

A N E W
S Y S T E M
O F
MODERN GEOGRAPHY:

O R,
A Geographical, Historical, and Commercial Grammar;
A N D
P R E S E N T S T A T E
O F T H E
SEVERAL NATIONS OF THE WORLD.

C O N T A I N I N G,

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| I. The Figures, Motions, and Distances of the Planets, according to the Newtonian System and the latest Observations. | VII. Observations on the Changes that have been any where observed upon the Face of Nature, since the most early Periods of History. |
| II. A general View of the Earth, considered as a Planet, with several useful Geographical Definitions and Problems. | VIII. The History and Origin of Nations; their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Military Strength. |
| III. The grand Divisions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Islands. | IX. The Genius, Manners, Customs, and Habits of the People. |
| IV. The Situation and Extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies. | X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce. |
| V. Their Climates, Air, Soil, Vegetables, Productions, Metals, Minerals, natural Curiosities, Seas, Rivers, Bays, Promontories, and Lakes. | XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curiosities. |
| VI. The Birds and Beasts peculiar to each Country. | XII. The Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Distances of principal Places from Philadelphia. |

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

- I. A Geographical Index,
WITH THE NAMES AND PLACES ALPHABETICALLY ARRANGED.
- II. A Table of the Coins of all Nations,
AND THEIR VALUE IN DOLLARS AND CENTS.
- III. A Chronological Table of remarkable Events,
FROM THE CREATION TO THE PRESENT TIME.
- IV. The late Discoveries of Herschell, and other Astronomers.

BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Esq.

THE ASTRONOMICAL PARTS CORRECTED BY DR. RITTENHOUSE.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOLUME I.

THE FIRST AMERICAN EDITION,
CORRECTED, IMPROVED, AND GREATLY ENLARGED.

PHILADELPHIA:
PRINTED BY MATHEW CAREY.

FEB. 1. M.DCC.XCIV.

PREFACE OF THE AMERICAN EDITOR.

THE first edition of this work was printed at London, about twenty-six years ago. Two other performances, on the same plan, had successively enjoyed a very extensive circulation. One of these was written by Mr. Gordon, and, considering the period in which it appeared, possessed great merit. His book was succeeded by that of Salmon, who is never mentioned with literary men, though his name better deserves the respect and gratitude of posterity, than one-half of those which compose the catalogue of authors. He compiled, in the course of a long and laborious life, as many volumes as would form a small library; and, as Smollet informs us, he was, at the age of four-score, writing in a garret, at a guinea per sheet. He was master of a pleasing and elegant style, of a considerable share of information, and above all, of that inestimable art of obtaining and securing the attention of the reader, without ever becoming tiresome. Of his geographical grammar, there was at least a fourteenth edition; and, undoubtedly, the impressions were considerably more numerous; because among the fourteen, those published in Ireland, and which have frequently supplied the American market, are not comprehended. This performance was greatly superior to that of Mr. Gordon; and, for many years, entirely engrossed the attention of the world. On the appearance of Guthrie's geographical grammar, that of Salmon, though in many points a much better book, sunk, from unbounded popularity, into oblivion. There are few examples, in the annals of literature, of so rapid a transition from celebrity to obscurity; but the circumstance is easily explained by the situation of the commerce of books in England. No country in the world ever laboured under a more complete aristocracy, than that which is exerted by the principal booksellers of London. When they have determined to force the sale of a publication, they can employ a variety of artifices which make its success almost infallible.

An American edition of this work had long been wanted; and the publisher was of opinion, that he could not give a more useful or acceptable present to the citizens of the United States. But, upon close examination, he very soon discovered, that the grammar, which had been so long, and so loudly celebrated, united, in many passages, almost every fault, that can disgrace a literary composition. The book was exactly calculated to flatter the grossest prejudices of the English nation, at the expense of every other part of the human species. The scurrility bestowed upon other nations, the Portuguese, and the Dutch, for example, was, at once, the most pitiful, ungenerous, and unjust. The panegyrics la-

vished upon England, a country, which certainly affords an ample basis for rational praise, were so fullsome, and even stupid, that it seemed impossible for any Englishman of liberal sentiments, to peruse them without disgust. This single article filled no less than two hundred and five pages of the last quarto edition of 1792; that is to say, *one-fifth part of the whole work*. Yet France, a country thrice as populous, and more than twice as large, was allowed but forty-two pages; and of these, several were very uninteresting. As to Scotland, we have made large and essential additions to its history, which had been strangely mutilated by our predecessor. An Irish edition of this work was published at Dublin, in 1789, in quarto, with voluminous additions, calculated for the local sale of that island. In the English editions, the account of Ireland had been drawn up with very little attention. Of these two rival publications, the one said by far too little, and the other said too much, though not perhaps for an Irish, yet certainly for an American reader. A middle course has been chosen. We have likewise added about sixteen pages to the historical part of the article, pages, which the London editor would not, and the Irish editor durst not, have written. Enjoying the inestimable advantage of living in a free country, where truth may be announced without dread or hesitation, we have spoken of nations, of statesmen, and of kings, with a frankness, to which, even in the best days of the British press, its authors hardly could aspire. As it is improper to advance an accusation, without, at the same time, producing proofs to support it, we shall here insert a few specimens of those inaccuracies, that are to be met with, in almost every page of the fifth and latest quarto edition of this work, printed, as we have observed, at London, in 1792.

Under the article of Italy, the English editor has published a table of the square miles of the territories of each state, and of some of the islands in the Mediterranean, adjacent to Italy. In summing them up, he has made a mistake, by giving as the total amount, seventy-five thousand and fifty-six, instead of ninety-seven thousand six hundred and seventy-two; an error which makes a difference of *twenty-two thousand six hundred and sixteen miles*.

In the same page, he says that "the form of Italy renders it very difficult to ascertain its extent and dimensions." In the next paragraph we are told, that "nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy." When once we have determined the *boundaries* of any given space, we certainly want no farther authority, for enabling us to ascertain its *extent* and *dimensions*.

The following passage exhibits what is commonly termed a bull. "The city *standing upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher.*" P. 636.

"Cagliari is an university, an archbishopric, and the seat of the viceroy, containing about fifteen thousand inhabitants." P. 641. As to the two first of these, he might, with equal propriety, have said, that Cagliari is a church, a stable, or a saw mill.

"The Venetians conquered Constantinople itself, and held it for some time, together with a great part of the continent of Europe and Asia." P. 646. The Venetians

held some provinces adjacent to Constantinople; but the expression in the text is very inaccurate.

“ 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 left unextinguished, *it communicates itself, by subterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it consumes; and about thirty-five years ago, the flames are said to have lasted for three years, BECAUSE (he means before) they could be entirely extinguished.*” P. 538.

“ The White Lake, in the same country, is said to dye those who wash in it, of a swarthy complexion.” P. 539.

“ There is a species of wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, *as well as natives*, are fond of.” P. 539. As the Ukraine is not once mentioned in any other part of this paragraph, it is not very easy to discover the exact meaning of the sentence, if it has any. If the writer intends to refer to the Polish Ukraine, which he does not hint, the distinction between the nobles and the natives is unintelligible; since the former are certainly, *as well as their vassals*, natives of the Ukraine.

In page 186, when a Scots army surrendered to a small party of English troops, at Solway Frith, in 1542, Guthrie says, that the English cavalry “ *slew great numbers.*” On the authority of Dr. Robertson, it has been said in the present edition, that the Scots surrendered, *without striking a blow*. In reality, no lives whatever were lost on this occasion.

In p. 610, Guthrie, in speaking of the conspiracy against the life of the late king of Portugal, says, that the families of Aveira and Tavora, who were destroyed by torture, “ were condemned without any proper evidence, and their INNOCENCE *has been since publicly and authentically declared.*” Be it so. But at the bottom of the same page, he tells us, that “ whether the discontented Jesuits were *really concerned* with the unfortunate noblemen, who suffered on that account, or not, *is difficult to determine!*” He himself, as we have just seen, had determined, that the noblemen themselves were *innocent*, and that their *innocence* had been *publicly and authentically* declared. It was therefore impossible, that the Jesuits, or any body else, could have been *concerned with them*, in that black transaction.

In p. 657, he says, “ that Candia, the ancient Crete, is still renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth-place of Jupiter, *the seat of legislature to all Greece*, and many other historical and political distinctions.” He might as well have said, that Philadelphia was *the seat of legislature to all Europe*. The laws of Crete were celebrated; but so were those of Athens, and of Sparta. Their wisdom in theory has been much admired by a croud of successive historians. Yet Polybius, in one of his fragments, that seems to have passed unobserved, remarks, that the Cretans were in a state of perpetual discord among themselves. The rest of the above sentence contains nothing but verbiage.

In p. 538, we are informed, that “ the air of Poland is such as may be expected “ from so extensive but *level* a climate !” What kind of air may be expected from a *perpendicular* climate ?

“ The forests of Warfovia contain plenty of *Uri* or buffaloes.” p. 539. He might have added, that they likewise contain plenty of *equi* or horses, and of *corvi* or crows.

In p. 559, we have the following extraordinary passage. “ Lewis the fourteenth, “ *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, to his own family.” It is hard to say, whether the elegance of this sentence, or its shrewdness, is most remarkable. Passing over both, we shall only observe, that, six years after the peace of Utrecht, the government of France declared war against Philip the fifth of Spain, *that very grandson*, to secure whose succession, Lewis, in the plenitude of his *masterly* politics, had almost *ruined himself*. Such is the *stability* of the boasted balance of power ! and such the maturity of diplomatic wisdom !

“ A series of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till “ about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms of Spain, *Portugal excepted*, (he “ might have also said, *France or Japan 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 one hundred and seventy “ thousand families.*”

“ The expulsion of the Moors, and Jews, in a manner depopulated Spain of “ artists, labourers, and manufacturers ; and the discovery of America not only “ *added to that calamity*, but rendered the remaining Spaniards *most deplorably indolent*. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the in- “ quisition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a safeguard against the re- “ turn of the Moors and Jews.” p. 597. The expulsion of the Moors and Jews did not happen till the year one thousand *six hundred and nine*. So that, Mr. Guthrie might as well have placed the conquest of Canada, by general Wolfe, in *the reign of James the first*.

