are united by a canal. The lower lake, or lake Tetzcuzo, was formerly 20 miles long and 17 broad; and, lying at the bottom of the vale, is the reservoir of all the waters from the surrounding mountains. The city of Mexico stands on an island in this lake.

METALS, MINERALS.] Mexico abounds in mines of gold and silver, of the latter of which it is said they reckon above 1000. Gold is also found in the brooks and rivers, as well as in the mines. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in several parts, but in none so much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the most barren and mountainous parts of the country, nature making amends in one respect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances mixed with the precious metals, it is broken into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which clung to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a stronger attraction for silver than the other substances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then, by straining and evaporation, they are disunited from the mercury itself. It has been computed, that the revenues of Mexico amount to twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver. The mountains of Mexico likewise abound in mines of iron, copper, and lead. Here are also found various kinds of precious stones; as emeralds, turquoises, amethysts, and a few diamonds. Mineral springs are likewise abundant.

CLIMATE, SOIL.] Mexico, lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excessively hot; and on the eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, it is likewise extremely unwholesome. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperament. On the western side the land is not so low as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The soil of Mexico, in general, is of a good variety, and would not refuse

* This city was swallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June 1779, when 8000 families instantly perished. New Guatemala is built at some distance, and is well inhabited.
any sort of grain, were the industry of the inhabitants to correspond with their natural
advantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits
than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, cocoa-nuts,
are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. Mexico produces also a prodigious quan-
tity of sugar, especially towards the Gulf of Mexico, and the provinces of Guazaca
and Guatimala; so that there are here more sugar-mills than in any other part of Spa-
nish America. Cedar-trees and logwood abound about the bays of Campeachy and
Honduras; the mahoe-tree, also, which has a bark with such strong fibres that they twist
and make ropes of it. They have also a tree which is called light-wood, being as light
as cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandise on the sea-coasts. But
the two most valuable products of this country, next to its gold and silver, are cochineal
and cocoa. The former is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall-insects. It
adheres to the plant called opuntia, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crim-
son colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which consists in
dyeing all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple. It is also used in medicine as
a sudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no
less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity, to answer the pur-
poses of medicine and dyeing. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, grows on a tree
of a middling size, which bears a pod of about the size and shape of a cucumber, con-
taining the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the
general consumption, as well as the external call for it, that a small garden of cacoa-
trees is said to produce to the owner twenty thousand crowns a-year. At home it
makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholesome, nutritious, and suitable to
the climate. This country likewise produces silks, but not in such quantity as to make
any remarkable part of its export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and, on account
of its lightness, is the common wear of the inhabitants.

ANIMALS.] Horses, asses, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, and cats, have been transported
into this country from the old continent, and have all multiplied. Horned cattle are found
wild, in herds of from 30,000 to 40,000, and are killed merely for the sake of their hides.
Among the native animals are the puma and jaguar, or American lion and tiger; the
Mexican or hunchback dog, a kind of porcupine; wild cats, foxes, squirrels, and armadillos. The prodigious number of birds, their variety and qualities, have occasioned
some authors to observe that, as Africa is the country of beasts, so Mexico is the coun-
try of birds. It is said there are 200 species peculiar to this part of America.

POPULATION.] The population of Mexico has been estimated at 500,000 Spaniards,
one million of negroes and mulattoes, and two millions of native Indians. The num-
ber of inhabitants in all the Spanish provinces in North America has been computed at
about seven millions; of whom the Spaniards are supposed to amount to one million,
the native Indians to four millions, and the persons of mixed races to two millions.

CHARACTER OF INHABITANTS.] We have already described the original inhabitants
of Mexico, and the conquest of that country by the Spaniards. The present inhabi-
tants may be divided into whites, Indians, and negroes. The whites are either born in
Old Spain, or they are Creoles, i. e. natives of Spanish America. The former are
chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the same character with the
Spaniards in Europe; only a still greater portion of pride, for they consider themselves
as entitled to very high distinction, as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhab-
bitants as many degrees beneath them. The Creoles have all the bad qualities of the
Spaniards, from whom they are descended, without that courage, firmness, and patience,
which constitute the praiseworthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and
effeminate, they dedicate the greatest part of their lives to loitering and inactive plea-
sures. Luxurious, without variety or elegance, and expensive, with great parade and
little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and specious insigni-
ficance. From idleness and constitution, their whole business is amour and intrigue;
and their ladies, of consequence, are not at all distinguished for their chastity and do-
mestic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithstanding the devastations of the first invad-
ers, remain in great numbers, become, by continual oppressions and indignity, a de-
jected, timorous, and miserable race of mortals. The negroes here, like those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the slavery they endure as any human creatures can be. Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, EDIFICES.] The city of Mexico, the capital of this part of Spanish America, is situate in the delightful vale of Mexico, on several small islands in the lake Tetzuco. It is built with admirable regularity, the streets being straight, and crossing each other at right angles. It is the see of an archbishop, and contains 29 churches and 22 monasteries and numeraries; there is also a tribunal of the inquisition, a mint, and an university. All the public edifices, especially the churches, are magnificent, and the most profuse display of wealth is seen in every part of the city. The number of inhabitants, by a late accurate enumeration made by the magistrates and priests, exceeds 200,000.

Vera Cruz, situate on the Gulf of Mexico, is the great commercial port of New Spain. It is perhaps one of the most considerable places for trade in the world, being the centre of the American treasures, and the magazine for all the merchandise sent from New Spain, or that is transported thither from Europe. It is, however, unhealthy, from the marshy ground on which it stands; most of the houses are of wood; and the inhabitants, it is said, do not exceed 3000.

Acapulco is situate on a bay of the Pacific Ocean, and is the chief port on this sea, the harbour being so spacious that several hundred ships may ride in it, without inconvenience, opposite to the town; on the east side is a high and strong castle, with guns of a large size. It is a place of great trade, in consequence of being the port from which the galleon annually sails for Manilla.

COMMERCE.] The trade of this country is immense. From the port of Vera Cruz, Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world, and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessaries which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themselves. To this port (before the galleons were laid aside, and the subsequent new arrangements) the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ships, annually arrived about the beginning of November. Its cargo consisted of every commodity and manufacture of Europe; and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, are almost the only advantages which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods were landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet took in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities, for Europe. Some time in May they were ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sailed to the Havannah, in the isle of Cuba, which was the rendezvous where they met the galleons, another fleet, which carried on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all were collected, and provided with a convoy for their safety, they steered for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America and the East Indies. About the month of December the great galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, annually arrived here. The cargoes of these ships (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewise carried goods) consisted of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, came in, and was not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quick-silver, and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the galleon's cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, met upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world were bartered for one another, lasted thirty days. The galleon then prepared for her voyage, loaded with silver, and such European goods as had been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade was carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, were comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allowed the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of
the flota, so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permitted the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galleon. Since 1748, however, the galleons have been laid aside; and smaller vessels, called register ships, employed. In 1764 monthly packets were established between Corunna and the Havannah. The trade to Cuba, as also to Yucatan and Campeachy, has been laid open to all Spain; and in 1774 a free intercourse was permitted between Mexico and Peru. This liberal policy will, no doubt, considerably increase the trade and wealth of these countries.

Government.] The civil government of Mexico is administered by tribunals called Audiences, which bear a resemblance to the old parliaments in France. In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power which his catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy’s office is diminished by the shortness of its duration: for as jealousy is the leading feature of Spanish politics in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to retain his power for more than three years; which, no doubt, may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor.

Religion.] The established religion of this country, and throughout Spanish America, is the Roman catholic, in all its bigotry and superstition. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico; and it has been computed that priests, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable that the church should enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom.

History.] The history of Mexico has already been given in our account of the discovery and conquest of America.

## EAST & WEST FLORIDA.

### SITUATION AND EXTENT.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 600</td>
<td>between 80 and 91 west longitude.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 400</td>
<td>25 and 32 north latitude.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Boundaries.] This country is bounded by Georgia on the north; by theMississippi on the west; by the Gulf of Mexico on the south; and by the Bahama Straits on the east.

Rivers.] The principal of these is the Mississippi, which is one of the finest rivers in the world, as well as the largest; for, including its turnings and windings, it is supposed to run a course of more than 3000 miles. The Mobile, the Apalachicola, and St John’s rivers, are also large and noble streams.

Metals, minerals.] This country produces iron ore, copper, quicksilver, and pitch coal: amethysts, turquoises, and other precious stones, it is said, have also been found here.

Climate, soil, produce.] The climate is little different from that of Georgia. The soil is various in different parts. East Florida, near the sea, and forty miles back, is flat and sandy. But even the country round St Augustine, in all appearance the worst in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a-year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon trees
grow here, without cultivation, to a large size, and produce better fruit than Spain and Portugal. The inland country, towards the hills, is extremely rich and fertile; producing spontaneously the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewise favourable to the rearing of European productions. This country also produces rice, indigo, and cochineal: mahogany grows on the southern parts of the peninsula, but inferior in size and quality to that of Jamaica.

**Animals.** Horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs, are numerous, especially in the western part of this country. Among the wild animals are the buffalo, panther, wild-cat, otter, racoon, flying squirrel, opossum, armadillo, and several kinds of serpents. Birds are in great variety and numerous; and the rivers abound in fish, but are, at the same time, infested with voracious alligators.

**Chief Towns.** The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, N. lat. 30-22. W. long. 87-20; which is situated within the bay of the same name, on a sandy shore that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the Gulf of Mexico; in which ships may lie in safety against any kind of wind, being surrounded by land on every side.

St Augustine, the capital of East Florida, N. lat. 29-45. W. long. 81-12, runs along the shore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and enclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, which is called Fort St John; and the whole is furnished with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and south breakers, which form two channels, whose bars, at low tides, have eight feet water.

**Government.** The government is in general like that of the other Spanish colonies in America: but all the settlers from the United States, or other countries, are under the immediate orders of the military commandants, and subject to martial law, with an appeal, from stage to stage, up to the viceroy of Mexico.

**History.** This country was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1497. It has frequently changed masters, belonging alternately to the French and Spaniards. The French first formed a small establishment in Florida in 1564, from which they were driven in the following year by the Spaniards, who then began to form settlements themselves. At the peace of 1763 Florida was ceded to England, in exchange for the Havannah, which had been taken from the Spaniards. While it was in possession of the English, it was divided into East and West Florida, separated by the Apalachicola. During the American war, in the year 1781, both the Floridas were reduced by the Spaniards, to whom they were confirmed by the peace of 1783.

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**NEW MEXICO INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.**

**Situation and Extent.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 2000</td>
<td>between</td>
<td>600,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 1400</td>
<td>94 and 126 west longitude</td>
<td>23 and 43 north latitude</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Boundaries.** BOUNDED by unknown lands on the north; by Louisiana on the east; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean, on the south; and by the same ocean on the west.

**Divisions.**

- North-east division
- South-east division
- South division
- Western division

**Subdivisions.**

- New Mexico Proper
- Apachera
- Sonora
- California, a peninsula

**Chief Towns.**

- SANTA FE, W. longitude 104, N. latitude 36.
- St Antonio
- Tuape
- St Juan
CLIMATE, SOIL.] These countries, lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing either for profit or delight. In California, however, the heat is great in summer, particularly towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, PRODUCE.] The natural history of these countries is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of them, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleasant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with various kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold-mines in these countries, nothing positive can be asserted. Their natural productions are undoubtedly sufficient to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose-leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar without its whiteness. There is also another very singular production: in the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm, and clear as crystal; which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on the coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT.] The Spanish settlements here are comparatively weak; though they are increasing every day, in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians, whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilized life, and to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

HISTORY.] California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico. Our famous navigator, Sir Francis Drake, took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situate for trade, and on its coast has a pearl-fishery of great value.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

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<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 1400</td>
<td>60 and 82 west long.</td>
<td>700,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 700</td>
<td>the Equator, and 12 N. lat.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the North Sea (part of the Atlantic Ocean) on the north; by the same sea and Surinam on the east; by the country of the Amazons and Peru on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain on the west.

---|---|---
1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien | Porto Bello |
2. Carthagena | Panama, W. long. 80-21, N. lat. 8-47. |
3. St Martha | Carthagena |
4. Río de la Hacha | St Martha |
5. Venezuela | Río de la Hacha |
6. Comana | Venezuela |
7. New Andalusia, or Pari | Comana |

The northern division contains the provinces of St Thomas.
The southern division contains the provinces of
{ 1. New Granada
2. Popayan
}

**Isthmus of Darien.** The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello, in the North, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America; and here the isthmus or neck of land is only sixty miles over.

**Bays.** The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the Bay of Panama and the Bay of St Michael's, in the South Sea; the Bay of Porto Bello, the Gulf of Darien, Sino Bay, Carthagena Bay and harbour, the Gulf of Venezuela.

**Rivers.** The chief rivers are the Rio Grande, the Darien, the Chagre, and the Oronoque, or Oronoko, which latter is remarkable for its singularly winding course, the length of which, with all its windings, is estimated at 1380 miles. It is also remarkable for rising and falling once a year only; rising gradually during the space of five months, continuing stationary one month and then falling for five months, and again continuing stationary one month. This is probably occasioned by the rains which fall on the mountains called the Andes, where it has its source.

**Metals, Minerals.** There were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great measure exhausted. The silver, iron, and copper mines, have been since opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, sapphires, and other precious stones.

**Climate.** The climate here, particularly in the northern division, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual in Carthagena: the excessive heats raise the vapour of the sea, which is precipitated in such rains as seem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome.

**Soil and Produce.** The soil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impossible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriance of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coasts are generally barren sand, and incapable of bearing any species of grain. The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balsam-tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable: it bears a fruit resembling an apple, but which, under this specious appearance, contains a most subtile poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are very frequent all over this country.

**Animals.** In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the southern parts. Among those peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the sloth, or, as it is called by way of derision, the Swift Peter. It bears a resemblance to an ordinary monkey in shape and size, but is of a most wretched appearance, with its bare arms and feet, and its skin all over corrugated. He stands in no need of either chain or lutch, never stirring unless compelled by hunger; and he is said to be several minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with such a plaintive, and at the same time so disagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and disgust. In this cry consists the whole defence of this wretched animal for on the first hostile approach, it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with disgustful howlings, so that his pursuer flies much more speedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noise. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he ascends with the utmost uneasiness, moving, and crying, and stopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to save himself such another troublesome journey.
and, rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himself into a ball, and with a shrill drops to the ground.

The monkeys in these countries are very numerous; they keep together twenty or thirty in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree; and if they meet with a single person, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at least they chatter and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him; they hang themselves by the tail, on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes: but where two or three people are together, they usually scamper away.

Natives.] Besides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general description of the Americans, there is another species, of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions too are more soft and effeminate; but what principally distinguishes them is their large weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moon-light, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

Inhabitants, Commerce, Chief Towns.] We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what we have observed with regard to this country, it is only necessary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be regarded in proportion as a greater share of the Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to these are the Tercerones, produced from a white and a mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites, arise the Quarterones, who, though still near the former, are disgraced with a tint of the negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites are the Quinterones, who, it is said, are not to be distinguished from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; besides these, there are a thousand others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello, which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America; and each containing several thousand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandise of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the Bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for these, who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

PERU.

Situation and Extent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles.</th>
<th>Length 1800</th>
<th>Degrees.</th>
<th>Bounded by Terra Firma on the north; by Amazonia and Paraguay on the east; by Chili on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean on the west.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>between</td>
<td>the equator and 25 S. lat., 60 and 81 W. long.</td>
<td>970,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>500</td>
<td>970,000</td>
<td>970,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mountains.] Peru is separated from Amazonia and Paraguay by a chain of mountains the most extensive, and of which some of the summits are the highest, in the world. These are the Cordillera de los Andes, or chain of the Andes, of which an account has already been given in the general description of America.

Rivers.] The rivers Granada, or Cagdalen, Oronoque, Amazon, or Plate, rise in the Andes. Many other rivers rise also in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean.

Metals, minerals.] There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are constantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns shift with the mines. That of Potosí, when the silver there was found at the easiest expence (for now having gone so deep it is not so easily brought up), contained 90,000 souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one. Peru is likewise the only part of Spanish America which produces quicksilver, an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass, resembling brick ill burned. The substance is volatilized by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, in which it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid. In Peru likewise is found the new substance called platina, which may be considered as an eighth metal, and, from its superior qualities, may almost vie with gold itself.

Climate, soil, produce.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one side the South Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so hot as other tropical countries. The sky, too, which is generally cloudy, defends it from the direct rays of the sun; yet, what is extremely singular, it never rains in Lower Peru: but this defect is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. In Quito, however, they have prodigious rains, attended with violent storms of thunder and lightning. Along the sea-coast in Peru is generally a dry barren sand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country. This country produces fruits peculiar to the climate, and most of those in Europe. The culture of maize, of pimento, and cotton, which was found established there, has not been neglected, and that of wheat, barley, cassava, potatoes, sugar, as also of the olive and vine, is attended to. A principal article in the produce and commerce of this country is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jesuit's bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug grows principally in the mountainous parts of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it is about the size of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit resembling the almond; but it is only the bark which has those excellent qualities that render it so useful in intermittent fevers, and other disorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Africa, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence it is annually exported to the value of 600,000 crowns.

Animals.] The principal animals peculiar to Peru, are the lama, the vicuña, and the guanaco. The lama has a small head, resembling that of a horse and a sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the
part it falls on. The flesh of the lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording a fine kind of wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a burden of sixty or seventy pounds. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is smaller and swifter than the lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the vicunna is found the bezoar stone, regarded as a specific against poison. The guanaco is much larger than the lama, its wool is long and harsh; but in shape they are nearly alike.

**Natural curiosities.** Among these may be classed the volcanoes of the Andes, which, from the midst of immense heaps of snow, pour forth torrents of fiery matter and clouds of smoke. Here are streams which, in their course, cover whatever they pass over with a stony incrustation; and fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose.

**Population, character of inhabitants.** The population of Peru has never been ascertained with any degree of precision. The number of inhabitants in the principal cities has been estimated at about 200,000. The manners of the people in this country do not remarkably differ from those of the whole Spanish dominions. Pride and laziness are the two predominant passions. It is said, by the most authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other descendants of the Spaniards, according to the above distinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Castillian could not think of but with detestation. This, no doubt, in part arises from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spanish pride has made the greatest descents; and many of the first nobility are employed in commerce.

**Cities, manufactures, commerce.** We join these articles, because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru: its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro as the most proper for a city which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and, besides, it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earthquake, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 54,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima, in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, to the amount of seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged, at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleets from Europe and the East Indies land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate sale for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port-town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or complete; not more than one of three thousand inhabitants
being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable. — This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved. Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a distance from the sea, it has been long on the decline; but it is still a very considerable place, and contains above 26,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also, both here and in Quito, a particular taste for painting; and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is, like Cusco, an inland city, and, having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption throughout Peru.

Government.] Peru is under the government of a viceroy, who resides at Lima, and whose authority formerly extended over all the three districts; but that of Quito has since been detached from it. The viceroy is as absolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are so extensive, it is necessary that he should part with a share of his authority to the several audiences or courts established over the kingdom. There is a treasury court established at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

History.] For the history of Peru, see the account of the discovery and conquest of America.