In p. 585, he says, “ that the emperor Charles the fifth began a new palace, (at Granada) in fifteen hundred and *sixty-eight*.” Within a few pages we are informed that Charles himself resigned his crown in the year fifteen hundred and fifty-six, and died *two years afterwards* ; so that the emperor must have founded this palace, ten years after he was in his grave. In any other book, the mistake of a single figure might candidly have been ascribed to the corrector of the press. But, when we are assured that Ferdinand and Isabella, a century after they were buried, *expelled an hundred and seventy thousand families of Moors and Jews, out of Spain*, it appears to be the most natural circumstance in the world, that an emperor might

build a palace *ten years after his death!* We mention this error as a specimen of hundreds of the same kind, which had escaped in all the former editions of this book.

When a story flatly contradicts the very first principles of common sense and possibility, it is of no consequence upon what authority it is related. The transcriber and the inventor stand exactly on a level. Whether the editors of this book have themselves fabricated the following stupendous fiction, or whether they have copied it, from some former fabulist, cannot be worth an enquiry. When describing the siege of Gibraltar, the writer proceeds thus: “Amidst this dreadful scene, there were two boys who proved of singular use to the garrison, *the acuteness of their fight being such that they could* (let future ages hear it, and admire!) *trace the shot from the mouth of the cannon, and thus give warning to the soldiers of their danger.*” p. 600. What is this better than Livy cutting a whetstone with a razor, and telling us of two moons that were seen in the sky at the same time; or, than John Struys ascending Mount Ararat, and cutting a crucifix from the ribs of Noah’s ark!

Our next extract is nonsense of a different kind. “The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and in the district of Samogitia particularly, make them *wear little bells before and behind*, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing,” p. 543. On this *ingenious* piece of intelligence, a correspondent makes this just observation: “The paragraph is so *silly*, and mentions what is so *highly improbable*, that I think it would be proper to omit it altogether.”

In page 561, we meet with “the *latitude* of Mont Blanc!” It appears from the context, that he means the altitude. After telling us in the same page, that this mountain is fifteen thousand *six hundred and sixty-two* feet in height, he concludes with the following profound observations. “Some philosophers, upon considering the great superiority of the eastern rivers over the European, both in depth and breadth, have drawn a presumptive argument that the Asiatic mountains are much more lofty than those of Europe. But conjectures *are now banished from natural philosophy*; (NO!) and until it shall be proved from undoubted calculations, that the highest part of the Caucasus rises more than fifteen thousand feet above the level of the sea, Mont Blanc may be fairly considered as *more elevated* ;” which, no doubt, is a very *surprising* discovery.

The lakes of Turkey in Europe, “are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great *applause*, either by the ancients or moderns.” p. 650.

“Leopold, his second son, king of Hungary, *is now* grand duke, and Tuscany has assumed a new face.” p. 655.

In the advertisement to this edition, which was published, as we have already noticed, in 1792, we are informed that “the historical narrative, throughout, has been brought down *to the present time*, and attention has been paid to the important occurrences, which, in this eventful period, have arisen upon the continent of Europe.”

Leopold was elected emperor on the 9th of October, seventeen hundred *and ninety*, and ought to have been mentioned as such in the preceding passage of a book published in 1792. He died on the first of March, 1792. And yet of his death, or even the date of his coronation, as king and emperor, there is not the least notice in this edition, but merely that he succeeded Joseph.

“ He would behold a vast chain of mountains, intersected by numerous vallies, “ and *composed of many parallel chains.*” p. 560. A chain, composed of *parallel chains*, is at least a novelty.

The following paragraph deserves particular attention on a more important account, than that for which it is here quoted.

“ In the course of the late war, from 1776, to 1782, forty-six millions five hundred and fifty thousand pounds *was* added to the three per cents; and twenty-six millions, seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds to the four per cents, “ making together a capital of seventy-three millions, *four* hundred thousand pounds, for which the money advanced was only *forty-eight millions.*” p. 273. The two sums nominally borrowed, and here added together, make only seventy-three millions three hundred thousand pounds. In several former editions the error in summing up amounted to several millions; and even yet, as it seems, they have not been able to add it *exactly*.

“ An Englishman of education and reading, is the most accomplished gentleman in the world.” p. 201. This is one of those silly passages that reflect ridicule on the writer. What is an accomplished *English* gentleman better than one of the same character in France, Ireland, America, or any where else?

The taxes raised on the people of Britain annually, amount, exclusive of the charge of collecting, “ to upwards of *fourteen* millions sterling.” p. 275. Before this edition of 1792 was printed, they extended to *sixteen* millions sterling.

“ The *irresistible* spirit and weight of the English cavalry, render them superior to all others in war.” p. 197. And again: “ No country in Europe equals “ England in the beauty of its prospects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.” p. 194. Such adulation has, no doubt, promoted the sale of the book, in which, the author is every where solicitous to represent the English nation, as the most perfect of the human species, and the country itself as a terrestrial paradise. If the cavalry of England are *irresistible*, how does it happen that they are so frequently beaten? “ In the beauty of its prospects,” England is far exceeded by Switzerland, and is, at least, equalled by the greater part of Europe. As to the superior opulence of its inhabitants, it is well known that the Dutch are, by far, the richest nation in that part of the world. The government of Switzerland has very large sums lent at interest; while nobody can tell, *within ten or twenty millions sterling*, how far the government of England is in debt. England swarms with beggars. In Holland and Switzerland they are almost entirely unknown.

“ The code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all the nations in Europe, as the ground of their marine constitutions, was confessedly compiled by our king Richard the first.” p. 278. Richard was an illiterate barbarian, and, as such, utterly incapable of writing on laws, or on any other subject, that deserved the notice of mankind. We have struck out *some hundreds of passages* of this sort. Indeed, the article of England is still disproportionately large. Yet, it has been reduced, from two hundred and five pages, to *one hundred and thirty*; and besides, we have found room for numerous and important additions.

“ Such regulations are, however, made at present,” (seventeen hundred and ninety) “ and actually have taken place.” p. 274. In the advertisement already quoted, we have been told, that the historical narrative was brought down to *the present time*, which appears not to be the case. It is hardly necessary to say, that the account of the American war, under the article of England, abounds with misrepresentations, and likewise with omissions, which, by concealing, what ought, in justice, to be told, amount to the same effect.

When describing the ravages committed by the locusts in Spain, the writer adds, “ the description of this gloomy scene, at least of one similar to it, which *a prophet* has given us, is scarcely to be equalled for beauty and poetic fire. He calls upon the people to lament, because a nation, strong and without number, whose teeth are the teeth of lions, had suddenly invaded them. Then, TURNING TO THE HERALDS, *blow ye the trumpet, &c.* which will richly compensate the reader for the trouble of consulting it. Joel xi. 1. 11.” p. 577. Of this elegant and *perspicuous* passage, we have only to observe, that it has been reprinted, exactly as it stands in the original.

The United States occupy thirty-nine pages of the London edition; that is, something less than *one-fifth part* of the number of pages assigned to England. The writer pretends to quote the American geography of mr. Morse, as to Vermont and Kentucky, and, with great generosity, has assigned to each of these two states, *one hundred and fifty thousand* inhabitants. If he had consulted the census printed by order of congress, and dated the twenty-fourth of October, seventeen hundred and *ninety-one*, he would have seen that both Vermont and Kentucky, together, contained, at that time, but *an hundred and fifty-nine thousand two hundred and sixteen* people. To Georgia, he allows but *forty thousand*. By the census, they were *eighty-two thousand five hundred and forty-eight*. North-Carolina he estimates *two hundred and seventy thousand*; though the census rates them at *three hundred and ninety-three thousand seven hundred and fifty-one*. South-Carolina contains, by the census, two hundred and forty-nine thousand and seventy-three inhabitants; but they are reduced, by the English editor of this grammar, to *one hundred and eighty thousand*. It is needless to enlarge farther on this subject; since the task is both disagreeable and invidious. We shall only just observe, that in p. 909, “ Radnor, and Oxford,” are mentioned as “ *very considerable towns*” in Pennsylvania;

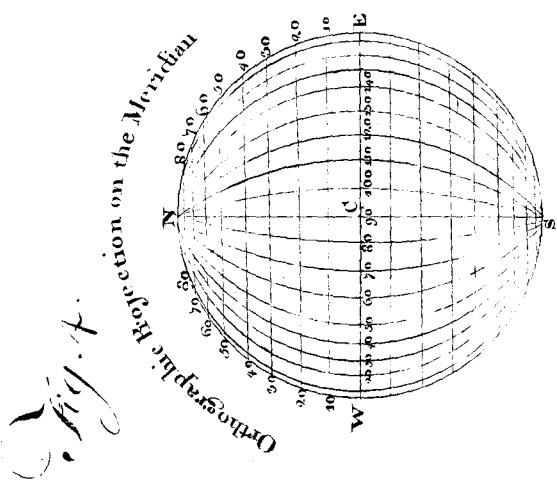
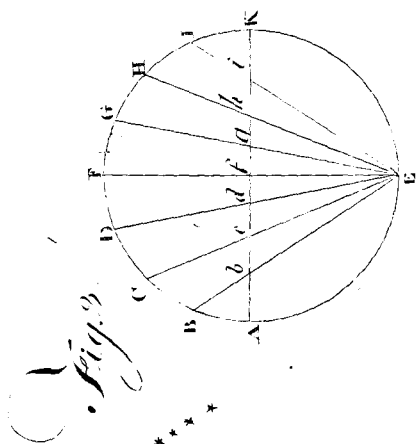
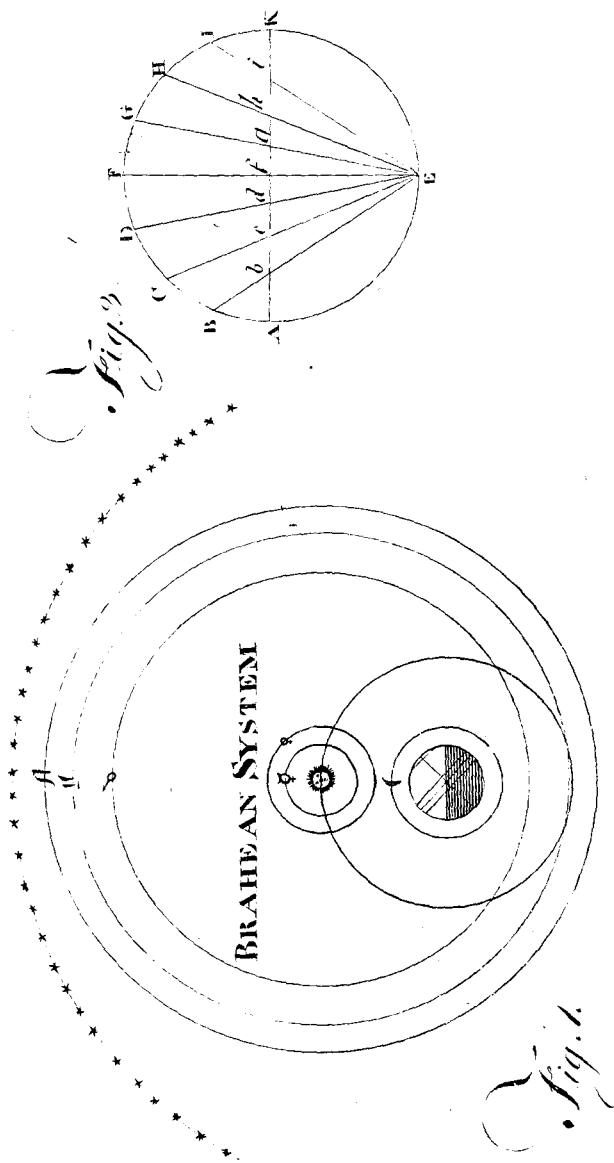
and that this writer has bestowed upon Philadelphia, “CANALS from the two rivers, “ which contribute not only to the beauty, but the wholesomeness of the city.” It would have been more for the honour of the work, had the account of the United States been omitted altogether. In this edition, a new account will be given from the best authorities which can be obtained.

We have thought it requisite to enter into this explanation, with respect to the European editions of this performance. The alterations and additions in the present one, are so numerous, that it better deserves the title of an original work, than some mutilated transcripts of Guthrie, which, under a different name, have been introduced to the world. The article of Sweden is entirely written over again; of Ireland, and Scotland, we have already taken notice. In Russia, Holland, the Austrian Netherlands, Germany, and Prussia, we have made large additions. The literary articles of Spain and Italy, are much more complete than formerly; and we have, throughout, almost in every page, made a variety of corrections, which, though, separately taken, they are minute, yet all together, form a very considerable improvement. The work of Guthrie has the appearance of being written at various times, and by different hands; for passages are sometimes evidently thrust in, which are unconnected with the context. In point of common grammar, we have made corrections past number, and we hope that the time and unexpected labour bestowed in improving the work, will be admitted as an apology for some delay in the periods of publication.

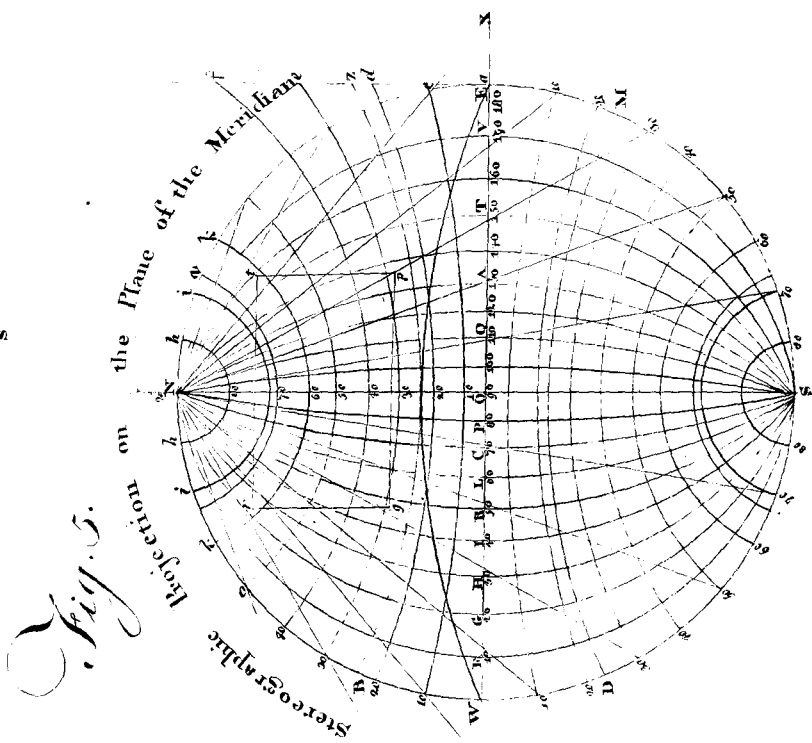
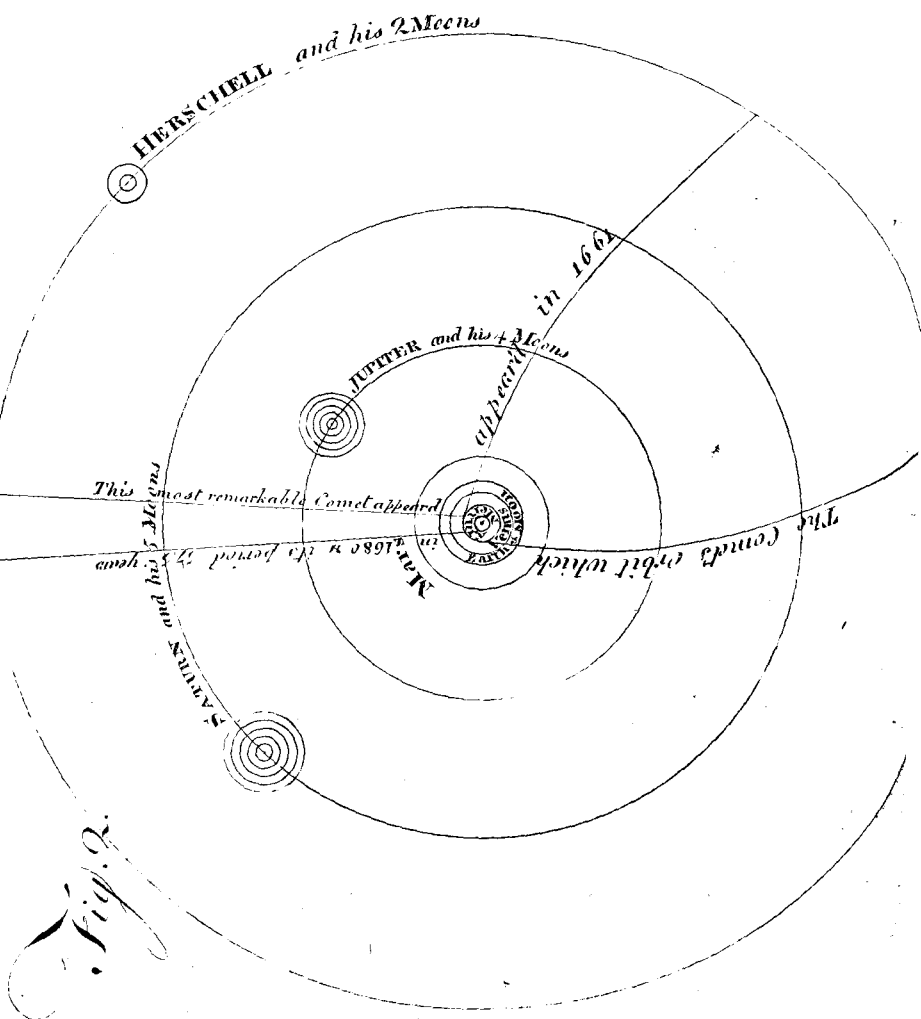
The maps added to this edition are twenty-one, among which are those of New-Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode-Island, Vermont, New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North-Carolina, the Tennessee government, South-Carolina, and Georgia. These maps have never been given in any former system of geography, and, it is hoped, would alone be sufficient to secure this work a preference to any other edition of Guthrie.

It only remains to observe—and the observation is made with due gratitude—that the encouragement with which this work has been favoured, has exceeded the publisher’s most sanguine expectations. The subscriptions have rapidly increased, and it is expected that the whole number of copies printed off, will be subscribed for, long before the impression can be finished.

Philadelphia, February 5, 1794.



COPERNICAN SYSTEM



INTRODUCTION.

P A R T I.

OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

S E C T. I.

Of the PLANETS, the COMETS, the FIXED STARS, and the different SYSTEMS of the WORLD.

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

The earth was long considered as one extensive plane, of no great thickness, and the regions below it, were supposed to be the habitations of spirits. The heavens, in which the sun, moon, and stars appeared to move daily from east to west, were conceived to be at no great distance from it, and to be only designed for the use or ornament of our earth. Several reasons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; and we have now a sufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators who have sailed round it, particularly from that of Magellan's ship, which was the first that surrounded the globe, sailing east from a port in Europe in 1519, and returning to the same, after a voyage of 1124

* This planet has the name of its discoverer, Herschell, given to it by the French, Germans, Americans, &c. In England, it is called the Georgium Sidus,

days, without apparently altering its direction more than a fly would appear to do in moving round a ball.

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

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

THE PLANETS.] Thus much being premised, with regard to the motion of the earth, which the smallest reflexion may lead us to apply to the other planets, we must observe, before exhibiting our table, that, beside the seven planets already mentioned, which move round the sun, there are fourteen other bodies, which move round four of these, in the same manner as they do round the sun; and of these, our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four, Saturn has seven, (two of these having been lately discovered by dr. Herschell) and Herschell has two, as that excellent astronomer has shown. These are called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was first attended to: and sometimes they are called *secondary* planets, or satellites, because they seem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Herschell, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

There are two observations more, necessary for understanding the following table. They are these. We have already said, that the annual motion of the earth occasioned the diversity of seasons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, 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. It now remains, to consider what is meant by the *mean distances* of the planets from the sun. In order to understand this, we must learn, that the path which a planet describes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the shape of a figure called an ellipsis, which, though resembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the same planet is not always at the same distance from the sun; and the mean distance of it is that which is exactly between its greatest and least distance. Here follows the table.

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

Names of the planets.	Diameters in English miles.	Mean distances from the sun*.	Annual periods round the sun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
Sun	890,000		y. d. h.	l. h. m.			
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	25 6 0	109,699	3,818	8 0
Venus	7,906	68,891,406	0 224 17	unknown.	80,295	unknown.	unknown.
Earth	7,979	95,173,000	1 0 0	24 8 10	68,243	† 43	75 0
Moon	2,180	ditto	1 0 0	1 0 0	22,290	1,042	23 29
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	29 12 44	55,287	9½	2 10
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	0 24 40	29,083	556	0 0
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	29 167 6	0 9 56	22,101	25,920	0 0
				unknown.	unknown.	unknown.	unknown.