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CHILI.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. | Degrees. | Sq. Miles.
---|---|---
Length 1260 | between 25 and 44 South latitude. | 206,000
Breadth 580 | 65 and 85 West longitude. | 206,000

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Peru on the north; by La Plata on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean on the west.

Divisions.

| On the west side of the | Provinces.
---|---
Andes, | Chili Proper.

Chief Towns.

| St Jago, W. long. 77. | Baldivia, Imperial.
---|---
S, lat. 34. | St John de Frontiera.

Rivers, Lakes.] The chief rivers are the Salado or Salt River, the Guasco, Coquimbo, Chiapa, Bohio, and the Baldivia, all scarcely navigable but at their mouths.

The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St Jago, and that of Parén. Besides which, they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea, part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leave...
them full of fish; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

Metals, Minerals.] Mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, quick-silver, iron, and lead, abound in this country. Vast quantities of gold are washed down from the mountains by brooks and torrents, the annual amount of which, when manufactured, is estimated at not less than eight millions of dollars.

Climate, Soil, Produce.] The climate of Chili is one of the most delightful in the world, being a medium between the intense heat of the torrid and the piercing cold of the frigid zones. The soil is extremely fertile. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this, with respect to the gifts of nature: for here, not only the tropical fruits, but all the species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection.

Animals.] The wild animals of this country are nearly the same as in Peru. The horses of Chili are in great esteem; and prodigious numbers of oxen, goats, and sheep are fattened in the luxuriant pastures of Chili, the breeding of which is almost the only species of husbandry attended to in this country. Turkeys, geese, and all kinds of poultry, are found here in the same profusion. The coasts abound with various kinds of excellent fish; there are also many whales and seals.

Population, Inhabitants.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no objects but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with regard to population. According to some accounts, the Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, not to above thrice that number. The Abbé Raynal, however, says there are 40,000 Spanish inhabitants in the city of St. Jago, in which case the aggregate number in all the provinces of Chili must be much more considerable than has generally been supposed. Other accounts estimate the population of this country at 80,000 whites, and 240,000 negroes.

Chief towns.] St. Jago, the capital, is a large and handsome town, situate on the river Mapocho, which runs through it from east to west, in the midst of an extensive and beautiful plain. Baldivia, or Valdivia, is another large town, situated between the rivers Calacalles and Portero, where they fall into the South Sea. There are several strong forts and batteries to defend the entrance of the harbour, as it is considered as the key of the South Sea.

Trade.] Chili supplies Peru with hides, dried fruits, salted meat, horses, hemp, and corn; and receives in exchange tobacco, sugar, cocoa, the manufactures of Quito, and articles of luxury brought from Europe. Paraguay receives from Chili, wine, brandy, oil, and chiefly gold; and returns, in payment, mules, wax, cotton, negroes, &c. The commerce between the two countries is not carried on by sea, it having been found more expeditious, safer, and even less expensive, to go by land, though it is 354 leagues from St. Jago to Buenos Ayres, and more than 40 leagues of the way are amid the snows and precipices of the Andes.

Government.] The seat of government is at St. Jago: the commandant there is, however, subordinate to the viceroy of Peru in all matters relating to the government, to the finances, and to war; but he is independent of him in the administration of justice, and as president of the royal audience.

History.] This country was first discovered by Diego Almagro, in 1525. He passed the Andes from Peru; and, though he had lost a great part of the soldiers who attended him in his expedition, he was received with great submission by the inhabitants of the country, who had formerly been under the dominion of the Peruvians. The Spaniards again entered Chili in 1541, under their general Baldivia, the founder of the city which bears his name. They at first met with no opposition, the people of the country being gathering in their harvest; but when that was finished they took up arms, and never laid them down for ten years. The natives have at all times bravely defended themselves against the Spanish yoke; they are still in a great degree subdued, and are engaged in frequent struggles for their independence.
PARAGUAY, OR LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
<th>Sq. Miles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length 1500</td>
<td>12 and 37 south latitude</td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breadth 1000</td>
<td>50 and 75 west longitude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Amazonia on the north; by Brasil on the east; by Patagonia on the south; and by Peru and Chili on the west.

Divisions.

East division contains:
- Paraguay Assumption
- Parana St Anne
- Guaira Ciudad Real
- Uragua Los Reyes
- Tucuman St Jago

South division.
- Rio de la Plata BUENOS AYRES, W. long. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35.

Rivers, Lakes.] This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paraguay, Uragua, and Parana, which united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

The Rio de la Plata has a course of about 1900 miles in length, but it is principally remarkable for its breadth at its mouth. It falls into the South Atlantic Ocean, between the capes St Anthony and St Mary, which are 150 miles distant from each other, and at Monte Video, a fort above 100 miles from the sea, the land of either shore cannot be seen from a vessel in the middle of the channel. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Cascaores, is 100 miles long.

Climate, Soil, Produce.] This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people in Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above-mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, not interrupted by the least hill for several hundred miles every way. The climate is in some parts extremely hot, in others temperate and pleasant. The soil is very fertile, producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcasses being given into the bargain. A horse some years ago might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price for a bullock, chosen out of the herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

First Settlement, Chief City, and Commerce.] The Spaniards first discovered this country, by sailing up the river La Plata, in 1515, and in 1535 founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, 50 leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is seven leagues broad. This is one of the most considerable towns in South America, containing above 30,000 inhabitants, and the only place of traffic to the southward of Brasil. Here we meet.
with the merchants of Europe and Peru; but no regular fleet comes here; two, or at most three, register ships, make the whole of their regular intercourse with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, consisting chiefly of the gold and silver of Chili and Peru, sugar, and hides. Those who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portuguese, who keep magazines for that purpose, in such parts of Brasil as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are so much the same with those of the rest of the Spanish colonies in South America, that nothing farther can be said on those articles.

But we cannot quit this country without saying something of that extraordinary species of commonwealth which the Jesuits erected in the interior parts, and of which these crafty priests endeavoured to keep all strangers in the dark.

About the middle of the last century, those fathers represented to the court of Spain, that their want of success in their missions was owing to the scandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their insolent behaviour caused in the Indians, wherever they came. They insinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the Gospel might, by their labours, have been extended into the most unknown parts of America; and that all those countries might be subdued to his catholic majesty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonstrance met with success; the sphere of their labours was marked out, uncontrolled liberty was given to the Jesuits within these limits, and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to suffer any Spaniards to enter this pale, without licence from the fathers. They, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to send a certain number to the king's works whenever they should be demanded, and the missions should become populous enough to supply them.

On these terms the Jesuits gladly entered upon the scene of action, and opened their spiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about fifty wandering families, whom they persuaded to settle: and they united them into a little township. This was the slight foundation upon which they built a superstructure that amazed the world, and added so much power, at the same time that it occasioned so much envy and jealousy to their society. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with such indefatigable pains, and such masterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the most savage nations, fixed the most rambling, and subdued those to their government who had long disdained to submit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portuguese. They prevailed upon thousands of various dispersed tribes to embrace their religion; and these soon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace, with precision, all the steps which were taken in the accomplishment of so extraordinary a conquest over the bodies and minds of so many people. The Jesuits left nothing undone that could confirm their subjection or increase their numbers; and it is said that above 340,000 families were subject to them; living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint; that the Indians were instructed in the military art with the most exact discipline, and could raise 60,000 men well armed; that they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exercised manufactures; some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of these missions, except their contentment under it. Some writers treat the character of these Jesuits with great severity, accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who were always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction within their jurisdiction, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possessed large property; all manufactures were theirs; the natural produce of the country was brought to them; and the treasures, annually remitted to the superior of the order, seemed to evince that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming these missions. The fathers would not permit any of the inha-
SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The island of Cuba is situate between 20 and 25 deg. north lat. and between 74 and 85 deg. west long. 100 miles to the south of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island from east to west; but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastic and aloe. It also produces tobacco, and sugar; but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is said that its exports do not equal in quantity those of our small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence; but there are several good harbours in the island which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situate and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich; and that of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of convents and churches; it was taken, however, by the courage and perseverance of the English troops in the year 1762, but restored in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havannah.

PORTO RICO.] Situate between 64 and 67 deg. west long. and in 18 deg. north lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is 100 miles long and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, valleys, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers, but the island is unhealthy in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands on a little island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

MARGARETTA.] Situate in 64 deg. west long. and 11-30 north lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra Firna, by a strait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most
agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on the coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention; we shall therefore proceed towards and round Cape Horn into the South Sea, in our way to which we arrive at the

FALKLAND or MALOUIN ISLANDS. These islands, situate between 51 and 53 deg. of south lat. and 57 and 62 deg. of west long. were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The present English name, Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps. The French call them the Malouin Isles from the people of St Malo, whom they consider as their discoverers. They have occasioned some contest between Spain and Great Britain; but being of very little worth, seem to have been silently abandoned by the latter in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the Spanish court.

The island of TIERRA DEL FUEGO, at the southern extremity of America, situate between 52 deg. 30 min. and 55 deg. 35 min. south lat. and 66 and 75 deg west long. derive its name from the volcanoes observed on it. It is a large island, containing about 42,000 square miles; the aspect of the country is dreary and uncomfortable, and the climate is as cold as that of Lapland, though the latitude is only that of the north of England. The natives are of a middle stature, with broad flat faces, high cheek bones, and flat noses; they are dressed in the skins of seals, and their only food seems to be shell fish. The isle called Staten-land is divided from Tierra del Fuego by the strait of Le Maire. Cape Horn is a promontory on another small island to the south of Tierra del Fuego.

Tierra del Fuego is separated from the mainland of South America by the Straits of Magellan. These straits were first discovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, who sailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world; but having lost his life in a skirmish with some Indians before the ships returned to Europe, the honour of being the first circumnavigator has been disputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who, in 1573, passed the same strait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616 Le Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of these straits, discovered, in lat. fifty-four and a half, another passage, since known by the name of the Straits of Le Maire; and this passage, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anson's voyage, however, from fatal experience, advises mariners to keep clear of these straits and islands, by running down to sixty-one or sixty-two deg. south lat. before they attempt to set their face westward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intense cold in those latitudes, render that passage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of summer.

Beyond Cape Horn and the Straits of Magellan, proceeding northwards in the Great South Sea, or Pacific Ocean, the first Spanish island of any importance is CHILOE, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified. It is situate between 42 and 44 deg. of south lat. and 75 and 76 west long. and about 150 miles long, and 21 broad.

JUAN FERNANDES. Lying in 83 deg. west long. and 33 south lat. 300 miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems that one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived many years, until he was discovered by captain Woodes Rogers in 1709. When taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goats' skins, would drink no-
thing but water, and it was sometime before he could relish the ship’s victuals. During his abode in this island he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught thirty years after by lord Anson’s people; their venerable aspect, and majestic beards, discovered strong symptoms of antiquity. Selkirk upon his return to England was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication; but that writer, by the help of these papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but those hints which gave rise to his own celebrated performance.

The other islands that are worth mentioning are the Gallipago Isles, situated four hundred miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the Bay of Panama, called the King’s or Pearl Islands.

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**PORTUGUESE AMERICA.**

**BRASIL.**

**SITUATION AND EXTENT.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Miles</th>
<th>Degrees</th>
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<tr>
<td>Length 2500</td>
<td>between the equator and 35 south latitude,</td>
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<tr>
<td>Breadth 700</td>
<td>35 and 60 west longitude.</td>
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**BOUNDARIES.** BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the same Ocean on the east; by the mouth of the river Plata on the south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the country of the Amazons, on the west,

**Divisions.**

Northern division contains the captain-ships of

- Para
- Marignan
- Siara
- Petagues
- Rio Grande
- Payraba
- Tamara
- Pernambuco
- Serigipe
- Bahia, or the bay of All Saints

Middle division contains the captain-ships of

- Ilheos
- Porto Seguro
- Spirito Santo
- Rio Janeiro
- St Vincent
- Del Rey

Southern division contains the captain-ships of

- St Salvador
- Paya
- Porto Seguro
- Spirito Santo
- St Sebastian
- St Vincent
- St Salvador,
On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St Barbara, and St Catharine's.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, AND RIVERS.] The name of Brasil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brasil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholsome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, refreshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceedingly pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are mountains from whence issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata; others running across the country from east to west till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar-mills belonging to the Portuguese.

POPULATION.] According to Sir George Staunton, the whole number of whites in the Brasils is about 200,000, and that of the negroes 600,000; the natives may perhaps be about a million or a million and a half.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America, by the most judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practise the most desperate crimes; of a temper hypocritical and dissimulating; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel; in their diet penurious; for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of show, state and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes shoulders, by the help of a bamboo about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour; they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains; so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down, or sit up leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtain aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them make use of a strong well made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of these, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which, being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muscovado, as we call our unrefined sugar; also tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaiba, Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dyeing, but not the red of the best kind; it has likewise some place in medicine, as a stomachic and restringent. The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered; these, with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture is neglected, and, in consequence, Brasil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico.

METALS, MINERALS.] Gold and diamond mines are found in Brasil. The former were discovered in the year 1681, and have since yielded about five millions sterling annually, of which sum a fifth belongs to the crown. The diamond mines are situate near the little river Milheverde, not far from Villa Nova do Principe. They are farmed at about 20,000l. yearly, which is thought to be scarcely a fifth of what they
BRASIL.

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actually produce. The diamonds, however, are not of so fine water as those of Hindoostan, but are of a brownish obscure hue.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES.] The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brasil on the north-east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours; as the harbours of Pernambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St Vincent, the harbour of St Gabriel, and the port of St Salvador, on the north shore of La Plata.

TRADE.] The trade of Brasil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, whence they import between forty and fifty thousand negroes annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brasil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000l. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides, and the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities that European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal; they consist of woollen goods of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the linen and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt-fish, beef, flour, and cheese; oil they have from Spain; wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal. England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption and what they want for the use of the Brasils.

Brasil is a very wealthy and flourishing settlement. The export of sugar within forty years is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. The tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in the United States. The northern and southern parts of Brasil abound with horned cattle: these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than twenty thousand are sent annually to Europe.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The capital of Brasil is St Salvador, frequently called Bahia, where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake, forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly, so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and it has very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in all Brasil.

St Sebastian, more usually called Rio de Janeiro, from the name of the province, is situate on a spacious and commodious bay: it is a rich and populous city, containing, it is said, 200,000 inhabitants. On the south side of a spacious square is the palace of the viceroy, and there are several other squares, in which are fountains supplied with water by an aqueduct of considerable length brought over vallies by a double row of arches. In an island in the harbour, called Serpent island, is a dock-yard, magazines, and naval store-houses.

REVENUE.] The revenue arising to the crown of Portugal from this colony, amounts, according to some writers, to two millions sterling in gold, besides the duties and customs on merchandise imported from the country. This, indeed, is more than a fifth of the precious metal produced by the mines; but every consequent advantage considered, it probably does not much exceed the truth.

GOVERNMENT.] Brasil is now divided into nine governments, each of which has its particular chief. Of these the governor of Rio Janeiro alone has the style of viceroy. They are appointed for three years, which term is prolonged at pleasure. Each district has a particular judge, from whose decision there lies an appeal to the superior tribunals of Rio Janeiro or Lisbon.
RELIGION.] The religion of Portugal, or the Roman catholic, is established here. Six bishoprics have been successively founded under the archbishopric of Bahia, or St Salvador, which see was established in 1552.

HISTORY.] This country was first discovered by Amerigo Vespuccio, in 1498; but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the Bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata; which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which generally decide the fate of kingdoms. Don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa; and by that event the Portuguese lost their independence, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and being not satisfied with supporting their independence by a successful defensive war, but flushed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brasil, where they took seven of the captain-ships, or provinces; and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brasil; but their West India Company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold to relinquish their interest in that country; which was accepted; and the Portuguese have remained in peaceable possession of all Brasil from that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress called St Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace of the following year, it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

The possessions of the French on the continent of America are at present inconsiderable. They were masters of Canada and Louisiana; but they have now lost all footing in North America; though in the southern continent they have still a settlement, which is called

CAYENNE, OR EQUINOXIAL FRANCE.

It is situate between the Equator and 5th degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of west longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and nearly 300 miles within land; it is bounded by Surinam, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, east; by Amazonia, south; and by Guiana, west. The chief town is Caen. All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements: the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West-India islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circum-
The French were among the last nations who made settlements in the West Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

St Domingo, or Hispaniola.] This island was at first possessed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the most considerable part has been long in the hands of the French, to whom the Spanish part was likewise ceded by the treaty of peace between the two nations in 1795. It must now, therefore, be considered as a French island.

It is situated between the 17th and 21st degree north lat., and the 67th and 74th degree of west long., lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is 450 miles long and 150 broad. When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at least a million. But such was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to so infamous a height did they carry their oppression of the poor natives, that they were reduced to sixty thousand in the space of fifteen years. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and rivers; and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks they discovered formerly silver and gold; the mines, however, are not now worked. The north-west parts, which were in the possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance: this indeed is the best and most fruitful part of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The population of this island was estimated, in 1788, at 27,717 white people; 21,508 free people of colour; and 405,638 slaves. Its trade employed 580 large ships, carrying 189,679 tons, in which the imports amounted to twelve millions of dollars, of which more than eight millions were in manufactured goods of France, and the other four millions in French produce. The Spanish ships exported, in French goods or money 1,400,000 dollars, for mules, imported by them into the colony; ninety-eight French ships, carrying 40,130 tons, imported 26,506 negroes, who sold for eight millions of dollars.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole island is named, especially by the French. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Mestizos, and Negroses.

The French towns are, Cape Francois, the capital, which is neither walled nor paled in, and is said to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. Before its destruction in 1793, it contained about 8000 inhabitants, whites, people of colour, and slaves. It was the governor's residence in time of war, as Port-au-Prince was in time of peace. The Mole, though inferior to these in other respects, is the first port in the island for safety in time of war, being by nature and art strongly fortified. The other towns and ports of any note are, Fort Dauphin, St Mark, Leogane, Petit Goave, Jeremie, Les Cayes, St Louis, and Jacmel.

Since the French revolution, in consequence of some injudicious decrees of the National Assembly of France, this island has been a scene of confusion and bloodshed. In the night between the 22d and 23d of August 1791, a most alarming insurrection.
of the negroes began on the French plantations upon this island, and a scene of the most horrid cruelties ensued. In a little time no less than 100,000 negroes were in rebellion, and all the manufactories and plantations of more than half the northern province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains were filled with carnage, and deluged with blood. The negroes who were slaves were emancipated from their chains, and trained to arms, which they never afterwards laid down. An African by birth, who had received the French name of Toussaint l’Ouverture, was afterwards invested with the chief command of the negroes and mulattoes. He appears to have been a man of considerable ability, and to have exercised his authority in many instances with prudence and moderation. When, however, the peace of Amiens had set at liberty the French fleets, Bonaparte sent out an expedition to reduce Toussaint to dependence upon France, and restore order in the colony. Le Clerc, who had married Bonaparte’s sister, commanded the expedition, which consisted of 40,000 veteran troops. This sanguinary monster, bred in the Parisian school of assassination, soon equalled his master in deeds of unexampled cruelty. After several encounters, in which the negro chief, unable to resist the regular forces of France, was almost constantly defeated, Toussaint was induced to submit, and accept of apparently favourable terms. But the French, soon after, most perfidiously seized on him, under a charge, probably without foundation, of treacherous practices, and sent him in irons to France, where he perished in a dungeon. The other black chiefs who had submitted with him, Christophe and Dessalines, saved themselves by flight; the negroes and mulattoes again flew to arms, and the French troops rapidly fell victims to the climate and the enemy. The result of this contest has been noticed in our history of France, p. 403. Dessalines succeeded to the authority of Toussaint, and, following the example set him in Europe, caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor of Hayti!* by the title of Jaques I. This chief having been guilty of many unjustifiable acts of cruelty against his former associates, a conspiracy was entered into by his principal officers, to which he fell a sacrifice in 1806, and Christophe was raised to the chief command in this black empire.