The planet Herschell, (or, as it is termed in England, the Georgium Sidus) having greatly excited the attention of the learned world, it would be unpardonable, in a work of this nature, to omit giving the reader a brief account of it; which we shall draw from the best authority. It was discovered by dr. William Herschell, in the year 1781; for which he obtained from the Royal Society the honorary recompence of sir Godfrey Copley's medal. The editor of the last edition of Chambers's dictionary (the rev. dr. Rees) having been favoured with an account of this planet from the ingenious discoverer, we give an extract from that work. "From many calculations of our best astronomers, and mathematicians, says dr. Herschell, I have collected the following particulars, as most to be depended upon.

Place of the node	—	—	—	2 11 49 30
Inclination of the orbit	—	—	—	43 35
Place of the perihelion	—	—	—	172 13 17
Time of the perihelion passage	—	—	—	Sept. 7, 1799
Eccentricity of the orbit	.82034			
Half the greater axis	19.07904			
Revolution	—	83.3364	fidereal years.	

"From my own observations on this planet's apparent diameter, which I have

* As determined from observations of the transit of Venus, in 1761.

† Uncertain.

found cannot well be less than 4, nor indeed much greater, I infer that its real diameter is, to that of the earth, as 4.454 to 1; and hence, it appears to be of very considerable bulk, and, except Saturn and Jupiter, by far the largest of the planets. Its light is of a bluish-white colour, and its brilliancy between that of the moon, and that of Venus. With a telescope which magnifies about three hundred times, it appears to have a very well-defined visible disk; but with instruments of a small power, it can hardly be distinguished from a fixed star of between the sixth and seventh magnitude. In a very fine, clear night, when the moon is absent, it may also be seen by the naked eye."

On the 11th of January, 1787, dr. Herschell discovered two satellites belonging to this planet.

THE COMETS.] The reader having obtained an idea of the planets, from the table in the foregoing page, and the previous observations necessary for understanding it, must next turn his reflexion to the comets, which, as they revolve round our sun, are a part of the solar system. These, descending from the far distant parts of the system with great rapidity, sometimes surprise us with the singular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them; become visible 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 opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like those we see in it every night, and in a few moments vanishing, no care was taken to 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 a much greater density than the earth; for some of them are heated, in every period, to such a degree, as would vitrify any substance known to us. Sir Isaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when nearest the sun, to be two thousand 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 twenty thousand years; and it is computed to be only five hundred and seventy-five. There are various comets belonging to our system, passing in all directions. Above sixty have been already observed, which move through the ethereal regions and the orbits of the planets, without suffering any sensible resistance in their motions; which proves that the planets do not move in solid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of seventy-five, one hundred and twenty-nine, and five hundred and seventy-five years. That which appeared in 1680, is the most remarkable. Its greatest distance is about eleven thousand two hundred millions of miles from the sun, while its least distance from the centre of the sun is about four hundred and ninety thousand miles; within less than one-third part of the sun's semidiameter from his surface. In that part of its orbit, which is nearest to the sun, it flies with the amazing velocity of eight hundred and eighty thousand miles in an hour; and the sun, as seen from it, appears one hundred degrees in breadth, consequently forty thousand times as large as he appears to us. The astonishing distance that this comet runs out into empty space, naturally suggests to our imagination, the vast distance between our sun, and the nearest of the fixed stars, of whose attractions all the comets must keep clear, to return periodically and go round the sun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of astronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to those of sir Isaac Newton on this subject. Our earth was out of the way, when this comet last passed near her orbit: but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of

the comet, to be able to judge if it will always pass by us with so little effect; for, it may be observed, that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth: so that, in some revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very considerable, if not very fatal effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keill, M^cLaurin, Derham, Ferguson, and Whiston.

THE FIXED STARS.] Having thus briefly surveyed the solar system, which, though great in itself, is small in comparison with the immensity of the universe, we next proceed to the contemplation of those other vast bodies, called the *fixed stars*; which, being of infinite use in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. These fixed stars are distinguished by the naked eye, from the planets, by being less bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the stars. This arises from their being so small, that the interposition of the least body, of which there are many constantly floating in the air, deprives us of the sight of them; when the interposed body changes its place, we again see the star; and this succession being perpetual, occasions the twinkling*. But a more remarkable property of the fixed stars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their situation, with regard to each other, though 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 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 telescopes, indeed, the number of the fixed stars has been justly considered as amazing; because, the greater perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars always appear to us. Mr. Flamsteed, late royal astronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about three thousand 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, we 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; forty-four thousand stars, seen in the space of a few degrees, seem to indicate that there are seventy-five millions in the heavens." But, what are all these, when compared to those that

* That this is not the cause of the twinkling of the stars, has been observed before, but the error has, nevertheless, been continued. Tho' the fixed stars are at such immense distances from us, that the rays of light coming to us from different points of the same star, may be considered as parallel to each other, and consequently the star must appear as a point; yet, when we consider the great breadth of the pupil of the eye, especially in the night, being from a fifth to a quarter of an inch, it is evident that particles floating in the air, sufficient to deprive us of the sight of a star, must at least be as big as common peas. For such a particle must not only have its apparent diameter equal to that of the star, but its real diameter, at whatever distance, must be equal to the diameter of the pupil of

the eye; otherwise it cannot intercept the pencil of rays which would enter the eye, and there paint the image of the star. The true cause of this appearance seems to be the refracting power of the atmosphere, by which the rays of light, which were equally diffused before, are thrown into waves, if I may so call them, of unequal densities, and the pencils which enter the eye, become, alternately, more or less dense, and, consequently, the star will appear, by turns, more and less brilliant; whilst the same thing cannot take place with the planets, by reason of the variety of angles under which the rays of light, from their surfaces, enter our atmosphere; nor with the fixed stars at great altitudes, because their light is then but very little refracted.

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 each other, 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 one hundred and sixty-two millions of miles in diameter) round the sun, the distance of a fixed star is not sensibly affected by it; so that, the star does not appear to be any nearer us, when the earth is in that part of its orbit nearest the star, than it seemed to be when the earth was at the most distant part of its orbit, or one hundred and sixty-two millions of miles farther removed from the same star. The star nearest us, and constantly the largest in appearance, is the dog-star, or Sirius. Modern discoveries make it probable, that each of these fixed stars is a sun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as the earth and other planets revolve round our sun. Now, the dog-star appears twenty-seven thousand 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, 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 an European voyage. A sound would not arrive to us from thence in fifty thousand years; which, next to light, is considered as the quickest body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball, flying at the rate of four hundred and eighty miles in an hour, would not reach us in seven hundred thousand years.

The stars, being at such immense distances from the sun, cannot possibly receive from him so strong a light as they seem to have; nor any brightness sufficient to make them visible to us; for the sun’s rays must be so 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 reflexion. The stars, therefore, shine with their own native and unborrowed lustre, as the sun does; and since each star, as well as the sun, is confined to a particular portion of space, it is plain that the stars are of the same nature with the sun.

It is not probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wisdom, should have created so many glorious suns, fit for so many important purposes, and placed them at such distances from each other, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Whoever imagines that they were created merely to impart a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, must have a very superficial knowledge of Astronomy*, and a mean opinion of the Divine Wisdom; since, by an infinitely less exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one single additional moon.

Instead, then, of one sun and one world only in the universe, as the unskilful in astronomy imagine, *that* science discovers to us such an inconceivable number of suns, systems, and worlds, dispersed through boundless space, that, if our sun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to him, 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

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

scarcely be a sensible blank in the universe, although the Herschell, the outermost of our planets, revolves about the sun in an orbit of ten thousand eight hundred and thirty millions of miles, in circumference, and some of our comets make excursions many thousand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Herschell; and yet, at that amazing distance, they are incomparably nearer to the sun than to any of the stars; as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the stars, and returning periodically by the force of the sun's attraction.

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

Since the fixed stars are prodigious spheres of fire, like our sun, and at inconceivable distances from each other, as well as from us, it is reasonable to conclude they are made for the same purposes as the sun; 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 of thousands of suns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immense distances from each other, attended by ten thousand times ten thousand worlds, all in rapid motion; yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths prescribed 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 for 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 England do the same; for they distinguish that great northern constellation, which philosophers call the *Ursa Major*, by the name of the plough, the figure of which it certainly may represent, with a very little aid from the fancy. But the constellations, in general, have preserved the names which were given them by the ancients, by whom there were reckoned twenty-one northern, and twelve southern: but the moderns have increased the number of the northern to thirty-six, and of the southern to thirty-two. Besides these, there are the twelve signs or constellations in the Zodiac, as it is called from a Greek word, signifying an animal, because each of these twelve 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.