As the emancipation of the negroes of St Domingo, and the establishment of a free republic of Blacks in the heart of our West-Indian islands, is one of the most extraordinary phenomena of the present age, pregnant as it is with wonderful events, we shall add some able reflections on this subject, extracted from an ingenious work of a similar nature with our own, recently published †.

"The mad attempt of the present ruler of France, to reduce the black inhabitants of St Domingo, both in its original conception, and in the means of its accomplishment, was dictated by the most ferocious cruelty, and by the most palpable defect of political wisdom. To propose to 100,000 men in arms, boiling with the recollection of past indignities, breathing high with the sentiments of emancipation and freedom, and possessing many eminent advantages for self-defence—to propose to such a people the horrible alternative of slavery or extermination; marks, not only a depravity of heart and principle, which must brand any character with infamy, but also the most consummate ignorance of the nature of man. The conduct of Bonaparte in this instance was the more criminal, and the more impolitic, as Providence seems, in the person of Toussaint Louverture, to have raised up a man qualified and disposed to repair the follies of the early revolutionists of France, and to heal the dreadful wounds which their misconduct had inflicted. Had the First Consul possessed the smallest particle of generous sentiment, or even of political sagacity, he would have courted the truly illustrious Black; and, instead of driving him by force into opposition, and afterwards deceiving and murdering him, he would have employed his talents and his influence to render the liberty of the blacks consistent with the safety of the whites, as well as with the interests of good government, and of the human race.

"This important object, for the attainment of which Toussaint seems to have been eminently well fitted, and extremely well disposed, has now been lost; and however much the loss is to be regretted, and the circumstances by which it was incurred are to be held in abhorrence, their effects can never be repaired. The folly and cruelty of

* The ancient native name of the island. † Ross’s Geography, p. 758.—757.
Bonaparte have established for ever the empire of the blacks in the West Indies, and in a way peculiarly dangerous. Yet, with all this consequence in view, no feeling mind, no wise politician, could have wished success to the arms of France during the progress of the contest; nor can we wonder at the subsequent cruelties of the blacks, when we reflect on the still more shocking barbarities of Le Clerc and Rochambeau.

"But though the mad conduct of the French revolutionists has rendered the emancipation of the slaves in St Domingo so calamitous to the mother country, and to that island, we are not from thence to infer the impolicy or injustice of abolishing the slave-trade, and emancipating persons who are already slaves, as a general principle; nor to conclude that such emancipation and abolition must be attended with disastrous consequences in every concurrence of circumstances, and in whatever mode it is effected. Such a conclusion the premises do not admit by any fair and logical deduction; while the nature of the trade, the present enlightened state of the world, and, above all, the mild and merciful spirit of the gospel, must lead to very different sentiments on the subject.

"Among wise and good men, of whatever denomination or profession, who are not biased by private interest or early prejudice, there cannot exist two opinions concerning the odious nature, and pernicious influence, of that inhuman traffic, concerning the enormous complication of crimes of which it is the cause, and the tremendous cry of vengeance which ascends to heaven from the blood of millions of the human race, who are annually immolated at its shrine. None but a public enemy of the human race can defend a system of cruelty and horror which has no example in the annals of the world, and the tendency of which is the complete extermination of the species. No political considerations can justify a practice which shocks the finest feelings of our nature, which destroys every idea of moral obligation, which violates every social affection, which tears asunder every bond by which man is endeared to his brother, and makes one part of the species a prey to the unbounded rapacity and avarice of the other. Happily, however, for the cause of suffering humanity, its demands in the present instance, and in so far as Great Britain is concerned, seem to be in perfect union with the best interests of the state; for they must have but little political penetration who do not perceive, that the present state of St Domingo renders a speedy abolition of the slave-trade a matter of the highest national expediency.

"But though the calls of humanity, of justice, of religion, and of political necessity, unite in one voice to demand a speedy and complete termination to that execrable traffic, it must, at the same time, be remembered, that the mode of accomplishing this object, in a consistency with the general happiness of the subjects, both white and black, involves a question of most difficult, and most serious solution. With this subject the British Parliament has been occupied for several years past; and perhaps a subject of a more delicate nature, involving a greater variety of jarring interests and opinions, and fraught with more important and awful consequences, has never been deliberated upon by that august assembly. No wonder that it has not yet been finally discussed. The conduct of the French nation, with its dreadful effects, presents an awful warning against the rash measures of fanaticism and ignorance; the interested motives of some among ourselves, and the temperate prudence of others, operate as salutary checks upon the otherwise uncautious steps of well-meaning humanity; but the generous spirit, the religious principle, and the justice, as well as the most precious interests of the nation, are unanimous and loud in urging the most prudent plan for the relief of our sable brethren; and these must finally prevail.

"During the progress of the discussion, however, let not the intemperate clamours of the friends of humanity, either real or pretended, presume to interfere with the grave deliberations of experience and wisdom; far less let the unhallowed arm of fanaticism be raised, to plunge this nation into the same vortex of distress which has swallowed up for ever the colonial interests of France; and, on the other hand, let the most strenuous opposers of the slave-trade remember, that if they refuse to listen to the salutary counsels of wisdom, they may one day sink under the overwhelming efforts of violence."

MARTINICO, which is situated between 14 and 15 degrees of north latitude, and in 61 degrees west longitude, lying about 40 leagues north-west of Barbadoes, is about
AMERICA.

60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, on every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West-India islands, the principal commodity, of which a considerable quantity is exported annually. Martinico was the residence of the governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious, and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to the English, who, in vain, often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, when the British arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this island was added to the British empire; but it was given back at the treaty of peace. It was again taken by the English in 1794, but restored by the treaty of Amiens.

GUADALOUPE, so called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situate in 16 degrees north latitude, and in 62 west longitude, about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and about as much south of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 58 broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759 it was reduced by the English arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763. It was again reduced by the English in 1794, but evacuated a few months after.

St LUCIA, situate in 14 degrees north latitude, and in 61 degrees west longitude, 80 miles north-west of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St Lucia. The English first settled on this island in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island, together with Dominica and St Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to settle these islands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St Lucia, in the valleys, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers, and well situated harbours; and is now declared a free port, under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1775; but it was restored again to the French in 1783. It was taken by the English in 1794, surrendered again to the French in 1795, and recaptured by Great Britain in 1796; it was restored by the treaty of Amiens, but retaken soon after the recommencement of hostilities in 1803.

Tobago.) This island is situate in 11 degrees north latitude, 120 miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish main. It is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West-India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kinds of shipping. The value and importance of this island appear from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers, in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763 it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June 1791 it was taken by the French, and was ceded to them by the treaty of 1782. In 1793 it was again captured by the British arms, but restored by the late peace.

St BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, and MARIGALANTE, are three small islands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St Christopher's, and of no great
consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our West-India trade. The former was given to Sweden in 1785.

The small islands of St Pierre and Miquelon, situated near Newfoundland, have been already mentioned in our account of that island.

DUTCH AMERICA.

SURINAM, on the Continent of South America.

AFTER the Portuguese had dispossessed the Dutch of Brasil, in the manner we have seen, and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to console themselves with their rich possessions in the East Indies, and to sit down content in the West with Surinam; a country once in the possession of England, but of no great value whilst we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; with two or three small and barren islands in the north sea, not far from the Spanish main.

Dutch Guiana is situate between five and seven degrees north latitude, extending 100 miles along the coast, from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, south. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholesome; and a considerable part of the coast is low, and covered with water. The chief settlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the same name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations thirty leagues above the mouth of this river. This was one of the richest and most valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a less prosperous situation than it was some years since, owing, among other causes, to the wars with the fugitive negroes, whom the Dutch treated with great barbarity, and who are become so numerous, having increased from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almost inaccessible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copenam, and are become very formidable enemies to their former masters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themselves, they have cultivated lands for their subsistence, and make frequent incursions into the neighbouring plantations. The chief trade of Surinam consists in sugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, skins, and some valuable dyeing drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring thither horses, live cattle, and provisions, and take home a large quantity of molasses. Surinam was taken by the English in August 1799, but restored by the treaty of Amiens. In May 1804 it was retaken.

Connected with Surinam, we shall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Issequibo on the Spanish main, which surrendered to the English in the year 1781, and were represented as a very valuable acquisition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the British West India islands united. But the report was either not believed or slighted; for the colonies were left defenceless, and soon were retaken by a French frigate. In the present war, however, they again surrendered to the British arms, April 21, 1796. They were restored by the treaty of Amiens, but since the renewal of the war they have been retaken.

Dr Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish-brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people has likewise generated several intermediate casts, whose colours immutably depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, Indians, or negroes. These are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with several intermediate subdivisions, proceeding from their retrograde intercourse. There
are so great a number of birds, of various species, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that several persons in this colony have employed themselves advantageously, with their slaves and dependents, in killing and preserving birds for the cabinets of naturalists in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, silver, copper, or by a stick of some particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a shock perfectly resembling that of electricity. There are an immense number and variety of snakes in this country, which form one of its principal inconveniences. A snake was killed some years since, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, Esq, which was upwards of thirty three feet in length, and in the largest place near the middle three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a small amphibious creature, about the size of a pig four months old, covered with fine short hair: and its flesh, by the Europeans who reside here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA.] Situate in 17° 29' N. lat, 63° 10' W. long, and 3 leagues north-west of St Christopher's, is only a mountain, about 29 miles in compass, rising out of the sea like a pyramid, and almost round. But though so small, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch has made it to turn to very good account, and it is said to contain 5000 whites and 15,000 negroes. The sides of the mountain are disposed in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not so well situate; and it has drawn the same advantage from its constant neutrality. The Dutch first took possession of this island in the year 1635.

CURASSOU, OR CURACAO.] Situate in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should everywhere, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for this island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America. Yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and by far one of the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kinds of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock. Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar; it has, besides, good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war. This island was taken by the British on the 1st of January 1807.

The other islands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The small islands of Saba and St Martin's, situate at no great distance from St Eustatia, are of very little importance.
DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

St. Thomas.] An inconsiderable island of the Caribbees, is situate in 64 degrees west long. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

St. Croix, or Santa Cruz.] Another small and unhealthy island, lying about five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West India company, were ill managed, and of little consequence to the Danes: but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of St. Thomas has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of 3000 hogsheads of sugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the West India commodities in tolerably plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale: and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish main, and return with money, in specie or bars, and valuable merchandise. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to thrive very fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of very great wealth, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement. These islands were taken by the English in 1801, during the short war between England and Denmark on account of the Convention of Neutrality, but restored a few months afterwards when that dispute was adjusted.

ISLANDS OF THE SOUTH SEA, AND LATE DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been considerably augmented by many late discoveries, and especially by those that have been made by British navigators in the present reign, which have been numerous and important. Of these discoveries we shall here give a compendious account.

OTAHEITE, OR KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS island was discovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin*, on the 19th of

* The Dolphin was sent out under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expence of the British government, in August, 1766, in order to make discoveries in the southern hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together, till they came within sight of the South Sea, at the western entrance of the Strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June, 1767, captain Wallis discovered an island, about four miles long and three wide, to which he gave the name of Whitsun-Island, it being discovered on Whitsun-eve. Its latitude is 19° 28' S. and its longitude 187° 50' W. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of Queen Charlotte's Island. The inhabitants of this island, captain

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June 1767. It is situate between the 17th degree 28 min. and the 17th degree 53 min. south latitude, and between the 149th degree 11 min. and 149th degree 39 min. west longitude. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary; for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the sea is in few places more than a mile and a half broad; and this, together with some of the valleys, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made some stay at this island; and it was afterwards visited again by captain Cook, in the Endeavour, in April 1769. That commander was accompanied by Joseph Banks, Esq. now Sir Joseph Banks, and Dr Solander; and these gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate survey of the island.

Some parts of the island of Otaheite are very populous; and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole island amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior size, but handsome and very amorous. Their clothing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houses, those which are of a middling size, are of an oblong square, about twenty-four feet long, and eleven wide, with a shelving roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The utmost height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being inclosed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats, upon which they sit in the day, and sleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and those they use are made of stones, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running water three times a day.

Wallis says, were of a middle stature, dark complexion, and long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19° 16' S. longitude, 136° 48' W. In the space of a few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of Egmont Island, Gloucester Island, Cumberland Island, Prince William Henry's Island, and Osnaburgh Island.

On the 10th of the same month he discovered the island of Otaheite; and after he had quitted that island, he discovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another island about six miles long, which he called Sir Charles Saunders's Island; and on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long and four broad, which he called Lord Howe's Island. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named Wallis's Island, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November; at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February 1768; and his ship anchored safely in the Downs on the 29th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he parted with captain Wallis in the Dolphin, having passed through the Strait of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of Mascarenos, discovered, on the 26 of July 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of Pitcairn's Island. It lies in latitude 25° 17' S. longitude 133° 21' W. and about a thousand leagues to the westward of the continent of America. The 11th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of the Bishop of Osnaburgh's Island. The next day he discovered two other small islands, which he called the Duke of Gloucester's Islands. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of Queen Charlotte's Islands, and also three others, which he named Gower's Island, Simpson's Island, and Carteret's Island. On the 24th of the same month he discovered Sir Charles Hardy's Island, which lies in latitude 40° 50' S. and the next day, Winchelsea's Island, which is distant about ten leagues in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards discovered several other islands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March 1769.
Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels. There were no tame animals upon the island but hogs, dogs, and poultry; but the English and Spaniards have since carried thither bulls, cows, sheep, goats, a horse and mare, geese, ducks, peacocks, turkeys, and also cats. The only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, and a few other birds; rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a very great variety of the most excellent fish.

In other countries the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length; but here the women always cut it short round their ears, and the men (except the fishers, who are almost continually in the water) suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the custom of discollouring the skin, by pricking it with a small instrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattooing. This is performed upon the youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different kinds of trees. The finest and whitest is made of the Chinese paper-mulberry-tree, and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer, and in every respect better, than any we have in Europe. The coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer, to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker-work; their baskets are of a thousand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one supreme Deity; but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate Deities; they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made upon the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hardy heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations.

SOCIETY ISLANDS.

Of the several islands so called, and which were discovered by captain Cook* in the year 1769, the principal are Huaheine, Ulietea, Otaia, and Bolabola.

* At the close of the year 1767, it was resolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to send persons into some parts of the South Sea, to observe a transit of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk, which, according to astronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: and that the islands called Marquesas de Mendoza, or those of Rotterdam or Amsterdam, were the properest places then known for making such observations. In consequence of these resolutions, it was recommended to his Majesty, in a memorial from the Society, dated February 1768, that he would be pleased to order such an observation to be made; upon which his Majesty signified to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty his pleasure that a ship should be provided to carry such observers as the society should think fit, to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark, of three hundred and seventy tons, was prepared for that purpose. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was soon after, by the Royal Society, appointed, with Mr Charles Green, a gentleman who had long been assistant to Dr Bradley at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, to observe the transit. But while this vessel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for Astronomical observation, he, by letter, dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May 1768, the day before he landed at Hastings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the island of Otaheite: The Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in answer to an application from the Admiralty, to be in
formed whether they would have their observers sent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook set sail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of August, 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, Esq. and Dr Solander. They made no discovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Island, Two Groups, Bird Island, and Chain Island; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April 1769. During their stay at that island, they had the opportunity of making very accurate enquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants, and, on the 4th of June, the whole passage of the planet Venus over the Sun’s disk was observed by them with great advantage. The result of their observations may be found in the Philosophical Transactions. After his departure from Otaheite, Captain Cook discovered and visited the Society Islands and Oteroron, and thence proceeded to the south till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees 22 minutes longitude, 141 degrees 29 minutes W. and afterwards made an accurate survey of the coast of New Zealand. In November he discovered a chain of islands, which he called Barrier Islands. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and in September, 1770, arrived at the island of Savu, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June, 1771.

Soon after captain Cook’s return home in the Endeavour, it was resolved to equip two ships, in order to make farther discoveries in the Southern hemisphere. Accordingly the Resolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpose; the first was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They sailed from Plymouth Sound on the 18th of July, 1772; and on the 9th of the same month arrived at the island of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February, 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having sought in vain for a southern continent. In that month the Resolution and the Adventure separated, in consequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte’s Sound, on the 15th of May following. In August they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they discovered Harvey’s Island. On the second of October they came to Midleburgh, one of the Friendly Islands; and about the close of that month the Resolution and the Adventure were separated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Resolution, in order to make discoveries in the southern polar regions, but was stopped in his progress by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes south; longitude 100 degrees 54 minutes west. He then proceeded to Easter Island, where he arrived in March 1774, as he did also in the same month at the Marquesas Islands. He afterwards discovered four islands, which he named Palliser’s islands; and again steered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made some stay, and also visited the neighbouring isles. In August he came to the New Hebrides, some of which were first discovered by him. After leaving these islands, he steered to the southward a few days, and discovered New Caledonia. Having surveyed the south-west coast of this island, captain Cook steered again for New Zealand, in order to refresh his crew, and put his ship into a condition to encounter the danger attending the navigation in the high southern latitudes. Directing his course to the south and east, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees 6 minutes south, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes west, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of discovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a resolution to steer directly for the west entrance of the Straits of Magellan, with a view of coasting and surveying the extreme south or south side of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 53 or 54, and steering nearly east, he arrived off the western mouth of the Straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in his new route. In January, 1775, he discovered a large and dreary island, to which he gave the name of South Georgia. He afterwards discovered various capes and elevated snow-clad coasts, to the most southern part of which he gave the name of the Southern Thule, as being the nearest land to that pole which has yet been discovered. In February he discovered Sandwich Land, and several islands covered with snow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England in the Adventure a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope without making any remarkable discovery. Ten of his men, a boat’s crew, had been murdered and eaten by some of the savages of New Zealand; so that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exist; and, indeed, in the course of these voyages of discovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the course of his voyage in the Resolution, he had made the circuit of the southern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traversed it in such a manner, as to leave not the least room for the possibility of there being a southern continent, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deserves also to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, captain Cook, that, with a company of a hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from forty-two degrees north to seventy-one degrees south, with the loss of only one man by sickness; and this appears, in a considerable degree, to have arisen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preserving the health of his men.
said, if they were to attempt it the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than those of Otaheite, and both sexes appear less timid and less curious; though in their dress, language, and almost every other circumstance, they are the same. Their houses are neat, and they have boat-houses that are remarkably large. Ulitea is about seven or eight leagues to the south-westward of Huahine, and is a much larger island, but appeared neither so fertile nor so populous. The principal refreshments to be procurable here are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls; but the two last are rather scarce. Otahe is divided from Ulitea by a strait, that in the narrowest part is not above two miles broad. This island affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the same kind as that of the other islands. About four leagues to the north-west of Otahe lies Bolabolola, which is surrounded by a reef of rocks and several small islands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compass. To these islands, and those of Ma rua, which lie about fourteen miles to the westward of Bolabolola, containing six in all, Captain Cook gave the name of Society Islands.