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 popular opinion, as to believe that the earth upon which we live, was not immovable. We find, accordingly, that Thales, the Milesian, who, about five hundred and eighty years before Christ, first taught astronomy in Europe, had calculated eclipses, or interpositions of the moon, between the earth and the sun, or of the earth between the sun and moon; the nature of which may be easily under-

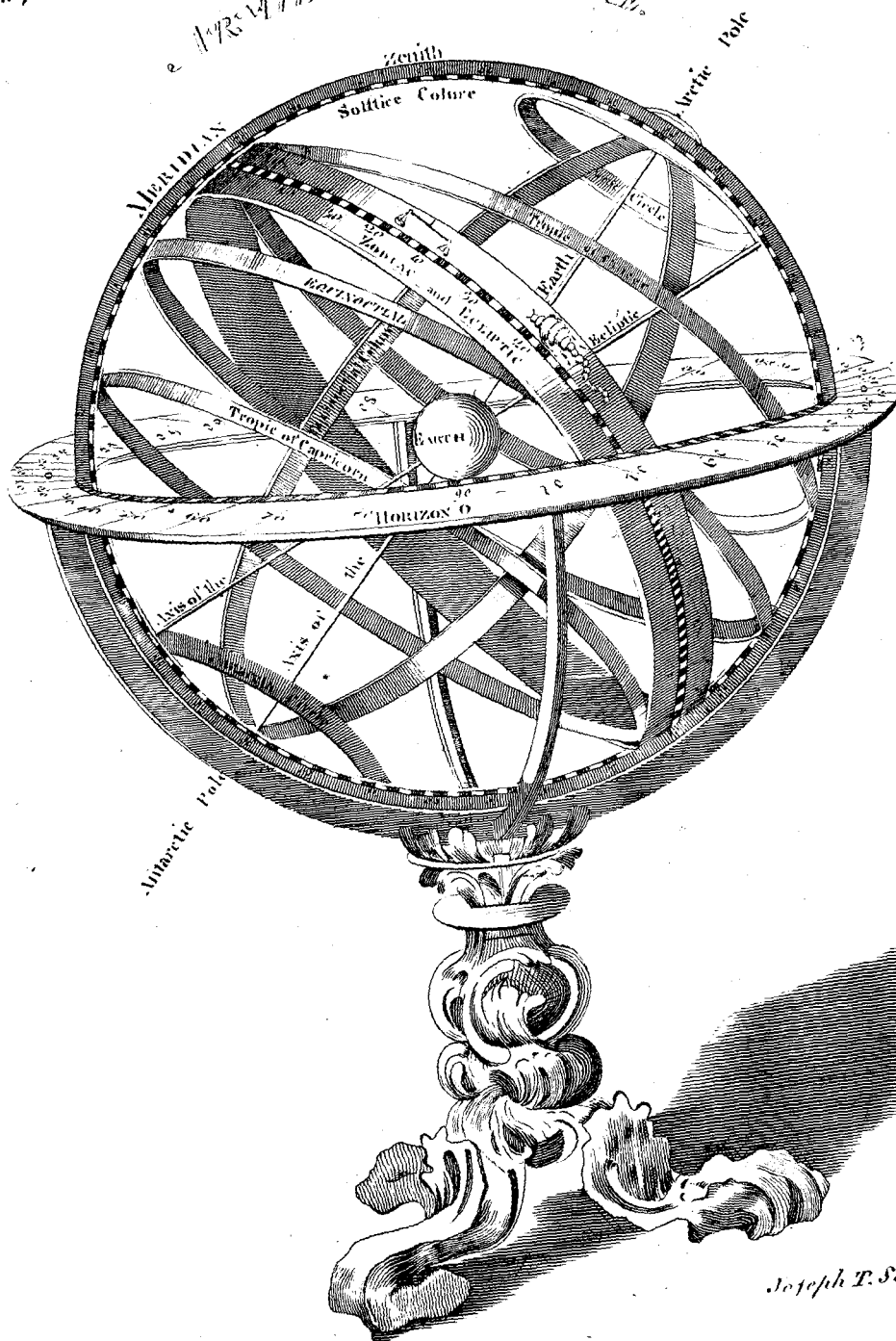
flood, from what we have already observed. Pythagoras, a Greek philosopher, flourished about fifty years after Thales, and was equally well acquainted with the motions of the celestial bodies. This led him to conceive an idea, which there is no reason to believe ever had been thought of before, namely, that the earth itself was in motion, and that the sun was at rest. He found that it was impossible, in any other way, to give a consistent account of the heavenly motions. This system, however, was so extremely opposite to common prejudices, that it never made great progress, nor was ever widely diffused. The philosophers of antiquity, despairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reason, endeavoured to adapt one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the case with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philosopher, who flourished one hundred and thirty-eight years before Christ. He supposed, with the vulgar, that the earth was fixed immoveably in the centre of the universe, and that the seven planets, considering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed stars, then the crystalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, lastly, the *cælum empyreum*, or heaven of heavens. All these orbs he supposed to move round the earth once in twenty-four hours; besides moving in certain stated or periodical times. To account for these motions, he supposed a number of circles, called excentrics and epicycles, crossing and interfering with one another. This 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.

At 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 so long been 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 was still immersed in ignorance; and mankind could not fully comprehend this sublime system. This occasioned Copernicus to have many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a 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, which was still more perplexed and embarrassed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and it makes the sun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The sun, however, with all the planets, is supposed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This system, notwithstanding its absurdity, met with its advocates. Longomontanus, and others, so far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they insisted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkness of many ages, the dawn of learning and taste appeared in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate astronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the use of telescopes, which afforded new arguments in support of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The ignorance and inveterate prejudices of the times had almost checked this flourishing bud. Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican system as a damnable heresy. But the illumination, which the revival of learning produced, made mankind perceive, that the scriptures were not given for explaining systems of natural philosophy, but for a nobler purpose, to make us 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 should employ our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to God, 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 discove-

Revised for Carey's American Edition of *WILLIAM STRICKLAND's* *Guthrie's Geography improved.*



Joseph T. Scott sculp.

ries 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 a 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 fabric of nature from confusion and disorder.

S E C T. II.

Of the doctrine of the Sphere.

HAVING, in the foregoing section, treated of the UNIVERSE in general, in which the earth has been considered as a planet, we now proceed to the doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought always to be premised before that of the globe, or earth, as we shall see in the next section. In discussing this subject, we shall consider the earth as at rest, and the celestial bodies, as performing their revolutions round 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. The imagination, therefore, is not put on the stretch; the idea is easy and familiar, and, in delivering the elements of science, this object cannot be too much attended to*.

The ancients observed, that all the stars 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, 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 run round them. In order to imitate these motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whose extremities were fixed to the immoveable points, called *poles*. They farther observed, that on the 20th of March, and 23d 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 of December, the sun advanced every day towards a certain point, and, having arrived there, returned towards that from whence he set out, from the 22d of December, to the 21st of June; they fixed *these points*, which they called *Solstices*, because the direct motion of the sun was stopped at them; and represented the bounds of the sun's motion, by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, because the sun no sooner arrived there, than he turned back. Astronomers, observing the motion of the sun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree, or the 360th part of a great circle in the heavens,

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

every twenty-four hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it passes thro' 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 28 minutes, the sun's greatest inclination. To express this motion, they supposed two points in the heavens, equally distant from, and parallel to, this circle, which they called the *Poles* of the *Zodiac*, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, describe the *two polar circles*. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles, called *Colures*, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the *Zodiac*. The ancients also observed, that when the sun was in any point of his course, the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they called a *Meridian*, and 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.

S E C T. III.

The doctrine of the globe naturally follows that of the sphere.

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

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though, in speaking of the earth, with the other planets, it was sufficient to consider it as a spherical or globular body; yet it has been discovered, that this is not its true figure; and that the earth, though nearly a sphere or ball, is not perfectly so. This occasioned a great dispute between the philosophers of the last age; among whom, sir Isaac Newton, and Cassini, a French astronomer, were the heads of two parties. Sir Isaac demonstrated, from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate sphere*, or that it was flatted at the poles, and juttet out towards the equator; so that a line, drawn through the centre of the earth, and passing thro' the poles, which is called a *diameter*, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same centre, and passing at right angles to the former. The French philosopher asserted the contrary. But the dispute was terminated, in 1736, by the French king, who sent out a company of philosophers towards the north pole, and likewise towards the equator, in order to measure a degree, or the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle in these different parts; and, from their report, the opinion of sir Isaac Newton was confirmed beyond dispute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been considered as more flat towards the poles than the equator. The reason of this figure may be easily understood, if the reader comprehends what we observed, with regard to the earth's motion; for, if we fix a ball of clay on a spindle, and whirl it round, we shall find that it will project towards the middle, and flatten

towards the poles. This is exactly the case with regard to our earth; only, that its axis, represented by the spindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not perfectly spherical, the difference from that figure is so small, that it may be represented by a globe, without any sensible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the table which we have exhibited, the diameter of the globe is given, according to the best observations; so that its circumference is twenty-five thousand and thirty-eight English miles. This circumference 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 an half. These degrees are in the same manner conceived to be divided each into sixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The axis of the earth is that imaginary line passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the poles of the earth; one in the north, and the other in the south, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens, called the north and south poles. The knowledge of these poles, is of great use to the geographer, in determining the distance and situation of places; for the poles mark the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; so that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator; and *vice versa*.

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

EQUATOR.] The first *great circle* we shall speak of, is the *Equator*, of which we have already made mention. It is sometimes called the *Equinoctial*; the reason of which we have explained; and, by navigators, it is also called the *Line*, because, according to the rude notions they formerly entertained, they believed it to be a great line drawn upon the sea from east to west, dividing the earth into the northern and southern hemispheres, and which they were actually to pass in sailing from the one into the other. The poles of this circle are the same with those of the world. It divides the globe into the northern and southern hemispheres, and is itself divided into three hundred and sixty degrees; the use of which will soon appear.

HORIZON.] This *great circle* is represented by a broad circular piece of wood, encompassing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres. Geographers properly distinguish the horizon into the *sensible* and *rational*. The first is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight, when we view the heavens around us *apparently* touching the earth or sea. This circle determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eastern edge, they are said to rise, and to set when they go beneath the western. Each place has its own *sensible* horizon. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompasses the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (two points in its axis, each ninety degrees distant from its plane) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*; the first exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle, which represents it on the globe, has several circles drawn upon it. Of these, the innermost is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve signs of the Zodiac, viz. thirty to each sign. The next has the names of these signs, with the days of the month, by the old and new style. A third circle represents the thirty-two points of the mariner's compass.

MERIDIAN.] This *circle* is represented by the *brass ring*, on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and sixty degrees, and cuts the equator

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

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

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

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

TROPICS.] Suppose two 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. These are called Tropics, because the sun appears, when in them, to recede from his former course. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, because they pass through these points.

POLAR CIRCLES.] 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. These are the *four lesser circles*. Besides these circles now described, which are always drawn on the globe, there are several others, which are only supposed to be drawn on it. They will be explained as it becomes necessary, lest the reader should be fatigued with too many definitions at the same time, without seeing the purpose for which they serve. The design of these circles is to exhibit the respective situations of places on the earth, and we shall proceed to consider more particularly how they conduce to this end. It was found more easy to distinguish places by the quarters of the earth in which they lay, than by their distances from any one point. For as the equator divided the earth into two parts, the northern and southern hemispheres, it was readily seen that all places on the globe might be distinguished, according as they lay on the north or south side of the equator.

ZONES.] After the four lesser circles came to be known, the earth, by means of them, was divided into five portions, and the places on its surface were distinguished according as they lay in one or other of these portions, which are called Zones. This name is derived from the Greek word *Zone*, which signifies a girdle, as the Zones stretch quite round the globe in that form.

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and was called

by the ancients *torrid*, because they conceived, that, being continually exposed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the sun, it could contain nothing but parched and sandy deserts. This idea has long since been refuted. The long nights, heavy dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almost throughout the torrid zone, make the earth not only habitable, but so fruitful, that in many places, the husbandman has two harvests in a year. All kinds of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes more metals, precious stones and pearls, than all the rest of the globe. This zone comprehends the East and West Indies, Philippine Islands, those of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Madagascar, part of South America and Africa, and almost all captain Cook's discoveries, including the northern parts of New-Holland.

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

The northern *frigid zone* comprehends Nova Zembla, Lapland, part of Norway, Baffin's bay, part of Greenland and Siberia. The southern *frigid zone* has no land known to us; and from the observations of captain Cook, who, in the years 1772, 1773, 1774, and 1775, resolved the great problem of a southern continent, it is ascertained that there is no habitable land in the southern frigid zone. That celebrated navigator traversed the southern hemisphere between the latitudes of 40 and 70. He discovered nothing but mountains of floating ice, or heads of broken land buried under eternal frost and snow, and utterly inaccessible to man or beast.

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

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

The *southern* temperate zone comprehends the south part of New Holland, the Cape of Good Hope, and Cape Horn.

CLIMATES.] The divisions of the earth into hemispheres and zones, though of advantage to ascertain in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not sufficiently minute for conveying an idea of the distance between one place and another. This, however, is still more necessary; because it is of more importance to mankind, to know the situation of places, with regard to one another, than with regard to the earth itself. The first step taken for determining this matter, was to divide the earth into what are called climates. It was observed, that the day was always twelve hours long on the equator, and that the day increased in proportion as we advanced north or south of it. The ancients, therefore, ascertained how far any place was north or south of the equator, or what is called the *latitude* of the place, from the greatest length of the day there. This made them suppose a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different distances from the equator. And as they called the space contained between these circles, climates, because they declined from the equator towards the poles, so the circles themselves may be called, *climatical parallels*. This, therefore, was a new division of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and still continues in use; though, as we shall show, the design which first introduced it, may be better answered in another way. There are thirty climates between the

equator and the pole. In the first twenty-four, the days increase by half hours; but in the remaining six, between the polar circle and the poles, the days increase by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the use of the globe. We insert a table which shows in what climate any country lies, supposing the length of the day, and the distance of the place from the equator, to be known.

Cli.	Latitude.		Breadth.		Long. Day.		Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in every Climate, north of the Equator.
	D.	M.	D.	M.	H.	M.	
1	8	33	8	33	12	30	I. Within the first climate lie the Gold and Silver coasts in Africa; Malacca, Cayenne, and Surinam.
2	16	43	8	10	13		II. Here lie Abyssinia, Siam, Madras, Pondicherry, Straits of Darien, Tobago, the Grenadas, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes.
3	24	10	7	27	13	30	III. Contains Mecca, Bombay, part of Bengal, Canton, Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadaloupe.
4	30	46	6	36	14		IV. Egypt, the Canary Islands, Delhi, Gulf of Mexico, East-Florida, and the Havanna.
5	36	29	5	43	14	30	V. Gibraltar, part of the Mediterranean sea, the Barbary coast, Jerusalem, Ispahan, Nankin, California, New-Mexico, West-Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas.
6	41	21	4	52	15		VI. Lisbon, Madrid, Minorca, Sardinia, part of Greece, Asia Minor, part of the Caspian sea, Samarcand, Pekin, Corea, Japan, Williamsburg, Maryland, and Philadelphia.
7	45	29	4	8	15	30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain, Southern departments of France, Turin, Genoa, Rome, Constantinople, the Black sea, the Caspian sea, part of Tartary, New-York, and Boston.
8	48	59	3	30	16		VIII. Paris, Vienna, Nova-Scotia, part of Newfoundland, and Canada.
9	51	55	2	56	16	30	IX. London, Flanders, Prague, Dresden, Cracow, southern provinces of Russia, part of Tartary, north part of Newfoundland.
10	54	28	2	33	17		X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, part of Tartary, Warsaw, Labrador, and New-South-Wales.
11	56	36	2	8	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, and Moscow.
12	58	25	1	49	18		XII. South part of Sweden, and Tobolski, in Siberia.
13	59	58	1	33	18	30	XIII. Orkney isles, and Stockholm.
14	61	16	1	18	19		XIV. Bergen, and Petersburg.
15	62	29	1	8	19	30	XV. Hudson's Straits.
16	63	20		56	20		XVI. Siberia, and the south part of West-Greenland.
17	64	8		48	20	30	XVII. Drontheim.
18	64	48		40	21		XVIII. Part of Finland.
19	65	20		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel.
20	65	46		26	22		XX. Hecla.
21	66	6		20	22	30	XXI. Northern parts of Russia, and Siberia.
22	66	19		13	23		XXII. New-North-Wales.
23	66	27		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's Straits.
24	66	32		4	24		XXIV. Samoieda.
25	67	21			1	Month	XXV. South part of Lapland.
26	69	48			2	Months	XXVI. West-Greenland.
27	73	37			3	Months	XXVII. Zembla Australis.
28	78	30			4	Months	XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84	5			5	Months	XXIX. Spitzbergen, or East-Greenland.
30	90				6	Months	XXX. Unknown.

LATITUDE.] The distance of places from the equator, or what is called their *latitude*, is easily measured on the globe, by means of the meridian above described. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, a place on the northern side of the equator is in north, and a place on the southern side is in south latitude. No place can have more than ninety degrees of latitude, because the poles 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, shows the true situation of that place.

LONGITUDE.] The *longitude* of a place, means its situation with regard to its meridian, and consequently is reckoned towards the east or west. In reckoning the longitude, there is no particular spot from which we 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 generally fix the first meridian, from which the degrees of longitude are reckoned, in the capital city of the different nations where they are made, viz. the English globes date the first meridian from London or Greenwich, the French globes, from Paris, &c. The degrees of longitude are marked on the equator. No place can have more than one hundred and eighty degrees of longitude, because, the circumference of the globe being three hundred and sixty degrees, no place can be moved from another above half that distance; but some 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 sixty degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, is exhibited in the following table.

A TABLE showing the number of Miles contained in a degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
1	59	96	19	56	73	37	47	92	55	34	41	73	17	54
2	59	94	20	56	38	38	47	28	56	33	55	74	16	53
3	59	92	21	56	01	39	46	63	57	32	67	75	15	52
4	59	86	22	55	63	40	45	96	58	31	79	76	14	51
5	59	77	23	55	23	41	45	28	59	30	90	77	13	50
6	59	67	24	54	81	42	44	59	60	30	00	78	12	48
7	59	55	25	54	38	43	43	88	61	29	09	79	11	45
8	59	42	26	53	93	44	43	16	62	28	17	80	10	42
9	59	26	27	53	46	45	42	43	63	27	24	81	09	38
10	59	09	28	52	98	46	41	68	64	26	30	82	08	35
11	58	89	29	52	48	47	40	92	65	25	36	83	07	32
12	58	68	30	51	96	48	40	15	66	24	41	84	06	28
13	58	46	31	51	43	49	39	36	67	23	45	85	05	23
14	58	22	32	50	88	50	38	57	68	22	48	86	04	18
15	57	95	33	50	32	51	37	76	69	21	51	87	03	14
16	57	67	34	49	74	52	36	94	70	20	52	88	02	09
17	57	38	35	49	15	53	36	11	71	19	54	89	01	05
18	57	06	36	48	54	54	35	26	72	18	55	90	00	00

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE ON THE ARTIFICIAL GLOBE FOUND.] To find the longitude and latitude of any place, we bring that place to the brazen meridian, and 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 compare the degrees of either thus found, with one another, and reduce these degrees into miles, according to the table above given; remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to sixty geographic miles, or sixty-nine and a half English.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The distances of places which lie in an oblique direction, that is, 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 twenty-five degrees, which, at sixty miles to a degree, makes the distance fifteen hundred geographic miles.

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to supply the place of the compasses in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of brass, screwed on the brazen meridian, which contains ninety 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.

HOURLY CIRCLE.] This is a small brass circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into twenty-four hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

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

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

PROB. 2. *To rectify the globe.*

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

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

For this, we have already given directions.

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

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

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

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

PROB. 6. *To find the sun's place in the ecliptic at any time.*

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

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

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

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

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

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

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian, the pole being raised (d) 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. (d) PROB. 3.

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

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

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

The day being given (which must always be one of those either between the vernal equinox and the summer solstice, or between the autumnal equinox and winter sol-

(e) PROB. 6. *stice*), find (*e*) the sun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the same, bring it to the brazen meridian, and count 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 where the reckoning ends. This done, turn the globe round, and all the places passing under the mark 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 making a mark, and turning the globe round, all places passing under the mark, are those where the sun begins his total disappearance from the given day.

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

(f) PROB. 2. Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and, observing its latitude, (*f*) 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 constantly shines above the horizon of the given place; and the opposite arch of that circle will give the number of days in which he is totally absent, and also will point which are the days. In the interval he will rise and set.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII. and observe what places are exactly under the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, for in them it is mid-day at the time given. Which done, turn the globe till the index point at the lower figure of XII. and at such places as are then opposite the lower semicircle of the meridian, 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 points at the hour desired, and observing the places then under the brazen meridian.

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

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

(a) PROB. 6.
(b) PROB. 16.

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

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

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

To those places that 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 at any time by an almanac; and her latitude, which is her distance from the ecliptic, by applying the semicircle of position to her place in the zodiac. For the solution of the problem

- (a) PROB. 2. (*a*) elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and the
(b) PROB. 6. 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, 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 meets with the eastern and western side of the horizon, as also the brazen meridian, and the index will point at those times, the particular hours of her rising, setting, and southing.

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

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true distance from each other, reckoning every degree to be sixty-nine and a half 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 of the same distance from the given place.*

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

Methods for finding the LATITUDES and LONGITUDES of places from CELESTIAL OBSERVATIONS.

I. OF FINDING THE LATITUDE.] As the latitude of a place is an arch of the meridian intercepted between the zenith and the equinoctial, which is always equal to the height of the visible pole above the horizon, it follows, that if the meridional altitude, or its complement, the zenith distance of any celestial object whose place in the heavens is known, can be found, the latitude is easily discovered. Thus, if the heavenly object be in the equinoctial, the zenith distance will be equal to the latitude, which will be either north and south, according as the observer is situated either to the northward or southward of the object. But, if the sun or star hath either north or south declination, that is, if its apparent diurnal motion be either to the northward or southward of the equinoctial, the declination must either be subtracted from, or, added to the zenith distance, according as the zenith distance and declination are of the same or different denominations. The method is this.