THE NAVIGATORS ISLANDS.

THESE islands, which were discovered by M. De Bougainville, and explored by the unfortunate De la Pérouse, in 1787, are ten in number, and called by the natives Opoun, Leone, Fanfoué, Maouna, Oyolava, Calimasse, Pola, Shika, Ossamo, and Ouera. Opoun, the most southerly as well as the most easterly of these islands, lies in 14° 7" south latitude, and 169° 7" west longitude. At Maouna, M. de la Pérouse, commander of the French ships the Boussole and Astrolabe, met with his first fatal accident: M. de Langle, captain of the Astrolabe, and eleven officers and sailors, being massacred by the natives. Oyolava is separated from Maouna by a channel about nine leagues wide, and is at least equal to Otaheite in extent, fertility, and population. The island of Pola is somewhat smaller than that of Oyolava, but equally beautiful. The eastern islands, were Opoun, Leone, and Fanfoué, are small, especially the last two, which are only about five miles in circumference; but Maouna, Oyolava, and Pola, may be numbered amongst the largest and most beautiful islands of the South Sea. They combine the advantages of a soil fruitful without culture, and a climate that renders clothing unnecessary. They produce in abundance the bread-fruit, cocoa-nut, the banana, the guava, and the orange. The inhabitants are a strong and handsome race of men. Their usual height is five feet ten or eleven inches, and six feet; but their stature is less astonishing than the colossal proportions of the different parts of their bodies. The men have the body painted or tattooed, so that any one would suppose them clothed, though they go almost naked. They have only a girdle of sea-weeds, encircling their loins, which comes down to their knees, and gives them the appearance of the river gods of mythology. Their hair is very long, and they often twist it round their heads, and thus add to their native ferocity of countenance, which always expresses either surprise or anger. The stature of the women is proportional to that of the men. They are tall, slender, and not without grace, though in general disgusting from their gross effrontery and indecency. The inhabitants of these islands cultivate several arts with success. Their houses have even a kind of elegance, and they finish their work very neatly, with tools made of a very fine and compact species of basaltes, in the form of an adze. They manufacture very fine mats, and some paper-stuffs. They are almost continually on the water, and do not go so much as from one village to another on foot, but perform all their journeys in canoes; on which account M. de Bougainville called these islands the Navigators Islands. Their villages are all situate in creeks by the sea-side, and have no paths from one to the other. In their disposition they appear to be thievish, treacherous, and ferocious.
OHETEROA.

THIS island is situate in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. south, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. west from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither so populous nor so fertile as some of the other islands in these seas. The inhabitants are lusty and well made, but are rather browners than those of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa wood, which is very hard, and some of them are nearly twenty feet long.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

These islands were so named by captain Cook, in the year 1773, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers. Abel Jansen Tasman, an eminent Dutch navigator, first touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal islands. Captain Cook laboriously explored the whole cluster, which he found to consist of more than sixty. The three islands which Tasman saw, he named New Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg. The first is the largest, and extends about twenty-one miles from east to west, and about thirteen from north to south. These islands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great industry. The island of Amsterdam is intersected by straight and pleasant roads, with fruit trees on each side, which afford shade from the scorching heat of the sun.

The principal of these islands are, Tongataboo, or Amsterdam; Eacowe, or Middleburg; Annamooka, or Rotterdam; Hapee, and Lefooga. The first, which is the largest, lies in 21° 9' south latitude, and 174° 46' west longitude. Eacowe, when viewed from the ship at anchor, formed one of the most beautiful prospects in nature, and very different from others of the Friendly Isles; which, being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here the land, rising gently to a considerable height, presented an extensive prospect, with groves of trees interspersed at irregular distances, in beautiful disorder; the rest is covered with grass, except near the shores, which are entirely covered with fruit and other trees; amongst which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the island as possible, captain Cook and some of his officers walked up to the highest point of it. From this place they had a view of almost the whole island, which consisted of beautiful meadows, of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was surveying this delightful prospect," says captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myself with the pleasing idea, that some future navigator may, from the same station, behold these meadows stocked with cattle, brought to these islands by the ships of England; and that the completion of this single benevolent purpose, independent of all other considerations, would sufficiently mark to posterity that our voyages had not been useless to the general interests of humanity."

NEW ZEALAND.

This country was first discovered by Tasman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally distinguished
in our maps and charts by the name of New Zealand, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent; but it is now known, from the late discoveries of captain Cook, who sailed round it, to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait four or five leagues broad. They are situate between the latitudes of 34 and 43 degrees south, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees east from Greenwich. One of these islands is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joseph Banks and Dr Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flourish here in the utmost luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is supposed that the winters are milder than those in England, and the summers not hotter, though more equally warm: so that it is imagined, that if this country were settled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate industry, be soon supplied not only with the necessaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been described by naturalists. The inhabitants of New Zealand are stout and robust, and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been exposed to the sun, and in many not so deep; and both sexes have good features. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark or tattoo their bodies in a manner similar to the inhabitants of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally shown themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them.

**THE NEW HEBRIDES.**

THIS name was given by captain Cook to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named Terra del Espiritu Santo. From that time until captain Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called Terræ Australis Incognitæ. But when captain Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, discovered several in the group which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 29 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. south; and between 166 deg. 41 min. and 170 deg. 21 min. east long. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Terra del Espiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Appec, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Ironman, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies New Caledonia, a very large island, first discovered by captain Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth does not any where exceed ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chestnut brown. A few leagues distant, are two small islands, called the Island of Pines, and Botany Island.

**THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.**

THOSE islands were first discovered by Quiros in 1595: their situation was better ascertained by captain Cook in 1774. They are five in number, and named St Christ
SOUTH SEA ISLANDS.

The existence and situation of these islands were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period; but from a report among the neighbouring islands, of their being inhabited by a savage race of canibals, it appears that there never had been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope packet (belonging to the East-India Company) was wrecked on one of them, in August 1783. From the accounts given of these islands, by captain Wilson, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are situate between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction. They are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce sugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges, and lemons; and the surrounding seas abound with the finest and greatest variety of fish.

The natives of these islands are a stout, well-made people, above the middle stature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa-nut dyed with different shades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is absolute, but his power is exercised more with the mildness of a father than a sovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occasionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or chiefs, and confers a singular honour of knighthood, called the Order of the Bone, the members of which are distinguished by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea which the account published by captain Wilson gives us of these islanders, is that of a people who, though naturally ignorant of the arts and sciences, and living in the simplest state of nature, yet possess all that genuine politeness, that delicacy, and chastity of intercourse between the sexes, that respect for personal property, that subordination to government, and those habits of industry, which are so rarely united in the more civilised societies of modern times.

It appears that when the English were thrown on one of these islands, they were received by the natives with the greatest humanity and hospitality; and, till their departure, experienced the utmost courtesy and attention. "They felt our people were distressed, and in consequence wished they should share whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence that bestows and spreads its favours with a distant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of man to man. It was a scene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring; and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart."

THE PELEW ISLANDS.

NEW GUINEA,

Till the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but Captain Cook discovered a strait between them, which runs north-east, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long
narrow island, extending north-east from the second degree of south latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees east longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and valleys, interspersed with groves of cocoanut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and most of the trees, shrubs, and plants, that are found on the other South Sea islands. It affords from the sea a variety of delightful prospects. The inhabitants make nearly the same appearance as the New Hollanders on the other side of the straits.

To the north of New Guinea is New Britain, which is situate in the fourth degree of south latitude, and one hundred and fifty-two deg. nineteen min. east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent, till captain Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Captain Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found it was of much less extent than it was till then imagined to be, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of New Britain, and in both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoanut trees.

**New Ireland** extends in length, from the north-east to the south-west, about two hundred and seventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolly-headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noses and thick lips. North-westward of New Ireland, a cluster of islands was seen by captain Carteret, lying very near each other, and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of very considerable extent, was named New Hanover; the rest of the cluster received the name of the Admiralty Islands.

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**NEW HOLLAND,**

The largest island in the world, and formerly supposed to be a part of that imaginary continent, called Terra Australis Incognita, lies between 10 deg. 30 min. and 43 deg. south latitude, and between 110 and 153 deg. 30 min. east longitude; equalling in extent the whole continent of Europe, the eastern coast running not less than 2000 miles in length from north-east to south-west. Its dimensions from east to west have not been so exactly ascertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who visited this part of the world at a time when the method of making observations, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, was less accurate that it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of the discoverers, as Van Diemen's Land*, Carpentaria, &c. and though the general appellation of the whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and west parts of the country. The eastern part, called New South Wales, was taken possession of in his Majesty's name by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the British dominions, a colony having been formed there, chiefly of the convicts sentenced to transportation.

The accounts of the climate and soil of this extensive country, now become an object of importance to Great Britain, are very various: different parts have been explored at

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* This has lately been discovered to be an island 100 miles long and 50 broad, separated from New Holland by a channel 30 leagues wide.
different times, and at different seasons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the sea-coast, the only place on which any inhabitants have been discovered, appears to be sandy and barren; and as for the inland parts, which might reasonably be supposed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural sterility of the soil, or the barbarity of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet discovered.

That celebrated navigator, captain Cook, spent upwards of four months in surveying the eastern coast, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of undescribed plants found on the shore, was called Botany Bay, and is the place for which the convicts were originally destined; though now they are settled in another part of the island, about fifteen miles to the northward, named, by captain Cook, Port Jackson, the principal settlement being called Sydney Cove.

This was not visited or explored by captain Cook; it was seen at the distance of between two and three miles from the coast; but, had fortune conducted him into the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention, as a seaman, than Botany Bay, where he passed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackson gradually extends into a noble and capacious bason, having sounding sufficient for the largest vessels, and space to accommodate, in perfect security, any number that could be assembled. It runs chiefly in a western direction, about thirteen miles into the country, and contains no less than an hundred small coves formed by narrow necks of land, whose projections afford shelter from the winds.

Sydney Cove lies on the south side of the harbour, between five and six miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is mostly covered with wood, yet is so rocky, that it is not easy to comprehend how the trees could have found sufficient nourishment to bring them to so considerable a magnitude. The soil, in other parts of the coast, immediately about Port Jackson, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the south end of the harbour from the sea, is chiefly sand. Between Sydney Cove and Botany Bay the first space is occupied by a wood, in some parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that, is a kind of heath, poor, sandy, and full of swamps; but as far as the eye can reach to the westward, the country is one continued wood.

The climate at Sydney Cove is considered, on the whole, as equal to the finest in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are seldom any fogs. The soil, though in general light and rather sandy in this part, is full as good as usually is found so near the sea-side. All the plants and fruit trees brought from Brasil and the Cape, which were not damaged in the passage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful, both the European sorts, and such as are peculiar to New South Wales.

The natives of New Holland, in general, seem to have no great aversion to the new settlers; the only acts of hostility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fishing-grounds which the New Hollanders justly supposed to belong to themselves. They appear, however, to be in too savage a state to be capable as yet of deriving any instruction from their new neighbours. They are so ignorant of agriculture, that it seems most probable they do not even know the use of corn, and therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, set fire to that which the colonists had raised for their own use. They are of a low stature and ill made: their noses are flat, their nostrils wide, their eyes sunk, their eye-brows and lips thick, with a mouth of prodigious width, but the teeth white and even. Both sexes go entirely naked, and seem to have no more shame in discovering the whole body than we have in discovering our hands and face. They however have their ornaments: they paint themselves with various colours; and some of them perforate the cartilage of the nose, and thrust a large bone or reed through it, which captain Cook's sailors humorously called their sprit-sail-yard. Most of the men want one of the fore-teeth in the upper jaw; and it is common for the women to cut off two joints of the little finger. They are extremely superstitious, but active, vigorous, and display great personal bravery on the appearance of danger.

For a more particular account of this new settlement, we refer our readers to the
Voyage of Governor Philip to Botany Bay; and Collins’s History of the Colony of New South Wales.

**SANDWICH ISLANDS.**

BESIDES the voyages of discovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by captain Cook and captain Clerke in the Resolution and Discovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north-west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In their course they discovered two islands which captain Cook called Prince Edward’s Isles. The largest, about 15 leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46-53 south; long 37-46; the other, about nine leagues in circuit, lat 46-40, and long. 38-8, east, both barren, and almost covered with snow. From New Holland they sailed to New Zealand, and afterwards they visited the Friendly and the Society Isles. In January, 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Isles, which are twelve in number, and are situate between 22 deg. 15 min. and 18 deg. 53 min. north lat. The air of these islands is in general salubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the same with those of the Society and Friendly Isles. The inhabitants are of a middle size, stout, and well made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44 deg. 33 min. north, and long. 235 deg. 36 min. east, they saw part of the American continent, bearing north-east. They afterwards discovered King George’s Sound, which is situate on the north-west coast of America, and is extensive: that part of it where the ships under the command of captain Cook anchored, is in lat. 49 deg. 36 min. north, and long. 233 deg. 28 min. east. The whole sound is surrounded by high land, which in some places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle size, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they discovered Sandwich Sound in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour, in which the ships anchored, appeared to be almost surrounded with high land, which was covered with snow; and here they were visited by some of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the island of Unalaschka; and, after their departure from thence, still continued to trace the American coast, till they discovered the straits which separates it from the continent of Asia. Here both the hemispheres presented to the view a naked and flat country, without any defence, and the sea between them not very deep. They passed the strait, and arrived on the 20th of August 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. long. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice; and the farther they proceeded to the eastward, the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no farther; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific oceands towards the north; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return, it unfortunately happened that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives on the island of O’whyhee, one of the Sandwich isles, on the 14th of February 1779; not so much by his own rashness, as through the inadvertence and neglect of some of his own people. His death was
SOUTH SEA ISLANDS.

universally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but also in other parts of Europe, by those to whom his merits and public services were known. In his last voyage he had explored the coast of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 sec. north. After the death of captain Cook, the command devolved on captain Clerke, who died at sea on his return to the southward on the 22d day of August 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article without inserting the following character of captain Cook, to perpetuate the memory and services of so excellent a navigator.

"Perhaps no science ever received greater additions from the labours of a single man than geography has done from those of captain Cook. In his first voyage to the South Seas, he discovered the Society Islands; determined the insularity of New Zealand; discovered the straits which separate the two islands, and are called after his name; and made a complete survey of both. He afterwards explored the eastern coast of New Holland, hitherto unknown—an extent of twenty-seven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thousand miles.

"In his second expedition, he resolved the great problem of a southern continent, having traversed that hemisphere between the latitude of forty and seventy degrees, in such a manner as not to leave a possibility of its existence, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage he discovered New Caledonia, the largest island in the Southern Pacific Ocean, except New Zealand; the island of Georgia; and an unknown coast, which he named Sandwich Land, the Thule of the southern hemisphere; and having twice visited the tropical seas, he settled the situations of the old, and made several new discoveries.

"But the last voyage is distinguished above all the rest, by the extent and importance of its discoveries. Besides several smaller islands in the Southern Pacific, he discovered to the north of the equinoctial line the group called the Sandwich Islands, which, from their situation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of consequence in the system of European navigation than any other discovery in the South Sea. He afterwards explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the western coast of America, from the latitude of forty-three to seventy degrees north, containing an extent of three thousand and five hundred miles; ascertained the proximity of the two great continents of Asia and America; passed the straits between them, and surveyed the coast on each side, to such a height of northern latitude, as to demonstrate the impracticability of a passage, in that hemisphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean, either by an eastern or a western coast. In short, if we except the sea of Amur, and the Japanese archipelago, which still remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

"The method which he discovered, and so successfully pursued, of preserving the health of seamen, forms a new æra in navigation, and will transmit his name to future ages, amongst the friends and benefactors of mankind.

"Those who are conversant in naval history, need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been sought through the medium of long voyages at sea have always been purchased. That dreadful disorder which is peculiar to their service, and whose ravages have marked the tracks of discoverers with circumstances almost too shocking to relate, must, without exercising an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our seamen, have proved an insuperable obstacle to the prosecution of such enterprises. It was reserved for captain Cook to show the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unusual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminishing the probability of life, in the smallest degree."
INGRAHAM'S ISLANDS.

These islands were discovered by Captain Joseph Ingraham, of Boston, commander of the brigantine Hope, on the 19th of April 1791. They lie N. N. W. from the Marquesas Islands, from 35 to 50 leagues distant, in about 9 of south latitude, and from 140 to 141 west longitude from London. They are seven in number, and were named by Captain Ingraham, Washington, Adams, Lincoln, Federal, Franklin, Hancock, Knox.

Most, if not all of these islands, are inhabited, and appear generally to be diversified with hills and valleys, and to be well wooded, and very pleasant. The people resemble those of the Marquesas Islands, as do their canoes, which are carved at each end. They appeared friendly.

NORTH-WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

From the observations made by Captain Cook on the inhabitants of the western coast of North America, in the neighbourhood of Prince William's Sound, and to the latitude of 64 degrees north, it appeared that a strong similarity was discernible between them and the Esquimaux on the eastern coast; whence it was conjectured by some, that a communication by sea existed between the eastern and western sides of that continent. In support of this conjecture, old accounts were revived of the discoveries of John de Fuca, and De Fonte or De Fuentes; the one a Greek pilot, who made his voyage in 1592, and the other a Spanish or Portuguese admiral, who sailed in 1640. John de Fuca had related that between the 47th and 48th degrees of north latitude he had entered a broad inlet, which led him into a far broader sea, wherein he sailed above twenty days: and De Fonte had sailed through crooked channels in an extensive archipelago 260 leagues, and 60 leagues up a navigable river which flowed into it, in 53 degrees of north latitude, and communicated by other lakes and rivers, with a passage in which a ship had arrived from Boston in New England. The truth of these ancient accounts appeared to be strongly corroborated, some years since, by the discovery said to be made by one Mr Etches, who had fitted out some ships for the fur trade, that all the western coast of America, from latitude 48° to 57° north, was no continued tract of land, but a chain of islands which had never been explored, and that these concealed the entrance to a vast inland sea, like the Baltic or Mediterranean in Europe, and which seemed likewise to be full of islands. Among these, Mr Etches' ship, the Princess Royal, was said to have penetrated several hundred leagues, in a north-east direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudson's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the archipelago just mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new Mediterranean sea.