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

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

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

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

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

In the year 1598, Philip the third of Spain offered a reward of one thousand crowns for the solution of this problem: this example was followed by the States General, who offered ten thousand florins. In 1635, John Morrin, professor of mathematics at Paris, proposed a method of resolving it to cardinal Richlieu. Though the commissioners, who were appointed to examine his method, judged it insufficient, on account of the imperfection of the lunar tables, cardinal Mazarin, in 1645, procured for him a pension of two thousand livres. In 1714, an act was passed by the British parliament, appropriating a sum, not exceeding two thousand pounds, towards making necessary experiments; and granting a reward of ten thousand pounds to the person that should determine the *longitude* at sea, to one degree of a great circle, or sixty geographical miles; fifteen thousand pounds, if the longitude be determined to two-thirds of that distance; and twenty thousand pounds, if it be determined to half that distance.

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

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

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

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

Suppose, for instance, the beginning of an eclipse of the moon happened at London sixteen minutes after two in the morning, and at thirty-four minutes, twenty seconds after nine in the evening at Boston, in New-England; then will the difference of time be four hours, forty-one minutes, forty seconds, equal to seventy degrees, twenty-five minutes, the difference of longitude; and because the time is less at Boston, than at London, the difference of longitude will be west. Consequently, if the longitude be reckoned from the meridian of London, the longitude of Boston will be seventy degrees twenty-five minutes west. See Ferguson's Astronomy, chap. xi.

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

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

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

There is still another method, equally expeditious and certain, namely, the approaches of the moon to certain fixed stars*, and their eclipses by reason of her body. For, the moon finishing her revolution in twenty-seven days, seven hours, forty-three minutes, there are but few clear nights, when she does not pass over, or so near some fixed stars, that the time of the nearest approach, or the visible conjunction may be easily observed. Marking exactly the apparent time of these observations, and knowing the latitude of the place, its longitude may thence be computed.

It will be obvious to every reflecting reader, that, as many of the above observations must be made by a telescope, the constant motion of a ship under sail will render it impossible to make them at sea, with any sufficient accuracy. To remedy this

* The calculation in this case is encumbered with parallax, like those of eclipses of the sun.

Inconvenience, mr. Christopher Irvin invented what he called a marine chair. This chair was tried by mr. Maskelyne, in his voyage to Barbadoes, who found it totally impracticable to derive any advantage from it. And besides, since all methods, which depend upon the phenomena of the heavens, have also this other defect, that they cannot be observed at all times, it became a great desideratum in navigation to discover some other method of ascertaining the longitude at sea.

It is well known, that if a time-keeper could be made with sufficient accuracy, so as to keep exact time, by having such a clock or watch on board, the longitude might be easily determined; for, by finding the time of the day at any other place, and comparing it with the time then shown by such a machine, the difference of longitude between those places will be determined. The ingenious mr. Harrison, a few years since, completed such a time-keeper, which was found upon trial, to answer even beyond the most sanguine expectations; and he accordingly received ten thousand pounds from the British government, as a reward for his discovery.

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

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

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

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, twelve 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. twelve hours each, when the sun is in the equinoctial; for, in all the elevations of the pole, short of ninety degrees (which is the greatest), one half of the equator will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

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

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

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

9. The sun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to those under the tropics, once a year, but never any where else. For there can be no place

between the tropics, but there will be two points in the ecliptic, whose declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches: and as the sun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

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

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 to, or the more remote from the pole, these places are, the longer or shorter is the sun's continual presence or absence.

13. If a ship sets out from any port, and sails round the earth eastward to the same port again, whatever time she takes to perform her voyage, the people on board in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than those who reside at the same port; because by going contrary to the sun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, 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 at the port; because, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the sun, they will keep him each particular day so much longer above their horizon as answers to that day's course; and thereby they cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without losing one moment of absolute time.

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

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE constituent parts of the earth are two, *land* and *water*. The parts of the land are continents, islands, peninsulas, isthmuses, promontories, capes, coasts, mountains, &c. The land is divided into two great continents (besides the islands) viz. the *eastern* and *western*. The eastern is subdivided into three parts, viz. Europe,

or the north-west ; Asia, or 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, sixty or seventy miles broad.

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

The parts of the water are oceans, seas, lakes, straits, 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 Ocean divides the eastern and western continents, and is three thousand miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Asia, and is about ten thousand miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the East-Indies and Africa, being about three thousand miles wide.

An *ocean* is a great and spacious collection of water, without any entire separation of its parts by land ; as the Atlantic Ocean. A *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 Erie, lake Ontario. A *strait* is a narrow part of the sea, restrained or lying between two shores, and opening a passage out of one sea into another ; as the strait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is sometimes called a *sound* ; as the Baltic sound. 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 does 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 smaller 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 land and water which we have described, it is proper to observe, that there is a strong analogy or resemblance between them.

The description of a continent resembles that of an ocean. An island encompassed with water resembles a lake encompassed with land. A peninsula of land is like a gulf or inland sea. A promontory, or cape of land, is like a bay or creek of 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.

	Square miles.	Islands.	Square miles.	Islands.	Square miles.
The Globe — —	148,510,627	Hispaniola	36,000	Skye	900
Seas and unknown parts — —	117,843,821	Newfoundland	35,500	Lewis	880
The habitable world * — —	30,666,806	Ceylon	27,730	Funen	768
Europe — — —	2,749,349	Ireland	27,457	Yvica	625
Asia — — —	10,257,487	Formosa	17,000	Minorca	520
Africa — — —	8,506,208	Anian	11,900	Rhodes	480
America — — —	9,153,762	Gilolo	10,400	Cephalonia	420
Persian empire under Darius	1,650,000	Sicily	9400	Amboyna	400
Roman empire at its utmost height	1,610,000	Timor	7800	Orkney Pomona	324
Russian — — —	3,376,485	Sardinia	6600	Scio	300
Chinese — — —	1,749,000	Cyprus	6300	Martinico	260
Great Mogul — — —	1,116,000	Jamaica	6000	Lemnos	220
Turkish — — —	960,057	Flores	6000	Corfu	194
British, exclusive of settlements } in Africa	809,996	Ceram	5400	Providence	168
Present Persian — — —	800,000	Breton	4000	Man	160
		Socatra	3600	Bornholm	160
		Candia	3220	Wight	150
		Porto Rico	3200	Malta	150
		Corfica	2520	Barbadoes	140
		Zealand	1935	Zant	120
		Majorca	1400	Antigua	100
		St. Jago	1400	St. Christopher's	80
		Negropont	1300	St. Helena	80
		Teneriffe	1272	Guernsey	50
		Gothland	1000	Jersey	43
		Madeira	950	Bermudas	40
		St. Michael	920	Rhode Island	52
Islands. { Borneo — — —	228,000				
Madagascar — — —	168,000				
Sumatra — — —	120,000				
Japan — — —	118,000				
Great-Britain — — —	72,926				
Celebes — — —	68,400				
Manilla — — —	58,500				
Iceland — — —	46,000				
Terra del Fuego — — —	42,075				
Mindanao — — —	39,200				
Cuba — — —	38,400				
Java — — —	38,250				

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

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

We cannot finish the theory of the earth, without considering winds and tides, from which the changes that happen on its surface principally arise.

WINDS.] The earth is every where surrounded by a fine invisible fluid, which extends several miles above its surface, and is called *Air*. It is found by experiments, that a small quantity of air is capable of being expanded, so as to fill a very large space, or to be compressed into a much smaller compass than it occupied before. The general cause of the expansion of air, is heat; the general cause of its contraction, 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

* The number of inhabitants in the known world, have been computed at nine hundred and fifty-three millions. The calculation must necessarily be extremely vague and erroneous; we, however, annex it. Let the reader exercise his own judgment on it.

Europe is supposed to contain,	153 Millions.
Asia,	500
Africa,	150
America,	150

Total 953 Millions.

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 are constant east winds throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, called the *Trade Winds*. This is occasioned by the action of the sun, which, in moving from east to west, heats, and consequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means, a stream or tide of air, always accompanies him in his course, and occasions a perpetual east wind within these limits. This general cause is modified by a number of particulars, the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our present plan; which is, to mention facts rather than theories.

It is likewise found, that in some parts of the Indian ocean, which are not more than two hundred leagues from land, there are reperiodical winds, called *Monsoons*, which blow half the year in one direction, and half the year in another. At the change of these Monsoons, which always happens at the equinoxes, there are terrible storms of thunder, lightning, wind, and rain. It is discovered, also, that in the same latitudes, there is another kind of periodical winds, which blow from the land in the night and great part of the morning, and from the sea about noon, till midnight. These, however, do not extend two or three leagues from shore. Near the coast of Guinea, in Africa, the wind blows always from the east, south-west, or south. On the coast of Peru, in South-America, the winds blow constantly from the south-west. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and south, the winds 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 Verd and the easternmost of the Cape de Verd islands, there is a tract of sea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with violent thunder and lightning, and such rains, that this sea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

TIDES.] By the *tides* is meant the regular motion of the sea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obscurity till sir Isaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction; for, having demonstrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the solar system, by which they mutually draw or attract 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, we shall be sensible of the reason why the tides ebb and flow, twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on the 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 action of both the sun and moon is united, and draws in the same strait 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 these 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 is 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 impel ships a great way beyond their intended course. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama islands, which always runs from south to north.

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

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

The conclusion from these remarks is, that as it must greatly impede a ship which, through its captain's ignorance, is stemming this current against her, at the rate of three miles an hour; so a vessel from Europe to North America may shorten her passage by avoiding the stream, in which the thermometer will be useful; and a vessel from America to Europe may derive equal advantage by keeping in it.*

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

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

ocean, the tides rise very little ; but in some bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they rise from twelve to fifty feet.

MAPS.] A map is the representation of the earth, or a part of it, on a plane surface. Maps differ from the globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth ; but a map represents it only as a plane surface does one that is spherical. But, although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of several, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the representation will not fall much short of the globe for exactness ; because such maps, if joined together, would form a spherical convex nearly as round as the globe.