The existence of any such inland sea is, however, now completely disproved by the voyage of the late Captain Vancouver, who, during the summers of 1792, 1793, and 1794, explored and accurately surveyed the whole western coast of North America, from latitude 30° to 60°. Between the 47th and 57th degrees of north latitude, there is indeed an archipelago, composed of innumerable islands and crooked channels; but he no where found either the inlet of John de Fuca, the river of De Fonte, or the inland sea of Mr Etches' ship. — "The precision," says Captain Vancouver, "with which the survey of the coast of North-West America has been carried into effect, will, I trust, remove every doubt, and set aside every opinion of a north-west passage, or any water-communication navigable for shipping, existing between the North Pacific and the interior of the American continent, within the limits of our researches."
This coast, with very little deviation, has the appearance of one continued forest, being covered with pines of different species, intermixed with alder, birch, and other trees. The natives of the northern parts are in general short in stature, with faces flat and round, high cheek bones, and flat noses. They have some very peculiar customs of mutilating or disfiguring their person, probably by way of ornament, though to us they appear disgusting, and even hideous. At Port Trinidad, in latitude 41 degrees north, the custom, says captain Vancouver, "was particularly singular, and must be attended with much pain in the first instance, and great inconvenience ever after. All the teeth of both sexes were, by some process, ground uniformly down, horizontally to the gums; the women especially, carrying the fashion to an extreme, had their teeth reduced even below this level, and ornamented the lower lip with three perpendicular rows of puncturation, one from each corner of the mouth, and one in the middle, occupying three fifths of the lip and chin." On other parts of this coast the women make a horizontal incision in the under lip, extending from one corner of the mouth to the other, entirely through the flesh, which orifice is by degrees sufficiently stretched to admit an ornament made of wood, which is confined close to the gums of the lower jaw, with the external surface projecting horizontally. These wooden ornaments are oval, and resemble a small oval platter or dish, made concave on both sides; they are of various sizes; some of them above three inches in length, and an inch and a half broad. The chief object of civilized nations, in navigating this coast hitherto, has been to traffic with the natives for furs, which they give in exchange for pieces of iron, nails, beads, pen-knives, and other trifling trinkets. These furs are carried to China, and disposed of at a great profit. The skins obtained are those of the sea-otter, racoon, pine-martin, land-beaver, and earless marmot. Ginseng, copper, oil, and some other commodities, might also be procured.

In 1788, some English merchants, engaged in this trade, formed a settlement in King George's Sound, since called Nootka Sound, from the name by which it is called by the natives. The Spaniards, however, being jealous of the intrusion of the English into a part of the world which they long regarded as their exclusive property, sent a frigate from Mexico, which captured two English vessels, and took possession of the settlement. The British ministry, on receiving intelligence of this transaction, fitted out a powerful armament to give weight to their demand of reparation; but the affair was amicably terminated by a convention in 1790.

Nootka Sound is situated in lat. 49° 33' north, long. 126° 48' west, on an island about 300 miles in length and 80 in breadth, named by captain Vancouver, in 1792, Quadra and Vancouver's Island, in compliment to Senor Quadra, the Spanish commandant at Nootka.
A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places, in the known World. Collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps, and Observations.

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| Acca                     | Bengal          | East India, Asia       | Asia     | 23-30 N.| 89-20 E. |
|                         |                 | Turkey,                | Asia     | 33-15 N.| 37-20 E. |
|                         |                 | Polish Prussia, Europe | Europe   | 54-22 N.| 18-38 E. |
|                         |                 | France,                | Europe   | 43-42 N.| 0-58 W.  |
|                         |                 | Netherlands, East India | Asia     | 29-00 N.| 76-30 E. |
|                         |                 | Persia,                | Asia     | 41-41 N.| 50-30 E. |
|                         |                 | England                | Europe   | 52-58 N.| 1-30 W.  |
|                         |                 | Ireland,               | Europe   | 54-52 N.| 7-40 W.  |
|                         |                 | France,                | Europe   | 49-55 N.| 0-59 E.  |
|                         |                 | Germany,               | Europe   | 47-19 N.| 4-57 E.  |
|                         |                 | East India, Asia       | Asia     | 48-30 N.| 10-19 E. |
|                         |                 | Europe,                | Europe   | 21-37 N.| 69-30 E. |
|                         |                 | America                | Europe   | 48-33 N.| 1-41 W.  |
|                         |                 |                       | America  | 15-18 N.| 1-22 W.  |
|                         |                 | England,               | Europe   | 51-07 N.| 1-13 E.  |
|                         |                 | Germany,               | Europe   | 51-00 N.| 13-36 E. |

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Dreux,  Eure and Loire,  France,  Europe  48°44' N.  1°16'E.

Dublin,  Leinster,  Ireland,  Europe  53°21' N.  6°01' W.

Dumbarton,  Dumbartonshire,  Scotland,  Europe  55°44' N.  4°20' W.

Dumfries,  Dumfriesshire,  Scotland,  Europe  55°08' N.  3°25' W.

Dunbar,  Haddington,  Scotland,  Europe  55°58' N.  2°25' W.

Dundee,  Forfar,  Scotland,  Europe  56°26' N.  2°45' W.

Dungeness,  Kent,  England,  Europe  50°52' N.  1°04' E.

Dunkirk,  Flanders,  Netherlands,  Europe  51°02' N.  2°27' E.

Durham,  Durham,  England,  Europe  54°48' N.  1°25' W.

E   Aoowe Isle,  Elephant Island,  between Eng. and Fr.  Europe  21°24' S.  174°25' W.

Eastern Ocean,  betw. the N. W. of N. Am, and N. E. of Asia  27°06' S.  109°41' W.

Edinburgh,  Edinburgh,  Scotland,  Europe  55°57' N.  3°07' W.

Edystone,  Eng. Channel,  England,  Europe  50°08' N.  4°19' W.

Elbing,  Prussia,  Poland,  Europe  54°15' N.  20°00' E.

Emden,  Lower Saxony,  Germany,  Europe  53°25' N.  7°10' E.

Embrun,  Upper Alps,  France,  Europe  44°34' N.  6°34' E.

Enatum Isle,  Upper Alp,  Pacific Ocean,  Asia  20°10' S.  169°50' E.

English Channel,  between Eng. and Fr.  Europe  38°01' N.  27°30' E.

Ephesus,  Natolia,  Turkey,  Asia  15°46' S.  169°23' E.

Erramanaucle,  Turcomania,  Asia  39°56' N.  42°05' E.

Erzerum,  Turkey,  Asia  17°29' N.  63°05' W.

Ethiopian Sea,  Coast of Guinea,  Africa  49°01' N.  1°13' E.

Eustatius,  Carib. Sea,  N. America  50°44' N.  3°29' W.

Evreux,  Eure,  France,  Europe  55°58' N.  3°48' W.

Exeter,  Devonshire,  England,  Europe  50°08' N.  4°57' W.

F.Alkirk,  Stirling,  Scotland,  Europe  38°32' N.  25°36' W.

Falmouth,  Cornwall,  England,  Europe  3°56' S.  32°43' W.

Fayal Town,  Azores,  Atlant. Ocean,  Europe  27°47' N.  17°40' W.

Ferdinand Na-  Ferrara,  Ferrarese,  Italy,  Europe  27°47' N.  17°40' W.

ronka,  Ferro (Town),  Canaries,  Africa  43°30' N.  8°40' W.

Ferrol,  Galicia,  Spain,  Europe  33°30' N.  6°00' W.

Fez,  Fez,  Italy,  Europe  43°46' N.  11°07' E.

Florence,  Tuscany,  Italy,  Europe  39°34' N.  30°51' W.

Flores,  Azores,  Portugal,  Europe  45°01' N.  3°10' E.

St Flour,  Cantal,  France,  Europe  10°09' S.  57°33' E.

France (Isle of)  Indian Ocean,  India,  Africa  49°55' N.  8°40' E.

Frankfurt Main,  Franconia,  Germany,  Europe  54°22' N.  20°12' E.

Frauenburg,  Polish Prussia,  Europe  14°56' N.  24°23' W.

Fuego Isle,  Cape Verd,  Africa  32°37' N.  17°01' W.

Funchal,  Madeira,  Atlantic Ocean,  Africa  17°11' S.  143°01' W.

Furneaux Isle,  Pacific Ocean,  Asia  44°33' N.  6°09' E.

G  Ap,  Upper Alps,  France,  Europe  44°25' N.  8°40' E.

Genes,  Savoy,  Italy,  Europe  46°12' N.  6°05' E.

Geneva,  Leman,  France,  Europe  44°25' N.  8°51' E.

Genoa,  Genoa,  Italy,  Europe  38°39' N.  27°55' W.

St George Isle,  Azores,  Atlantic Ocean,  Europe  32°43' N.  63°30' W.

St George To.  Bermudas,  Atlantic Ocean, North America  13°04' N.  80°23' E.

St George Fort,  Coromandel,  East India,  Asia  51°03' N.  3°48' E.

Ghent,  Flanders,  Netherlands,  Europe  85°11' N.  1°33' E.
### Names of Places, Provinces, Countries, or Seas, Quarter, Lat., Long.

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<th>Country/Sea</th>
<th>Quarter</th>
<th>Lat.</th>
<th>Long.</th>
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### Notes:
- **Asia**: Includes countries in Asia such as Japan, Russia, and China.
- **Europe**: Includes countries such as France, Germany, and Italy.
- **Africa**: Includes countries such as Morocco and Barbary.
- **N. Pacific Oc.**: Includes New Zealand and Australia.
- **New Zealand**: Located in the South Pacific Ocean.
- **North America**: Includes countries such as Canada and the United States.
- **South America**: Includes countries such as Brazil and Argentina.
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**Pacific Ocean, between Asia and America.**

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<td>15.38</td>
<td>14.25 W.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Palma Isle,</td>
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<td>28.36</td>
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<td>St. Paul's Isle,</td>
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<td>China</td>
<td>39.54</td>
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<td>Wales</td>
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<td>West India,</td>
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<td>Long.</td>
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<td>North America</td>
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<td>Black Sea,</td>
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<td>—Mar Mora,</td>
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<td>—Ochotsk,</td>
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<td>East India,</td>
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A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

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### A New Geographical Table

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| York York                        | Yorkshire, England, | Europe | 53-59 | 1-06 W |
| Yorkminster                      | Terra del Fuego,     | South America | 55-26 | 70-03 W |

A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE;
The most Copious and Authentic yet published, of the present State of the Real and Imaginary Monies of the World,

Divided into Four Parts, viz.
EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA;

Which are subdivided into fifty-five Parts, containing the names of the most capital Places, the Species whereof are inserted, showing how the Monies are reckoned by the respective Nations; and the Figures standing against the Denomination of each Foreign Piece give the English intrinsic Value thereof, according to the best Assays made at the Mint of the Tower of London.

EXPLANATION.

By real Money is understood an effective Specie, representing in itself the Value denominated thereby, as a Guinea, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the Imaginary Money, which is generally made use of in keeping Accounts, signifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being, or which cannot be represented but by several other Pieces, as a Pound Sterling, &c.

All fractions in the value English are parts of a Penny.

== This Mark signifies, is, make, or equal to.

Note, for all the Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the West Indies, see the Monies of the respective Nations.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

London, Bristol, Liverpool, &c.
Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, &c.

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<tr>
<td>2 Halfpence</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Pence</td>
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### A Modern Universal Table

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<tr>
<td>2 Halfpence</td>
<td>a Penny</td>
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<tr>
<td>64 Pence</td>
<td>a Half Shilling</td>
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<td>a Shilling Irish</td>
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<td>13 Pence</td>
<td>a Shilling</td>
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<tr>
<td>65 Pence</td>
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<td>20 Shillings</td>
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<td>22 Shillings</td>
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#### Flanders and Brabant

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<tr>
<td>4 Penings</td>
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<td>a Grote</td>
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<tr>
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<td>a Petard</td>
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<td>6 Petards</td>
<td>a Scalin</td>
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<tr>
<td>7 Petards</td>
<td>a Scalin</td>
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<tr>
<td>40 Grotes</td>
<td>a Florin</td>
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<td>17½ Scalins</td>
<td>a Ducat</td>
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<td>240 Grotes</td>
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#### Holland and Zealand

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<tr>
<td>2 Grotes</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 Stivers</td>
<td>a Scalin</td>
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<td>a Guilder</td>
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<td>a Rix-dollar</td>
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<td>a Dry Guilder</td>
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<td>3 Florins 3 Stivers</td>
<td>a Silver Ducatoon</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 Guilders</td>
<td>a Pound Flem.</td>
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<tr>
<td>20 Florins</td>
<td>a Gold Ducat, or Ducatoon</td>
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<tr>
<td>15 Florins</td>
<td>a Ducatton, another sort, called a Sovereign 1 7 0</td>
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#### Hamburg, Altona, Lubeck, Bremen, etc.

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A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

**HANOVER, Lüneburg, Zell, &c.**

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**Brandenburg and Pomerania.**

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**Cologne, Mentz, Trier, Liege, Munich, Munster, Paderborn, &c.**

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### A Modern Universal Table

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## A Modern Universal Table

### Livonia, Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.

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### Denmark, Zealand, and Norway.

Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.

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### Sweden and Lapland.

Stockholm, Upsal, &c. Thorn, &c.

* A Runstick  
2 Runsticks  
8 Runsticks  
3 Copper Marcs  
4 Copper Marcs  
9 Copper Marcs  
3 Copper Dollars  
3 Silver Dollars  
2 Rix-dollars

### Russia and Muscovy.

Petersburg, &c. Archangel, Moscow, &c.

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<td>≈ a Crown</td>
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<td>0 0 0.72</td>
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<td>≈ a Small Sol</td>
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<td>0 0 0.72</td>
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<tr>
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<td>a Sol current</td>
<td>0 0 0.72</td>
<td>0 0 0.72</td>
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<tr>
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<td>0 0 0.72</td>
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<td>0 0 0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>a Patacoen</td>
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<tr>
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### A Modern Universal Table.

**Lisle, Camiray, Valenciennes, &c.**

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**Dunkirk, St Omer's, St Quentin, &c.**

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**Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.**

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**Portugal, Lisbon, Oporto, &c.**

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A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

_A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE._

_Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. New Plate._

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<thead>
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<tr>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Maravedies</td>
<td>a Quartil</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54 Maravedies</td>
<td>a Rial</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Rials</td>
<td>a Pistarne</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Rials</td>
<td>* a Piastre of Ex.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 Rials</td>
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<tr>
<td>375 Maravedies</td>
<td>* a Ducat of Ex.</td>
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<td>* a Pistole of Ex.</td>
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<tr>
<td>36 Rials</td>
<td>a Pistole</td>
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_Gibraltar, Malaga, &c. Velon._

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
<td>* A Maravedie</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 Maravedies</td>
<td>an Ochavo</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Maravedies</td>
<td>a Quatril</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34 Maravedies</td>
<td>* a Rial Velon</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>15 Rials</td>
<td>* a Piastre of Ex.</td>
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_Barcelona, Saragossa, Valencia, &c. Old Plate._

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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>2 Soldos</td>
<td>a Rial Old Plate</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Soldos</td>
<td>* a Dollar</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Soldos</td>
<td>* a Libra</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 Soldos</td>
<td>* a Ducat</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 Soldos</td>
<td>* a Ducat</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>24 Soldos</td>
<td>* a Ducat</td>
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<tr>
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_GENOA. Novi, St Remo, &c._

_CORSICA. Bastia, &c._

<table>
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<tr>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Soldi</td>
<td>a Chevalet</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Soldi</td>
<td>* a Lire</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Soldi</td>
<td>a Testoon</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Lires</td>
<td>a Croisade</td>
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<tr>
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<td>* a Pezzo of Ex.</td>
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<tr>
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<td>20 Lires</td>
<td>a Pistole</td>
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### A Modern Universal Table.

**PIEDMONT, SAVOY, AND SARDINIA.**

*Turin, Chambery, Cagliari, &c.*

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<tr>
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<td>a Soldi 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>a Florin 0 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>20 Soldi</strong></td>
<td>a Lire 0 1 3</td>
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<td><strong>6 Florins</strong></td>
<td>a Scudi 0 4 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>7 Florins</strong></td>
<td>a Ducatoon 0 5 3</td>
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<td><strong>13 Lires</strong></td>
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**Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.**

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<td>a Lire 0 1 3</td>
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<td><strong>117 Soldi</strong></td>
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<td><strong>6 Lires</strong></td>
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<td><strong>22 Lires</strong></td>
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**Leghorn, Florence, &c.**

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**ROME. Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.**

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### A Modern Universal Table.

#### Naples, Gaeta, Capua, &c.

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| 1 A Quattrini | 100 Grains  | 0 0 0 4 🅃
| 3 Quattrini   | 40 Grains   | 0 0 5 🅃
| 10 Grains     | 20 Grains   | 0 0 8 🅃
| 40 Quattrini  | 100 Grains  | 0 1 4 🅃
| 20 Tarins     | 25 Tarins   | 0 15 4 🅃

#### Sicily and Malta. Palermo, Messina, &c.

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| 1 A Pichila   | 6 Pichili   | 0 0 0 3 🅃
| 8 Pichili     | 10 Grains   | 0 0 1 3 🅃
| 20 Grains     | 6 Tarins    | 0 0 3 3 🅃
| 6 Tarins      | 13 Tarins   | 0 1 6 3 🅃
| 60 Carlins    | 2 Ounces    | 0 7 8 3 🅃

#### Bologna, Ravenna, &c.

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<th>Value</th>
<th>L. s. d.</th>
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</table>
| 1 A Quattrini | 6 Quartrini | 0 0 0 3 🅃
| 10 Bayocs     | 20 Bayocs   | 0 0 6 🅃
| 3 Julios      | 85 Bayocs   | 0 1 6 3 🅃
| 100 Bayocs    | 105 Bayocs  | 0 5 3 3 🅃
| 31 Julios     |             | 0 15 6 3 🅃

#### Venice. Bergamo, &c.

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<th>Value</th>
<th>L. s. d.</th>
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</table>
| 1 A Picoli    | 12 Picoli   | 0 0 0 2 🅃
| 62 Soldi      | 18 Soldi    | 0 0 6 🅃
| 20 Soldi      | 3 Jules     | 0 0 6 3 🅃
| 124 Soldi     | 24 Gros     | 0 3 5 3 🅃
| 17 Lires      |             | 0 9 2 🅃
### TURKEY. Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.

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<td>0 0 3</td>
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### ARABIA. Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.

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<td>80 Carrets</td>
<td>0 1 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>15 Comashees</td>
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### PERSIA. Ispahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.

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<tr>
<td>25 Coz</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 Shahees</td>
<td>0 1 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Abashees</td>
<td>0 6 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Abashees</td>
<td>0 15 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 Abashees</td>
<td>3 6 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### GUZURAT. Surat, Cambay, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Currency</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Pecka</td>
<td>0 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Peckas</td>
<td>0 0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Pices</td>
<td>0 0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Pices</td>
<td>0 0 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Pices</td>
<td>0 0 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Anas</td>
<td>0 2 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Rupees</td>
<td>0 5 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Anas</td>
<td>0 8 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Pagodas</td>
<td>1 15 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Major Rennel says, that we may with ease reduce any large sum in rupees to Sterling, by calculating roundly at the rate of a lack of rupees to ten thousand pounds; and that a crore of rupees is equal to a million sterling.
A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.

SIAM. Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Cori</th>
<th>10 Cori</th>
<th>125 Fettees</th>
<th>250 Fettees</th>
<th>500 Fettees</th>
<th>900 Fettees</th>
<th>2 Ticals</th>
<th>4 Soocos</th>
<th>8 Sataleers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a Fettee</td>
<td>a Sataleer</td>
<td>a Sooco</td>
<td>a Tical</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>an Ecu</td>
<td>a Crown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0 0 0 3/2 0</td>
<td>0 0 7/2 0</td>
<td>0 1 3</td>
<td>0 2 6</td>
<td>0 4 6</td>
<td>0 5 0</td>
<td>0 5 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CHINA. Pekin, Canton, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Caxa</th>
<th>10 Caxa</th>
<th>10 Candereens</th>
<th>35 Candereens</th>
<th>2 Rupees</th>
<th>70 Candereens</th>
<th>7 Maces</th>
<th>2 Rupees</th>
<th>10 Maces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a Candereen</td>
<td>a Mace</td>
<td>a Rupee</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>an Ecu</td>
<td>a Crown</td>
<td>a Tale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0 0 0 3/2 0</td>
<td>0 0 8</td>
<td>0 2 6</td>
<td>0 4 6</td>
<td>0 5 0</td>
<td>0 6 0</td>
<td>0 6 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

JAPAN. Jeddo, Meaco, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A Piti</th>
<th>20 Pitis</th>
<th>15 Maces</th>
<th>20 Maces</th>
<th>30 Maces</th>
<th>13 Ounces Silver</th>
<th>2 Ounces Gold</th>
<th>2 Japanese</th>
<th>21 Ounces Gold</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a Mace</td>
<td>a Tale</td>
<td>an Ingot</td>
<td>an Ounce Silver</td>
<td>a Japanese</td>
<td>a Double</td>
<td>a Cattee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0 0 4</td>
<td>0 6 8</td>
<td>0 9 8 2 0</td>
<td>0 4 10 1/2</td>
<td>3 3 0</td>
<td>6 6 0</td>
<td>66 3 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

EGYPT. Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>An Asper</th>
<th>3 Aspers</th>
<th>24 Medins</th>
<th>80 Aspers</th>
<th>30 Medins</th>
<th>96 Aspers</th>
<th>32 Medins</th>
<th>200 Aspers</th>
<th>70 Medins</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>a Medin</td>
<td>an Italian Ducat</td>
<td>a Piastre</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>an Ecu</td>
<td>a Crown</td>
<td>a Pargo Dollar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0 0 0 5</td>
<td>0 3 4</td>
<td>0 4 0</td>
<td>0 4 6</td>
<td>0 5 0</td>
<td>0 5 0</td>
<td>0 10 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### A Modern Universal Table

**Barbary.** Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>15 Doubles</th>
<th>180 Aspers</th>
<th>30 Medins</th>
<th>24 Medins</th>
<th>4 Doubles</th>
<th>2 Rials</th>
<th>10 Aspers</th>
<th>3 Aspers</th>
<th>An Asper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a Pistole</td>
<td>a Zequin</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Silver Chequin</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Double</td>
<td>a Rial Old Plate</td>
<td>a Medin</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>120 Shillings</th>
<th>250 Livres</th>
<th>20 Livres</th>
<th>32 Livres</th>
<th>8 Livres</th>
<th>7 Livres</th>
<th>20 Sols</th>
<th>15 Sols</th>
<th>7½ Sols</th>
<th>2 Halfsols</th>
<th>* A Halfpenny</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a Pistole</td>
<td>a Louis d'Or</td>
<td>a Pistole</td>
<td>a Pistole</td>
<td>a Pistole</td>
<td>a Pistole</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 7 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500 Shillings</td>
<td>1 0 0 £ 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 3 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 3 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 2 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 5 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 2 1 0</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 7 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Morocco. Santa Cruz, Mequina, Fez, Tangier, Sallee, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>100 Blanquils</th>
<th>54 Blanquils</th>
<th>28 Blanquils</th>
<th>14 Blanquils</th>
<th>7 Blanquils</th>
<th>4 Blanquils</th>
<th>24 Fluces</th>
<th>A Fluce</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a Pistole</td>
<td>a Xequin</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Quarto</td>
<td>an Octavo</td>
<td>an Ounce</td>
<td>a Blanquil</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### English. Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>30 Shillings</th>
<th>22 Livres</th>
<th>10 Livres</th>
<th>8 Livres</th>
<th>7 Livres</th>
<th>2½ Sols</th>
<th>2¾ Pence</th>
<th>7½ Pence</th>
<th>2 Pence</th>
<th>* A Halfpenny</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a Guinea</td>
<td>a Pistole</td>
<td>a Ecu</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Pound</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Bit</td>
<td>a Shilling</td>
<td>a Penny</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 7 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 Shillings</td>
<td>42 Livres</td>
<td>21 Livres</td>
<td>14 Livres</td>
<td>7 Livres</td>
<td>1½ Sols</td>
<td>1¼ Pence</td>
<td>1½ Pence</td>
<td>12 Pence</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 7 7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### French. St Domingo, Martinico, &c.

* A Half Sol

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>30 Livres</th>
<th>26 Livres</th>
<th>8 Livres</th>
<th>7 Livres</th>
<th>20 Sols</th>
<th>15 Sols</th>
<th>7½ Sols</th>
<th>2 Halfsols</th>
<th>* A Halfpenny</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a Louis d'Or</td>
<td>a Pistole</td>
<td>a Ecu</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Dollar</td>
<td>a Scalain</td>
<td>a Half Scalain</td>
<td>a Sol</td>
<td>0 0 0 0 7 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60 Livres</td>
<td>42 Livres</td>
<td>21 Livres</td>
<td>14 Livres</td>
<td>7 Livres</td>
<td>1½ Sols</td>
<td>1¼ Pence</td>
<td>1½ Pence</td>
<td>12 Pence</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Africa.

### Morocco.

### America.

### West Indies.
A MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>£L.</th>
<th>s.</th>
<th>d.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Penny</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Pence</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Shillings</td>
<td>* a Shilling</td>
<td></td>
<td>1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Pounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Pounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Pounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Pounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Pounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Pounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Pounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Pounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Pounds</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

FRENCH. Canada, Florida, Cayenne, &c.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>£L.</th>
<th>s.</th>
<th>d.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Denier</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Deniers</td>
<td>* a Sol</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Sols</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Livres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Livres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Livres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Livres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Livres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Livres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Livres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Livres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Livres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Note. For all the Spanish, Portuguese, Dutch, and Danish Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the West Indies, see the Monies of the respective Nations.
# TABLE OF WEIGHTS.

## TROY WEIGHT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>24 Grains make 1 pennyweight,</th>
<th>dwt.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20 Pennywts. 1 ounce</td>
<td>oz.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Ounces 1 pound</td>
<td>lb.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>16 Drams make 1 ounce</th>
<th>20 Grains make 1 scruple</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16 Ounces 1 pound</td>
<td>3 Scruples 1 dram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 Pounds 1 quarter</td>
<td>8 Drams 1 ounce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 quarters 1 hundred-weight</td>
<td>12 Ounces 1 pound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 Cwt. 1 ton</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## APOTHECARY'S WEIGHT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7 Avoir. pounds make 1 clove</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 Cloves 1 stone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Stones 1 tod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6½ Tods 1 wey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Weyes 1 sack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Sacks 1 last</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## WOOL WEIGHT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>16 Drops make 1 ounce</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16 Ounces 1 pound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Pounds 1 stone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 cwt. avoir. 103 lbs. 2½ oz. Dutch</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## HAY WEIGHT.

| 14 Avoir. pounds make 1 stone |
| 36 lbs. of Straw make 1 truss |
| 56 lbs. of old hay make 1 truss |
| 60 lbs. of new hay make 1 truss |
| 36 Trusses make 1 load        |

## SCOTCH TROY OR DUTCH WEIGHT.

| 2¼ Inches make 1 nail         |
| 4 Nails 1 quarter             |
| 4 Quarters 1 yard             |
| 3 Quarters 1 ell Flemish      |
| 5 Quarters 1 ell English      |
| 6 Quarters 1 ell French       |
| 8 Quarters 1½ inch or 37½ inches |

## LONG MEASURE.

| 12 Inches make 1 foot         |
| 3 Feet 1 yard                 |
| 5¼ Yards 1 pole               |
| 40 Poles 1 furlong            |
| 8 Furlongs 1 mile             |
| 69 1-tenth miles nearly make 1 degree. |

The degree is also divided into 60 equal parts, called Nautical or Geographical miles, 3 of which are equal to one league.

## ENGLISH LAND MEASURE.

| 9 Square feet make 1 square yard |
| 30½ Yards make 1 pole            |
| 40 Poles make 1 rood             |
| 4 Roods make 1 acre              |

## SOLID MEASURE.

| 1728 Cubic inches make 1 cubic foot. |
| 27 Feet 1 yard or load             |

## WINE MEASURE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2 Pints make 1 quart</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 Quarts 1 gallon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42 Gallons 1 firken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63 Gallons 1 kilderkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>84 Gallons 1 barrel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Hogsheads 1 pipe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Pipes 1 tun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## CLOTH MEASURE.

| 1689 Scots acres make 1369 Eng. acres |

## SCOTLAND MEASURE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3 Bushels make 1 sack</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36 Bushels or 12 sacks make 1 chaldron</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## COAL MEASURE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2 Pints make 1 quart</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 Quarts 1 gal. 282 inches</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Gall. of Ale, or 9 of Beer = 1 firkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Firkins 1 kilderkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Kilderkins 1 barrel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1½ Barrels 1 hogshead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Barrels make 1 punch, &amp; 3 = 1 butt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A NEW
CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE
OF
REMARKABLE EVENTS,
DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS;
ALSO,
THE ERA, THE COUNTRY, AND WRITINGS OF LEARNED MEN:
The whole comprehending, in one View, the Analysis or Outlines of General History, from the Creation to the present Time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4004</td>
<td>THE Creation of the world, and of Adam and Eve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4003</td>
<td>The birth of Cain, the first who was born of a woman.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3017</td>
<td>Enoch, for his piety, is translated to heaven.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2348</td>
<td>The whole world is destroyed by a deluge, which continued 477 days.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2247</td>
<td>The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's posterity, upon which God miraculously confounds their language, and thus disperses them into different nations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2138</td>
<td>Mesiraim, the son of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which lasted 1603 years, down to its conquest by Cambyses, in 525 before Christ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2059</td>
<td>Ninus, the son of Belus, founds the kingdom of Assyria, which lasted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Assyrians of Babylon, those of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921</td>
<td>The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years of sojourning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1897</td>
<td>The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are destroyed for their wickedness, by fire from heaven.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1856</td>
<td>The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1692</td>
<td>Memnon, the Egyptian, invents letters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1715</td>
<td>Prometheus first strikes fire from flames.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1833</td>
<td>Joseph dies in Egypt, which concludes the book of Genesis, containing a period of 2369 years.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1574</td>
<td>Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God first high-priest of the Israelites.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1571</td>
<td>Moses, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1556</td>
<td>Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt into Attica, and founds the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1546</td>
<td>Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and founds the Kingdom of Troy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1493</td>
<td>Cadmus carried the Phoenician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1491</td>
<td>Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom, together with 600,000 Israelites, besides children; which completed the 430 years of sojourning. They miraculously pass through the Red Sea, and come to the Desert of Sinai, where Moses receives from God, and delivers to the people, the Ten Commandments, and the other Laws, and sets up the Tabernacle, and in it the Ark of the Covenant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1489</td>
<td>The first ship that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes, and brought with him his fifty daughters.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1453</td>
<td>The first Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1452</td>
<td>The Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, are written in the land of Moab, where he died in the year following, aged 120.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1451</td>
<td>The Israelites, after sojourning in the Wilderness forty years, are led under Joshua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themselves, after having subdued the natives; and the period of the solaratical year commences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1406 Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods.

1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1198, gave rise to the Trojan war and siege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when the city was taken and burnt.

1048 David is sole king of Israel.

1004 The temple is solemnly dedicated by Solomon.

994 Elijah, the prophet, is translated to heaven.

994 Money first made of gold and silver at Argos.

896 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by Queen Dido.

614 The kingdom of Macedon begins.

576 The first Olympiad begins.

373 Era of the building of Rome, in Italy, by Romulus, first king of the Romans.

720 Samaria taken. After three years' siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished, by Salmanasar, king of Assyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.

The first eclipse of the moon on record.

658 Byzantium (now Constantiopol) built by a colony of Athenians.

604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phoenicians sailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Meditteranean.

600 Thales, of Miletus, travels into Egypt, consults the priests of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, astronomy, and philosophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipses, gives general notions of the universe, and maintains that one supreme intelligence regulates all its motions.

Maps, spheres, and sun dials, invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.

597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, carried away captive by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.

587 The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of 18 months.

562 The first comedy at Athens acted upon a movable scaffold.

559 Cyrus, the first king of Persia.

539 The kingdom of Babylon finished, that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issues an edict for the return of the Jews.

534 The first tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon, by Thespis.

526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library first founded.

515 The second temple at Jerusalem, is finished under Darius.

509 Tarquin, the seventh and last king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls, and other republican magistrates, till the battle of Pharsalia, being a space of 401 years.

504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occasion to the Persian invasion of Greece.

486 Exile, the Greek poet, first gains the prize of tragedy.

481 Alexander the Great, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece.

467 Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captivity of Jews, and the vessels of gold and silver, &c. being seventy weeks of years, or 190 years, before the Crucifixion of our Saviour.

454 The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws.

451 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.

430 The history of the Old Testament finishes about this time.

Malachi, the last of the prophets.

401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon.

400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the soul, and a state of rewards and punishments, for which, and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who soon after repent, and erect to his memory a statute of brass.

331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Persia, and various nations of Asia.

332 Dies at Babylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.

285 Dionysius of Alexandria began his astronomical era on Monday June 26, being the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.

284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.

239 The first coinage of silver at Rome.

264 The first Punic war begins and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marble, called the Roman Chronicle, composed.

260 The Romans first apply themselves to naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.

237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.

218 The second Punic war begins, and continues 17 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles, but does not improve his victories by the storming of Rome.

190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and, from the spoils of Antiochus, brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.

168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.

167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.

163 The government of Judea under the Macca bees begins, and continues 126 years.

146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, razed to the ground by the Romans.

135 The history of the Apocalypse ends.

52 Julius Caesar makes his first expedition into Britain.

47 The battle of Pharsalia between Caesar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated. The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.

45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.

31 The solar year introduced by Caesar.

44 Caesar the greatest of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and slain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate house.

31 The battle of Actium fought in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeat-
A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

ed by Octavian, nephew to Julius Caesar.

30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.

27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Caesar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman Emperor.

8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 465,000 men fit to bear arms.

1 The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Monday December 25.

A. C.

12. CHRIST bears the doctors in the temple, and asks them questions.

27 is baptized in the wilderness by John.

33 is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock, P. M.

His Resurrection on Sunday, April 9; his Ascension, Thursday, May 14.

36 St Paul converted.

39 St Matthew writes his Gospel.

40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.

43 Claudius Caesar's expedition into Britain.

44 St Mark writes his Gospel.

49 London is founded by the Romans; 368, surrounded by ditches with a wall, some parts of which are still observable.

51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.

52 The council of the Apostles at Jerusalem.

53 St Luke writes his Gospel.

59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.

61 Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans, but is conquered soon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.

62 St Paul sent in bonds to Rome—writes his epistles between 51 and 66.


Christianity is supposed to be introduced into Britain by St Paul, or some of his disciples, about this time.

64 Rome set on fire, and burned for six days! upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians.

70 St Peter and St Paul put to death.

76 Whilst the factions Jews are destroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the Roman general, takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground; and the plough made to pass over it.

79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius.

85 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus, on the Grampian hills; and first sails round Britain, which he discovers to be an island.

90 St John the Evangelist wrote his Revelations—his Gospel in 97.

97 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland.

135 The second Jewish war ends, when they were all banished Judea. (tians.

139 Justin writes his first Apology for the Chris-

152 The emperor Antoninus Pius stops the perse-

222 About this time the Roman empire begins to sink under its own weight. The Bar-

260 Valerius is taken prisoner by Sapor, king of Persia, and flayed alive.

274 Silk first brought from India; the manufac-

306 Constantine the Great begins his reign.

308 Cardinals first created.

313 The tenth persecution ends by an edict of Constantine, who favours the Christians, and gives full liberty to their religion.

314 Three bishops, or fathers, are sent from Brit-

325 The first general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended against Arius, where was composed the famous Nicene creed, which we attribute to them.

328 Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is henceforward called Constantinople.

331 orders all the heathen temples to be de-

363 The Roman emperor Julian, surnamed the Apostate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.

364 The Roman empire is divided into the east-

400 Bells introduced by bishop Paulinus of Cam-

403 The kingdom of Caledonia, or Scotland, re-

410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visi-Goths.

412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.

420 The kingdom of France begins upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond.

426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; advising the Britains to arm in their own defence, and trust to their own valor.

446 The Britons, now left to themselves, are greatly harassed by the Scots and Picts; upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no assistance from that quarter.

447 Attila (surnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns, ravages the Roman empire.

449 Vortigern, king of the Britains, invites the Saxons into Britain, against the Scots and Picts.

455 The Saxons, having repulsed the Scots and
Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist.

476 The western empire ends, 523 years after the battle of Pharsalia; upon the ruins of which, several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned destroyed.

496 Clovis, king of France, baptized, and Christianity begins in that kingdom.

508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.

513 Constantinople besieged by Vitellianus, whose fleet is burned by a spectulum of brass.

516 The computing of time by the Christian era introduced by Dionysius the monk.

529 The code of Justinian, the eastern emperor, published.

557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.

581 Latin ceases to be spoken about this time in Italy.

596 Augustine the monk comes into England, with forty monks.

606 The power of the popes begins, by the concession of Phocas, emperor of the East.

2 Mahomet flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 54th year of his age and the tenth of his ministry, when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their descent. His followers compute their time from this era, which in Arabic is called Hegira, i.e. the flight.

637 Jerusalem taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.

640 Alexandria in Egypt taken by the same, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.

649 The Saracens extend their conquests on every side, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity.

654 Glass introduced into England by Benual, a monk.

683 The Britons, after a brave struggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.

715 The Saracens conquer Spain.

726 The controversy about images begins, and occasions many insurrections in the eastern empire.

748 The computing of years from the birth of Christ began to be used in history.

749 The race of Abbas become caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.

762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris is made the capital for the caliphs of the house of Abbas.

800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the western empire; gives the present names to the days and months; endeavours to restore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet disposed for it, being solely engaged in military enterprises.

828 Egbert, king of Wessex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.

838 The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth; which begins the second period of the Scottish history.

867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.

896 Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders (against whom he fought 56 battles by sea and land), composes his body of laws: divides England into counties, hundreds, tythings; erects county-courts, and founds the university of Oxford about this time.

915 The university of Cambridge founded.

936 The Saracen empire is divided by usurpation into seven kingdoms.

975 Pope Boniface VII. is deposed and banished for his crimes.

979 Coronation oaths said to be first used in England.

991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto used.

996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.

1000 Boleslas, the first king of Poland.

1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in use; that of linen rags in 1170: the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.

1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.

1015 Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England.

1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets possession of England.

1040 The Danes, after several engagements with various success, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hostile manner.

1041 The Saxons restored under Edward the Confessor.

1043 The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, serving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take possession of Persia.

1054, Leo. IX. the first pope that maintained an army.

1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunnsnade, and marries the princess Margaret, sister to Edgar Atheling.

1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.

1066 The battle of Hastings fought between Harold and William (surnamed the Bastard) duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and slain, after which William becomes king of England.

1070 William introduces the feudal law.

Musical notes invented.

1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German bishops. Henry, in penance, walks bare-footed to the pope towards the end of January.
1076 Justices of the peace first appointed in England.

1080 Doomsday book began to be compiled by order of William, from a survey of all the estates in England, and finished in 1086.

The Tower of London built by William, to curb his English subjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the English or Saxon language, are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.

1091 The Saracens in Spain being hard pressed by the Spaniards, call to their assistance Joseph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors gain possession of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.

1096 The first crusade to the Holy Land is begun under several Christians princes, to drive the infidels from Jerusalem.

1110 Edgar Atheling, the last of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reside as a subject.

1118 The order of the Knights Templars instituted, to defend the sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers.

1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.

1163 London bridge, consisting of 10 small arches, first built of stone.

1164 The Teutonic order of religions knights begins in Germany.

1172 Henry II. king of England (and first of the Plantagenets) takes possession of Ireland, which, from that period, has been governed by an English viceroy, or lord lieutenant.

1176 England is divided by Henry into six circuits, and justice is dispensed by itinerant judges.

1180 Glass windows begun to be used in private houses in England.

1181 The laws of England are digested about this time by Glanville.

1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the stirrups of the prince when he mounted his horse.

1186 The great conjunction of the sun and moon and all the planets in Libra, in September.

1193 The battle of Ascalon, in Palestine, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's army, consisting of 300,000 combatants.

1194 Dieu et mon Droit, first used as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.

1200 Chimneys were not known in England.

Surnames now began to be used; first among the nobility.

1208 London incorporated, and obtained the first charter for electing the lord-mayor and other magistrates, from king John.

1215 Magna Charta signed by King John, and the barons of England.

Court of Common Pleas established.

1227 The Tartars, under Gengis Khan, emerge from the northern parts of Asia, over-run all the Saracen empire; and, in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and desolation wherever they march.

1233 The Inquisition, begun in 1204, is now committed to the Dominicans.

1233 The houses of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw.

1253 The famous astronomical tables are composed by Alphonso, king of Castile.

1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finishes the empire of the Saracens.

1258 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 sail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III., who recovers the Western Isles.

1264 According to some writers, the commons of England were not summoned by parliament till this period.

1269 The Hambrough company incorporated in England.

1273 The empire of the present Austrian family begins in Germany.

1282 Llewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I., who unites that principality to England.

1284 Edward II. born at Caernarvon, is the first prince of Wales.

1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is disputed by twelve candidates, who submit their claims to the arbitration of Edward king of England; which lays the foundation of a long and desolating war between both nations.

1293 There is a regular succession of English parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.

1299 The present Turkish empire begins in Bithynia, under Ottoman.

Silver-hafted knives, spoons, and cups, a great luxury.

Tallow candles so great a luxury, that splinters of wood were used for lights.

Wine sold by apothecaries as a cordial.

1302 The mariner's compass invented, or improved, by Gavia, of Naples.

1307 The beginning of the Swiss cantons.

1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 130 years.

1310 Lincoln's Inn society established.

1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II., and Robert Bruce, which establishes the latter on the throne of Scotland.

The cardinals set fire to the concave, and separate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.

1336 Two Brabant weavers settle at York, which, says Edward III., may prove of great benefit to us and our subjects.

1337 The first comet whose course is described with astronomical exactness.

1340 Gunpowder and guns first invented by Schwartz, a monk of Cologne: 1340, Edward III., had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Cassy; 1346, bombs and mortars were invented.


1344 Gold first coined in England.

The first creation to titles by patent used by Edward III.

1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken prisoner.
1349 The order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and consists of 26 knights.
1352 The Turks first enter into Europe.
1354 The money in Scotland till now the same as in England.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which King John of France and his son are taken prisoners by Edward the black prince.
1357 Coal first brought to London.
1358 Arms of England and France first quartered by Edward III.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to English, as a favour of Edward III.

John Wicliffe, an Englishman, begins about this time to oppose the errors of the church of Rome with great acuteness and spirit. His followers are called Lollards.
1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands established in London. Windsor castle built by Edward III.
1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotspur and the earl of Douglas; on this is founded the battle of Chevy Chace.
1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amusement.
1399 Westminster abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Westminster hall doted.
Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV.; renewed in 1723; consisting of 36 knights.
1411 The university of St Andrew's in Scotland founded.
1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
1428 The siege of Orleans, the first blow to the English power in France.
1430 About this time Laurentius of Haarlem invented the art of Printing, which he practised with wooden types. Guttenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schöffer, who invented the mode of casting the types in matrices. Frederic Corsellis began to print in Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton, who introduced into England the art of printing with fusile types in 1474.
1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome. The sea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.
1455 Constantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the eastern empire, 1128 years from its dedication by Constantine the Great, and 2265 years from the foundation of Rome.
1454 The university of Glasgow, in Scotland, founded.
1460 Engraving and etching on copper invented.
1477 The university of Abercdeen, in Scotland, founded.
1483 Richard III. king of England, and the last of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII.; which puts an end to the civil wars between the houses of York and Lancaster, after a contest of 30 years, and the loss of 100,000 men.
1485 Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guards, the first standing army.
1489 Maps and sea charts first brought to England by Bartholewem Columbus.
1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.

The Moors, hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely subdued by Ferdinand, and become subject to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill observed by the Spaniards, whose clergy employ the powers of the Inquisition, with all its tortures: and in 1599, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the opposite coast of Africa, from whence they originally came.
1492 America first discovered by Colon, or Columbus, a Genoese, in the service of Spain.
1494 Algebra first known in Europe.
1497 The Portuguese first sail to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America discovered by Americus Vespuus, from whom it has its name.
1499 North America discovered for Henry VII. by Cabot.
1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.
1505 Shillings first coined in England.
1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.
1513 The battle of Flodden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.
1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt conquered by the Turks.
1518 Magellan, in the service of Spain, first discovers the straits of that name in South America.
1520 Henry VIII., for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the Pope.
1529 The name of Protestant takes its rise from the Reformed protesting against the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.
1534 The Reformation takes place in England under Henry VIII.
1537 Religious houses dissolved by Henry VIII.
1539 The first English edition of the Bible authorised: the present translation finished 1611.

About this time cannon began to be used in ships.
1543 Silk stockings first worn by the French king; first worn in England by Queen Elizabeth, 1561; the steel frame for weaving invented by the Rev. Mr Lee, of St John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
Pins first used in England, before which time the ladies used skewers.
1544 Good lands let in England at one shilling per acre.
1545 The famous council of Trent begins, and continues 18 years.
1546 First law in England establishing the interest of money at ten per cent.
1549 Lord lieutenant of counties instituted in
1602 Decemical arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 Queen Elizabeth (the last of the Tudors) dies, and names James VI. of Scotland (and first of the Stuarts) as her successor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
1604 The Gunn-powder plot discovered at Westminster: being a project of the Roman Catholics to blow up the King and both houses of parliament.
1606 Oaths of allegiance first administered in England.
1608 Galileo, of Florence first discovers the satellites about the planet Jupiter, by the telescope, then just invented in Holland.
1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris by Ravaillac, a priest.
1611 Baroents first created in England, by James I.
1614 Napier of Merchiston, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
1625 King James dies, and is succeeded by his son, Charles I.
1626 The barometer invented by Torricelli.
1627 The thermometer invented by Drabellus.
1628 The battle of Lutzen, in which Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Protestants in Germany, is killed.
1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
1640 King Charles disobeys his Scottish subjects on theire army under general Lesley enters England, and takes Newcastle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.
The massacre in Ireland, when 40,000 English protestants were killed.
1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had opposed his arbitrary measures; which begins the civil war in England.
1643 Excise on beer, ale, &c. first imposed by parliament.
1646 Episcopacy abolished in England.
1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
1654 Cromwell assumes the protectorship.
1655 The English, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
1658 Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the protectorship by his son Richard.
1660 King Charles II. is restored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
1662 The Royal Society established in London by Charles II.
1663 Carolina planted; in 1728, divided into two separate governments.
1664 The New Netherlands, in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch, by the English.
1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 persons.
1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2, and continued three days, in which were destroyed 13,000 houses, and 400 streets.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English the New Netherlands, new known by the names of Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.
1668 The peace of Aix la-Chapelle.
1669 St. James's park planted, and made a thoroughfare for public use, by Charles II.
1670 The English Hudson's Bay company incorporated.
1672 Louis XIV. overruns great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their sluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their settlements in the East Indies.
1674 African company established.
1678 The peace of Nimuegen.
1690 The habecs corpus act.
1680 A great comet appeared; and continued visible from Nov. 3 to March 9.
1695 William Penn, a quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennsylvania.
1683 India stock sold from 360 to 500 per cent.
1685 Charles II. dies, aged 54, and is succeeded by
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1688</td>
<td>The revolution in Great Britain begins Nov. 5; king James abdicates, and retires to France, December 3.</td>
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<td>1689</td>
<td>King William and queen Mary, daughter and son-in-law to James, are proclaimed February 16.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1690</td>
<td>The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1691</td>
<td>The war in Ireland finished, by the surrender of Limerick to William.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1692</td>
<td>The English and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Russel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1693</td>
<td>Bayonets at the end of loaded muskets first used, by the French against the confederates, in the battle of Turin.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1694</td>
<td>Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1695</td>
<td>The peace of Ryswyck.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1699</td>
<td>The Scots settle a colony at the islemus of Darien, in America, and called it Cale-donia.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1700</td>
<td>Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1701</td>
<td>Prussia erected into a kingdom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1702</td>
<td>King William dies, aged 50, and is succeeded by queen Anne, daughter to James II., who with the emperor, and States General, renews the war against France and Spain.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1704</td>
<td>Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards by admiral sir George Rooke.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1706</td>
<td>The treaty of union betwixt England and Scotland signed July 22.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1707</td>
<td>The first British Parliament.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1708</td>
<td>Minorca taken from the Spaniards by general Stanhope.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1708</td>
<td>The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1709</td>
<td>Sardina erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1710</td>
<td>Peter the great, czar of Muscovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1710</td>
<td>The battle of Malplaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1711</td>
<td>Queen Anne changes the whig ministry for others more favourable to the interest of her brother, the Pretender.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1711</td>
<td>The cathedral church of St Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1712</td>
<td>The English South-Sea company began.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1713</td>
<td>The Duke of Hamilton and lord Moline killed in a duel in Hyde-Park.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1713</td>
<td>The treaty of Utrecht, by which Newfoundland, Nova-Scotia, New Britain, and Hudson's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were also confirmed to the said crown by this treaty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1714</td>
<td>Queen Anne dies at the age of 50, and is succeeded by George I.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1715</td>
<td>Louis XIV. dies, and is succeeded by his great-grandson, Louis XV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1715</td>
<td>The rebellion in Scotland begins in September, under the earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriffmuir, and the surrender of Preston, both in November, when the rebels disperse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1716</td>
<td>The Pretender married to the Princess Sobieski, grand-daughter of John Sobieski, late King of Poland.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1719</td>
<td>The Mississippi scheme at its height in France.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1720</td>
<td>The South-Sea scheme in England begun April 7th, was at its height at the end of June, and quite sunk about September 29th.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1727</td>
<td>King George dies, in the 68th year of his age, and is succeeded by his only son, George II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1732</td>
<td>Koutli Khan usurps the Persian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with 251,000,001L sterling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1736</td>
<td>Captain Porteous having ordered his soldiers to fire upon the populace at the execution of a smuggler, is himself hung by the mob at Edinburgh.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1738 Westminster bridge, consisting of fifteen arches, begun; finished in 1750, at the expense of 399,000l. defrayed by parliament.

1739 War declared against Spain.

1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the English and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.

1744 War declared against France. Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world.

1745 The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy. The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.

1746 British Linen Company erected.

1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a resolution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all sides.

1749 The interest of the British funds reduced to three per cent.

British herring fishery incorporated.

1750 Frederick, prince of Wales, father to his present majesty, died.

Antiquarian society at London incorporated.

1752 The new style introduced into Great Britain, the third of September being counted the fourteenth.

1753 The British museum erected at Montagu-house. Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, instituted in London.

1755 Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, Nov. 1.

1756 One hundred and forty-six Englishmen confined in the black-hole at Calcutta, in the East Indies, by order of the nabob, and 123 found dead next morning. Marine Society established at London.

1757 Damien attempted to assassinate the French king.

1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the English.

1760 King George II. dies October 25th, in the 77th year of his age, and is succeeded by his present majesty, who on the 22d of September 1761, married the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh-Strelitz.

Blackfriars bridge, consisting of nine arches, begun; finished 1770, at the expense of 152,610l. to be discharged by a toll.

1762 War declared against Spain.

Peter III. emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered.

American philosophical society established in Philadelphia.

George Augustus Frederick, prince of Wales, born Aug. 12.

1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris February 10, which confirm to Great Britain the extensive provinces of Canada, East and West Florida, and part of Louisiana, in North America; also the islands of Grenada, St Vincent's, Dominica, and Tobago, in the West Indies.

1764 The parliament granted 10,000l. to Mr Harrison, for his discovery of the longitude by his time-piece.

1765 His majesty's royal charter passed for incorporating the society of artists.

An act passed annexing the sovereignty of the island of Man to the crown of Great Britain.

1768 Academy of painting established in London. The Turks imprison the Russian ambassador, and declare war against that empire.

1771 Dr Solander and Mr Banks, in his majesty's ship the Endeavour, lieut. Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries in the South Seas.

1772 The king of Sweden changes the constitution of that kingdom.

The emperor of Germany, empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, strip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties.

1773 Captain Phipps is sent to explore the north pole; but, having made eighty-one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to discover a passage in that quarter proves fruitless.

The Jesuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and suppressed by his bull, August 25.

The English East India Company having, by conquest or treaty, acquired the extensive provinces of Bengal, Oryca, and Bahar, containing fifteen millions of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their servants abroad: upon which government interferes, and sends out judges, &c. for the better administration of justice.

The war between the Russians and Turks proves disgraceful to the latter, who lose the islands in the Archipelago, and by sea are everywhere unsuccessful.

1774 Peace concluded between the Russians and Turks.

The British parliament having passed an act, laying a duty of three-pence per pound upon all teas imported into America, the colonists considering this as a grievance, deny the right of a British parliament to tax them.

Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, September 5th.

First petition of congress to the king, November.

1775 April 19, the first action happens in America between the king's troops and the provincials, at Lexington.

May 20, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.

June 17, A bloody action at Bunker's Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.

March 21, The town of Boston evacuated by the king's troops.

An unsuccessful attempt, in July, made by commodore Sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant-general Clinton, upon Charleston, in South Carolina.

The congress declare the American colonies
free and independent states, July 4. The Americans are driven from Long Island, New York, in August, with great loss, and great numbers of them taken prisoners; and the city of New York is afterwards taken possession of by the king’s troops.

December 25, General Washington takes 900 of the Hessians prisoners, at Trenton. Torture abolished in Poland.

1777 General Howe takes possession of Philadelphia.

General Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his arms at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army, under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold, Oct. 17.

1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France, Feb. 6.

The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expense in Westminster Abbey, June 9, in consequence of a vote of parliament.

The earl of Carlisle, William Eden, esq. and George Johnstone, esq. arrive at Philadelphia, the beginning of June, as commissioners for restoring peace between Great Britain and America.

Philadelphia evacuated by the king’s troops, June 18.

The congress refuse to treat with the British commissioners, unless the independence of the American colonies were first acknowledged, or the king’s fleets and armies withdrawn from America.

An engagement fought off Brest between the English fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet under the command of count d’Orvilliers, July 27.

1780 Torture in courts of justice abolished in France.

The Inquisition abolished in the duke of Modena’s dominions.

Admiral Rodney takes twenty-two sail of Spanish ships, Jan. 8.

The same admiral also engages a Spanish fleet under the command of Don Juan de Langara, near Cape St Vincent, and takes five ships of the line, one more driven on shore, and another blown up, Jan. 16.

Charlestown, South Carolina, surrenders to sir Henry Clinton, May 4.

Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida, surrender to the arms of the king of Spain, May 9.

The pretended Protestant Association, to the number of 50,000, go up to the House of Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of the Papists, June 2.

That event followed by the most daring riots in the city of London and in Southwark, for several successive days, in which some Popish chapels are destroyed, together with the prisons of Newgate, the King’s Bench, the Fleet, several private houses, &c. These alarming riots are at length suppressed, by the interposition of the military, and many of the rioters are tried and executed for felony.

1780 Five English East-Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships, bound for the West Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, Aug. 8.

Mr Laurens, late president of the Congress, taken in an American packet, near Newfoundland, Sept. 3.

General Arnold deserts the service of the Congress, escapes to New York, and is made a brigadier-general in the royal service, Sept. 24.

Major Andre, adjutant-general to the British army, hanged as a spy at Tappan, in the province of New York, Oct. 2.

Mr Laurens is committed prisoner to the Tower, on a charge of high treason, Oct. 4.

Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies, by which great devastation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other islands, Oct. 3. and 10.

A declaration of hostilities published against Holland, Dec. 20.

1781 The Dutch island of St Eustatia, taken by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, February 3; retaken by the French, November 27.

A bloody engagement fought between an English squadron under the command of admiral Parker, and a Dutch squadron under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank, Aug. 5.


1782 The house of commons address the king against any further prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, March 4.

Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over a French fleet, under the command of count de Grasse, near Dominica in the West Indies, April 12.

The resolution of the house of commons relating to John Wilkes, esq. and the Middlesex election, passed Feb. 17. 1769, rescinded May 3.

The bill to repeal the declaratory act of Geo. I. relative to the legislation of Ireland, received the royal assent, June 20.

The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack upon Gibraltar, Sept. 13.

Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland and the United States of America, Oct. 5.

Provisional articles of peace signed at Paris between the British and American commissioners, by which the thirteen United American Colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majesty to be free, sovereign, and independent states, Nov. 30.

1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majesty and the kings of France
and Spain signed at Versailles, Jan. 20.

1783 The order of St Patrick instituted, Feb. 5.
Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, Feb. 5, 7, and 28.
Armistice between Great Britain and Holland, February 10.
Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, September 3.

1784 The greatest seal stolen from the chancellor’s house in Great Ormond-street, March 24.
The ratification of the peace with America arrived, April 2.
The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
Mr Lunardi ascended in a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the first attempt of the kind in England, September 15.
The bull feasts abolished in Spain, except for house of patriotic uses, by edict, November 14.

1785 Mr Blanchard and Dr Jefferies went from Dover to Calais in an air balloon, in about two hours, January 17.
M. de Rosier, and M. Romain ascended at Boulogne, intending to cross the channel; in twenty minutes the balloon took fire, and the aeronauts came to the ground and were killed on the spot.

1786 The king of Sweden prohibited the use of torture in his dominions.
Cardinal Turlone, high inquisitor at Rome, was publicly dragged out of his carriage by an incensed multitude for his cruelty, and hung on a gibbet fifty feet high.
Commercial treaty signed between England and France, September 26.

1787 Mr Burke at the bar of the house of lords, in the name of all the commons of Great Britain, impeached Warren Hastings, late governor-general of Bengal, of high crimes and misdemeanors, May 21.

1788 In the early part of October, the first symptoms appeared of a severe disorder which afflicted our gracious sovereign. On the sixth of November they were very alarming, and on the thirteenth a form of prayer for his recovery was ordered by the privy council.

1789 His majesty was pronounced to be in a state of convalescence, February 17; and to be free from complaint, February 26.
A general Thanksgiving for the king’s recovery, who attended the service at St Paul’s, with a great procession, April 23.

1790 Grand confederation in the champ de Mars, July 14.

1791 Riots at Birmingham; the meeting houses, and houses of Dr Priestley and others, destroyed by the mob, July 14.

1792 The definitive treaty of peace was signed between the British and their allies, the

Nizam and Maharrattas on one part, and Tippoo Sultan on the other, March 19, by which he ceded one half of his territorial possessions, and delivered up two of his sons to lord Cornwallis, as hostages for the fulfilment of the treaty.

Gustavus III. king of Sweden, died on the 29th of March, in consequence of being assassinated by Ankerstrom.

1793 Louis XVI. after having received innumerable calls to abdicate from his people, was brought to the scaffold, January 21, and had his head severed by the guillotine, contrary to the express laws of the new constitution, which had declared the person of the king inviolable.

On the 25th of March, lord Grenville and count Woronzow signed a convention at London on behalf of his Britannic majesty and the empress of Russia, to employ their forces, conjointly, in a war against France. Treaties were also entered into with the king of Sardinia and the Prince of Hesse-Cassel.

The unfortunate queen of France, on the 10th of October, was conducted to the spot where Louis had previously met his fate, and beheaded by the guillotine in the thirty-eighth year of her age.

1794 On the first of June, the British fleet under the command of admiral Earl Howe obtained a signal victory over that of the French, in which two ships were sunk, one burnt, and six brought into Portsmouth harbour.

1795 In consequence of the rapid progress of the French arms in Holland, the Princess of Orange, the hereditary princess, and her infant son, arrived at Yarmouth on the 19th of January. The Stadtholder landed at Harwich on the 20th.

George prince of Wales married to the princess Caroline of Brunswick, April 8.
The trial of Warren Hastings concluded on the 23d of April, when he was acquitted of the charges brought against him by the house of commons.

1796 Lord Malmesbury went to Paris in October, to open negotiations for a general peace; but returned Dec. 29th, without having effected the object of his mission.

1797 A signal victory gained over the Spanish fleet by sir John Jervis, since created earl St Vincent, February 14.
An alarming mutiny on board the Channel fleet at Spithead, April 15.
The nuptials of the prince of Wirtemberg and the princess-royal celebrated at St James’s, May 18.

Another alarming mutiny on board the fleet at Sheerness.

Parker, the chief leader in this mutiny, executed on board the Sandwitch at Black-stakes, June 30.

Lord Malmesbury arrived at Lisle July 4, and opened a negotiation for a peace between England and the French Republic, but again returned without effecting the object of his mission, September 19.

A signal victory gained over the Dutch fleet
### A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1797</td>
<td>Peace between France and Austria definitively signed at Campo Formio, October.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1798</td>
<td>A dreadful rebellion in Ireland, which was quelled, after several battles with the insurgents, and much bloodshed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1799</td>
<td>The war against France recommenced by the emperor, and the French driven out of almost all their conquests in Italy, by the Austrians and Russians under Suvorov.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1800</td>
<td>A horrid attempt made on the life of his majesty by James Hadfield, a lunatic, who fired a pistol at him from the window of the Drury-lane theatre, May 15.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1801</td>
<td>The union with Ireland took place, Jan. 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1802</td>
<td>The Definitive Treaty of Peace between Great Britain and the French Republic signed at Amiens, March 27.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1803</td>
<td>A message from his majesty delivered to both houses of Parliament, announcing the liberal preparations that were being made in the ports of France and Holland.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1804</td>
<td>The duke d'Enghien, seized by Bonaparte on a neutral territory, April 3; shot in the night in the wood of Vincennes, April 11.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1805</td>
<td>A flag of truce came out of Boulogne and delivered to captain Owen of the Immortalite, dispatches containing a letter from Bonaparte to his majesty, (dated January 1,) expressing in general terms, a wish to put an end to the calamities of war, January 7.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1806</td>
<td>The Italian Republic declared an hereditary monarchy, by the title of the King of Italy. Bonaparte accepts the crown, March 17.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1807</td>
<td>The London dock opened, May 25.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1808</td>
<td>Bonaparte crowned king of Italy at Milan, May 26.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1809</td>
<td>France annexed to France, 4th June.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1810</td>
<td>Sir R. Calder, with 15 ships, defeats the combined fleets of France and Spain, and takes 2 ships, 22d July.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Note:** Detailed entries for specific events are not provided in the excerpt. The table offers a broad overview of significant historical events from 1797 to 1811, including declarations of peace and military engagements, the celebration of treaties, and the political landscape of the time. The text also highlights the personal actions and movements of key figures such as James Hadfield, Lord Nelson, and Emperor Napoleon Bonaparte.
### A New Chronological Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1805</td>
<td>General Mack surrenders Ulm with the flower of the Austrian army by capitulation</td>
<td>Ulm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Viscount Nelson, off Trafalgar, with 27 ships, totally defeats the combined fleets of France and Spain</td>
<td>Trafalgar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total losses were over 8000 men, and Bonaparte was defeated</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sir John Stuart defeats a superior French army in Calabria</td>
<td>Calabria</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lord Lauderdale arrives at Paris in August, to negotiate for peace</td>
<td>Paris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mr Fox</td>
<td>dies 13th September, and lord Thurloe about the same time.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hostilities</td>
<td>between France and Prussia commence, 8th October.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The</td>
<td>French totally defeated with immense loss, 14th, at Auerstadt, near Jena</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prince</td>
<td>Hohenlohe, the Prussian commander in chief, obliged to capitulate to the French</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austrian</td>
<td>Prince Hohenlohe, the Prussian commander in chief, obliged to capitulate to the French</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace</td>
<td>The French enter Berlin in triumph, 22nd October.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The</td>
<td>First imperial parliament dissolved, and orders issued for calling another, 24th October</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>The</td>
<td>Russian general Blucher defeated, and surrenders himself and army to the French</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>Duke of Brunswick dies of the wounds he received at the battle of Jena, Nov. 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A vessel</td>
<td>arrives from the West Indies at the Broomeclaw, Glasgow, being the first of the kind brought into that place, Nov. 15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>The French army, under Mortier, take possession of Hamburg, and seizes all the British property, Nov. 19</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Lord</td>
<td>Hutchinson sent by government on a mission to the court of Prussia, Nov. 20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>Bonaparte enters Warsaw, the capital of Poland, Dec. 19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The battle</td>
<td>of Pultusk, betwixt Bonaparte and the Prussians, when the French are repulsed, and lose 10,000 men killed and taken prisoners, Dec. 26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1807</td>
<td>Battle of Mohringen, when the French divisions of Ney and Bernadotte were completely defeated, with the loss of 4,000 men, and all their baggage, Jan. 25</td>
<td>Mohringen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle</td>
<td>Eylau, in Poland, where Bonaparte was defeated by general Benningsen, after four days fighting, with the loss of 15,000 killed, and 2000 prisoners, and 19 eagles. Some accounts say that the French lost above 20,000 men, Feb. 8.</td>
<td>Eylau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slave-trade</td>
<td>bill passed the House of Lords, Feb. 10.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>passed the House of Commons, March.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N. B. By the Dates is implied the Time when the above Writers died; but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by fl. The Names in Italics are those who have given the best English Translations, inclusive of School Books.

Ref. Ch.

907 HOMER, the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished. Pope. Cowper.

884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.

600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, fl. Fawkes.

588 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.

556 Æsop, the first Greek fabulist. Croxall.

549 Thales, the first Greek astronomer and geographer.

497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece. Rowe.

474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. Fawkes. Addition.

456 Æschylus, the first Greek tragic poet. Potter.

435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. Weist.

413 Herodotus of Greece, the first writer of profane history. Littlebury. Below.

407 Aristophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. White.

Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. Woodhill.


Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, fl.

400 Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece.

391 Thucydides, the Greek historian. Smith. Hobber.

361 Hippocrates, the Greek physician. Clifton.

Democritus, the Greek philosopher.


348 Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates. Sydenham.

356 Isocrates the Greek orator. Gillies.

332 Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Plato. Hobbes.

313 Demosthenes, the Athenian orator, poisoned himself. Leland. Francis.

288 Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle. Budgei.

285 Theocritus, the first Greek pastoral poet, fl. Fawkes.

277 Euclid, of Alexandria in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. R. Simson.

270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece.

264 Xeno, founder of the stoic philosophy in ditto.

244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet. Tytler.

208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.

184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. Thornton.

159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. Colman.

155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the stoic philosopher.

124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman historian. Hampton.

54 Lucretius, the Roman poet. Greelb.

44 Julius Cæsar, the Roman historian and commentator, killed. Duncan.

Diódoros Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, fl. Booth.

Vitrivius, the Roman architect, fl.

43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death. Guthrie. Melmoth.

Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. Rowe.

34 Sallust, the Roman historian. Gordon. Rowe.

30 Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Roman historian, fl. Speiman.

19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. Dryden. Pitt. Warton.


8 Horace, the Roman lyric and satiric poet. Francis.

A. C.

79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural historian. Holland.

17 Livy, the Roman historian. Hay.

19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. Garth.

20 Celsus, the Roman philosopher and physician, fl. Grieve.

25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.

33 Phaedrus, the Roman fabulist. Smart.

45 Paterculus, the Roman historian, fl. Newcome.

62 Persius, the Roman satiric poet. Br-auster.

64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman historian of Alexander the Great, fl. Digby.

Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death. L’Étrange.

65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. Rew.
A NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

93 Josephus, the Jewish historian. Whiston.
94 Epictetus, the Greek stoic philosopher, fl. Mr. Carter.
95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate Guthrie.
96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. Lewis.
97 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, fl.
98 Tacitus, the Roman historian. Gordon. Murphy.
99 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. Hay.
100 Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
119 Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer. Dryden. Langhorne.
120 Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet. Dryden.
140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, fl.
150 Justin, the Roman historian, fl. Turnbull.
161 Arrian, the Roman historian and philosopher, fl. Rooke.
167 Justin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles.
193 Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician.
200 Diojenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
229 Dion Cassius, of Greece, the Roman historian, fl.
254 Origen, a Christian father of Alexandria.
258 Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom. Marshal.
273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. Smith.
320 Lactantius, a father of the church, fl.
356 Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians.
342 Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologer. Hammer.
379 Basil, bishop of Csesarea.
389 Gregory Nazianzen, bishop of Constantinople.
397 Ambrose, bishop of Milan.
415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
420 Eutropius, the Roman historian.
524 Boethius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher. Bellamy. Preston. Redpath.
529 Procopius, of Csesarea, the Roman historian. Holcroft.

Here ends the illustrious list of ancient, or, as they are styled, Classic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, those two theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a small part only of their writings have come to our hands. This was owing to the barbarous policy of those illustrious pagans who, in the fifth century, subverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined soon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Constantinople alone had escaped the ravages of the barbarians; and to the few literati who sheltered themselves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preservation of those valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, succeeded worse than Gothic ignorance—the superstition and buffoonery of the church of Rome; Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the space of a thousand years; a period which historians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of Printing contributed to the Revival of Learning in the sixteenth century, from which memorable era a race of men have sprung up in a new soil. France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at least equal, the greatest geniiuses of antiquity. Of these our own countrymen have the reputation of the first rank, with whose names we shall finish our list.

A. C.

785 Bede, a priest of Northumberland; History of the Saxons, Scots, &c.
901 King Alfred; history, philosophy, and poetry.
1292 Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy.
1308 John Fordun, a priest of Mearns-shire; History of Scotland.
1400 Geoffrey Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.
1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.
1535 Sir Thomas More, London; history, politics, divinity.
1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
1568 Roger Ascham, Yorkshire; philology and polite literature.
1572 Rev. John Knox, the Scotch Reformer; History of the church of Scotland.
1592 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; History of Scotland, Psalms of David, politics, &c.
1598 Edmund Spenser, London, Fairy Queen, and other poems.
1615—25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.
1616 William Shakespeare Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
1622 John Napier, of Merchiston, Scotland; discoverer of logarithms.
1623 William Cambieen, London; history and antiquities.
1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philosophy and literature in general.

Ben Jonson, London; 53 dramatic pieces.

Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.

John Selden, Sussex; antiquities and laws.

Dr William Harvey, Kent; discoverer of the circulation of the blood.

Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.

John Milton, London; Paradise Lost, Regained, and various other pieces in verse and prose.


James Gregory, Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.

Reverend Dr Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics, and sermons.

Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.

Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.

Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, speeches, letters, &c.

Dr Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; Intellectual System.

Dr Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; History of Physic.

Nathaniel Lee, London; 11 tragedies.

Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.

Honourable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philosophy and theology.

Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee; Antiquities and laws of Scotland.

John Tillotson, archbishop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 sermons.

Sir William Temple, London; politics and polite literature.

John Dryden, Northamptonshire; 27 tragedies and comedies, satiric poems, Virgil.

John Locke, Somersetshire; philosophy, government, and theology.

John Ray, Essex; botany, natural philosophy, and divinity.

George Farquhar, Londonderry; eight comedies.

Ant. Ash. Cooper, earl of Shaftesbury; Characteristics.

Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, bishop of Salisbury; history, biography, divinity, &c.

Nicholas Rowe, Devonshire; seven tragedies, translation of Lucan's Pharsalia.

Rev. John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; mathematics and astronomy.

Joseph Addison, Wiltshire; Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.

Dr John Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics and astronomy.

Matthew Prior; poems and politics.

William Wollaston, Staffordshire; Religion of Nature delineated.

Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire; mathematics, geometry, astronomy, optics.

Rev. Dr Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathematics, divinity, &c.

Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.

William Congreve, Staffordshire; seven dramatic pieces.

John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.

Dr John Arbuthnot, Mearns-shire; medicine, coins, politics.

Dr Edmund Halley; natural philosophy, astronomy, navigation.

Dr Richard Bentley, Yorkshire; classical learning, criticism.

Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, translation of Homer.

Rev. Dr Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics, and letters.

Edwin Mullin, Argyleshire; algebra, view of Newton's philosophy.

James Thomson, Roxburghshire; Seasons and other poems, five tragedies.

Reverend Dr Isaac Watts, Southampton; logic, philosophy, psalms, hymns, sermons, &c.

Dr Francis Hutcheson, Ayrshire; system of moral philosophy.

Reverend Dr Conyers Middleton, Yorkshire; Life of Cicero, &c.

Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphysics, and natural philosophy.

Henry St John, lord Bolingbroke, Surrey; philosophy, metaphysics, and politics.

Dr Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the human body.

Dr Richard Mead, London; on poisons, plague, small pox, medicine.

Henry Fielding, Somersetshire; Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, &c.

Colley Cibber, London; 23 tragedies and comedies.

Thomas Sherlock, bishop of London; 69 sermons, &c.

Benjamin Hoadly, bishop of Winchester; sermons and controversy.

Samuel Richardson, London; Grandison, Clarissa, Pamela.

Reverend Dr John Leland, Lancashire; Answer to Deistical Writers.

Reverend Dr Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, three tragedies.

Robert Simpson, Glasgow; Conic Sections, Euclid, Apollonius.

Reverend Lawrence Sterne; 45 Sermons, Sentimental Journey, Tristram Shandy.

Robert Smith, Lincolnshire; harmonics and optics.

Rev Dr Jortin; Life of Erasmus, Ecclesiastical History, and Sermons.

Dr Mark Akenside, Newcastle-upon-Tyne; poems.

Dr Tobias Smollet, Dumbartonshire; History of England, novels, translations.

Thomas Gray, professor of Modern History, Cambridge; oems.

Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Chesterfield; letters.

George lord Lyttleton, Worcestershire; History of England.

Oliver Goldsmith; poems, essays, and other pieces.

Zachary Pearce, bishop of Rochester; Annotations on the New Testament, &c.
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1775 Dr John Hawkesworth; essays.

1776 David Hume, Merse; History of England, and essays.
James Ferguson, Aberdeen; astronomy.

1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.

1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays, &c.

William Warburton, bishop of Gloucester; Divine Legation of Moses, and various other works.


Dr John Fothergill, Yorkshire; philosophy and medicine.
James Harris; Hermes, Philological Inquiries, Philosophical Arrangements.

1782 Thomas Newton, bishop of Bristol, Lichfield; Discourses on the Prophecies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Baronet, Roxburghshire; Diseases of the army.

Henry Home, lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticism, Sketches of the History of Man.

1783 Dr William Hunter, Lanarkshire; anatomy.

Dr Benjamin Kennicott, Devonshire; Hebrew Bible, Dissertations, &c.

1784 Dr Samuel Johnson, Lichfield; English Dictionary, biography, essays, poetry; died December 13, aged 71.

1785 William Whitehead, poet-laureat; poems and plays.

Richard Glover, esq. Leonidas, Medea, &c.; died November 25.

1786 Jonas Hanway, esq. travels, miscellanies; died September 5, aged 74.

1787 Dr Robert Lowth, bishop of London; criticism, divinity, grammar; died November 3.


1788 James Stuart, esq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart," died February 1.

Thomas Gainsborough, esq. the celebrated painter; died August 2.


1789 William Julius Mickle, esq. Cumberland; translator of the Lusiad; died October 15.

1790 Dr William Cullen, Scotland; Practice of Physic, Materia Medica, &c.; died February 5.

Benjamin Franklin, esq. Boston, New England; Electricity, Natural Philosophy, miscellanies; died April 17.

Dr Adam Smith, Scotland; Moral Sentiments, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations; died April 17.

John Howard, esq. Middlesex; Account of Prisons and Lazarettos, &c.


1791 Reverend Dr Richard Price, Glamorganshire; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty, Annuities, Reversionary Payments, Sermons, &c.; died February 19, aged 68.

Dr Thomas Blacklock, Annandale; Poems, Consolations from Natural and Revealed Religion; died July, aged 70.

1792 Sir Joshua Reynolds, Devonshire, President of the Royal Academy of Painting; Discourses on Painting delivered before the Academy; died February 19, aged 68.

1793 Reverend Dr William Robertson, Principal of the University of Edinburgh, and Historiographer to his majesty for Scotland; History of Scotland, of the Reign of Charles V. History of America, and Historical Disquisition concerning India; died June 13, aged 72.

1794 Edward Gibbon, esq. Surry; History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire; died Jan. 10.

1795 Sir William Jones, one of the judges of India, and president of the Asiatic Society; several law tracts, translation of Iscana, and of the Moallakat, or seven Arabian poems, and many valuable papers in the Asiatic Researches.

1796 Reverend Dr George Campbell, Aberdeen; Philosophy of Rhetoric, Essay on Miracles; translation of the Gospel, &c.; died 6th April, aged 77.

Robert Burns, Scottish Poet; Letters, &c.; died July 21st aged 38.

1797 Edmund Burke, esq. Sublime and Beautiful, Tracts on the French Revolution.

1799 William Melmoth; Translations of Pliny's and Cicero's Letters, Fitzosborne's Letters, &c.

Lord Monboddo; Origin and Progress of Language.

1800 Reverend Dr. Joseph Warton; Poetry, Miscellaneous Literature.

William Cowper, esquire; Poetry.

Reverend Dr Hugh Blair; Sermons, Letters on Rhetoric.

1802 Dr Erasmus Darwin; Botanic Garden, Zoonomia.

1804 Dr Joseph Priestley; Natural Philosophy, Theological and Political Tracts.

1806 Dr Horsey, Bishop of St Asaph; Mathematical and Controversial Tracts.

Benjamin, Bell, System of Surgery.

Sir William Forbes, Baronet; Life of Dr Beattie, November 10.

FINIS.