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

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is scarcely a greater variety in any thing, than in this sort of measure. Not only those of separate countries differ, as the French from the English, but those of the same country vary, in the different provinces, 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 five thousand two hundred and eighty feet, one thousand seven hundred and sixty yards, or eight furlongs.

The Russian vorst is little more than three quarters of the English mile.

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

The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about one and a quarter English.

The Scotch and Irish mile are about an English mile and a half.

The Indian is almost three English.

The Dutch, Spanish, and Polish, are about three and half English.

The German is more than four English.

The Swedish, Danish, and Hungarian, are from five to six English.

The French common league is near three English, and

The English marine league is three English miles.

* The American and English miles are the same.

P A R T II.

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

TO prepare the reader for entering upon the particular history of each country, which we shall describe, it has been thought necessary to place before his eye a general view of the history of mankind, from the first ages of the world, to the reformation, 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 is a matter of high importance in itself, and indispensibly requisite to the proper comprehension 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.

It appears, in general, from the first chapters in Genesis, that the world, before the deluge, was extremely populous; and that mankind had made considerable improvement in the arts, and become extremely vicious both in their sentiments and manners. Their wickedness gave occasion to a memorable catastrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were destroyed. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of this world, produced a very great change on the soil and atmosphere of the 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 hath ever since made such havoc in the world. A curious part of history follows that of the deluge, the repopling of the earth, and the rising of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three sons of Noah, the first founders of nations, was long preserved among their several descendants. Japhet continued famous among the western nations, under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and, among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter Hammon. It appears, that hunting was the principal occupation for some centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beasts; and the great heroism of those times consisted in destroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired renown; and was enabled to obtain an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found, at Babylon, the first monarchy whose origin is particularly mentioned in history. Not long after, the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Assur; and in Egypt, the four governments of Thebais, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. 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 to expand itself; and we learn several particulars of importance.

Mankind had not long been united into societies, before they discovered an inclination to oppress and destroy one another. Chedorlaomer, king of the Elamites, soon became a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, must not have been very great, since, in one of these 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. The particular governments into which this country was divided, were now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, had become the founder of an empire. We are not, however, to imagine, that all the laws adopted in Egypt, and which have been admired for their wisdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus mentions many successive princes, who laboured for their establishment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the first principles of civil order and regular government seem to have been tolerably understood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into several districts, or separate departments; and councils, composed of experienced and select persons, were established for the management of public affairs. 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; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; which the Romans have transmitted to the present inhabitants of Europe. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained separate for several centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, except that of Ninus, the successor of Assur; who, fired by the destructive and accursed spirit of conquest, extended the bounds of his kingdom, added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of that monarchy, which, under the name of the Assyrian empire, kept Asia under the yoke for many ages.

Javan, son of Japhet, was the stock from whom the Greeks are descended. Javan established himself in the islands on the western coast of Asia Minor, whence some wanderers probably passed over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon, near Corinth, founded by the Pelasgi, is generally supposed to have commenced in the year before Christ 2090. To these first inhabitants succeeded a colony from Egypt, who, about two thousand years before the Christian era, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to establish monarchy in that country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was soon dissolved; and the ancient Greeks, who seem at this time to have been as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again sunk 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.

B. C.
1850.

But the history of the Israelites, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during those ages. Jacob died, according to the Septuagint version, seventeen hundred and ninety-four years before Christ, but according to the Hebrew chronology, only sixteen hundred and eighty-nine years, and in the year of the world, two thousand three hundred and fifteen. This is a remarkable era with respect to the 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.

B. C.
1689.

It is a common error among writers on this subject, to consider all the nations of
Vol. I.

antiquity as on the same footing. They find some nations extremely rude and barbarous ; and hence they conclude, that all were in that situation. Many, falling into the opposite extreme, on finding other nations acquainted with various arts, and in a pretty advanced state of civilization, infer from thence 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 Americans, and their aboriginal neighbours, the Indians. Those nations who settled nearest the original seat of mankind, early formed themselves into regular societies, and made improvements in those arts which are most subservient to human life. Agriculture was a common employment in the first ages of the world. In the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan ; and the instruments of husbandry, long before the discovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the sacred writings. It is hardly to be supposed, that the ancient cities, both in Asia and Egypt, whose foundation, as we have already mentioned, ascends to the remotest antiquity, could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations which 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 establish this fact, that the use of money had not been of an ancient date ; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness ; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave silver, the metal was weighed in presence of all the people. As commerce improved, and bargains became more common, the quantity of silver was ascertained by a particular mark, which saved the trouble of weighing it. It appears, from the history of Joseph, that the commerce between different nations was in his time regularly carried on. The Ishmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants who carried spices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. If we reflect, that the commodities of Arabia were rather the luxuries than the conveniences of life, we shall conclude, that Egypt was much improved in arts and refinement ; for people do not think of luxuries, until the useful arts have made high advancement among them.

In speaking of commerce, we ought to distinguish between the species of it which is carried on by land, or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by sea ; which last kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and slower in its progress. The people settled on the coasts of Palestine, were the first in the world among whom navigation was made subservient to commerce. They were distinguished by a word, which, in the Hebrew tongue, signifies *merchants*, and are the same nation afterwards known to the Greeks, by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they exerted themselves to improve their situation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object ; and, with all the writers of Pagan antiquity, they are regarded as the inventors of whatever is subservient to it. If we may believe Herodotus, in a matter of such remote antiquity, the Phœnicians had, at a very early period, navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce and navigation, imply 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. It had been a custom among other

nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into the portion of a week, or seven days. 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 who lived by agriculture, and who were acquainted with the division of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of these brought back the same temperature of the air, or the same seasons; hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which has every where taken place in the infancy of science. This, together with the observation of the fixed stars, which must have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the discovery of the *solar year*, which at that time would be thought an amazing improvement in astronomy. But with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered, that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Asia. Europe offers a frightful spectacle during this period. The Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeness and every elegant art, were then a savage race of men, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting rocks and caverns, a prey to wild animals, and sometimes to one another.

We might naturally expect, that as we advance forward in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and Assyria would emerge from their obscurity. But this is far from being the case. We only get a glimpse of them, and they disappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninias, who succeeded Semiramis and Ninus, in the Assyrian throne, we find a chasm 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 unhappily the great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wise princes pass culpably unobserved and unrecorded. Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is supposed to have ascended the throne of Egypt after Amenophis, about the year before Christ 1492. By his assiduity and attention, the civil and military establishments of the Egyptians received very great improvements. Egypt, in the time of Sesostris and his immediate successors, was, in all probability, the most powerful kingdom upon earth. But ancient history often excites without gratifying our curiosity. For, from the reign of Sesostris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Christ 781, we have little knowledge of even the names of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumstances, the country must still have continued in a flourishing condition; for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into distant nations. Athens, that seat of learning and politeness, owed its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilize the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the institutions which Cecrops established among the Athenians, it is easy to infer in what situation they must have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage were not known in Greece. Cranaus, who succeeded Cecrops in the government of Attica, pursued the same beneficial plan, and endeavoured, by wife institutions, to bridle the turbulent passions of a rude people.

Whilst these princes used their endeavours for civilizing this corner of Greece, the other provinces, 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 Amphictyon 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 each other, or to the first enemy who might think proper to invade them. These reflexions 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 these cities assembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and composed what, after the name of its founder was called the Amphictyonic council. In this assembly, whatever related to the general interest of the confederacy was discussed, and finally determined. Amphictyon, likewise, sensible that those political connexions are the most lasting which are strengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches, which from the dedications of those who consulted the oracle, had been amassed. 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 celebrated at Corinth, and in 1303, the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian and Nemean, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar. The Greek states, which formerly had no connexion with each other, 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 obscure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all

Greece appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was
 B. C. 1263. 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 were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts, from the ignorance of those who conducted it, was 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, in the fabulous language of antiquity, is expressed by their sending out a bird which returned with the loss of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obscurity in which the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet at length arrived at Æon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, considering the condition of the naval art during this age, was not less important than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern discoverers. From this expedition to that against Troy, which was undertaken to recover Helen, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off

by Paris, son of the Trojan king, the Greeks must have made some considerable progress in arts, and arms. No less than twelve hundred vessels were
 B. C. 1184. employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. But these vessels were but half-decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their construction. If we add to these circumstances, that the Greeks had not the use of the saw, an instrument so necessary to the carpenter, we may readily conceive the strength and 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 part of the 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 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 several other leaders, whose influence over their particular clans or tribes was not less considerable than that of the chieftain over his immediate followers. These captains were often at war with each other, and sometimes with their sovereign. 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 Amphictyon. They required the hand of another great statesman, to combine the discordant materials, and form them into one grand whole. Theseus, king of Attica, about the year B. C. 1234, had acquired a great reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He saw the inconveniencies to which his country, from being divided into twelve districts, was exposed; and conceived, that by means of the influence of his personal character, united to the authority with which he was invested, he might be able to remove them. For this purpose, he endeavoured to increase his popularity among the peasants and artificers; he detached, as much as possible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them; 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 splendor of Athens and of Theseus, now totally eclipsed that of the other villages, and their particular leaders. All the power of the state was united in one city, and under one sovereign. The 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 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 artificers, 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, become weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himself to death for the safety of his people, abolished the regal power, and proclaimed that none but Jupiter should be king of Athens.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian states, much about the same time, assumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which, from that time, had been governed by kings. But the last sovereign being overcome in single combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans abolished 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 principal attention. We have seen a tender shoot of liberty spring up in the city of Athens, upon the decease of Codrus, its last sovereign. This shoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be agreeable and interesting, to observe its progress. The Athenians, by abolishing the name of king, did not entirely subvert the regal authority. They established a perpetual magistrate, B. C. 1070, who, under the name of archon, was invested with almost the same rights their king had enjoyed. The Athenians, in time, became sensible, that the archonic 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 demanded a reduction of the power of their archons; and it was determined, B. C. 684, that nine annual magistrates should be appointed for this office. These magistrates were not only chosen by the people, but were accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. These alterations were too violent not to be attended with some dangerous consequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the most unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly possible that the ancient customs, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuary spirits of the Athenians. This engaged the wiser part of the citizens, who began to prefer any system of government to anarchy and confusion, to cast their eyes on Draco, a man of an austere but virtuous disposition, as the fittest person for composing a system of laws, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office, about the year 628, but executed it with so much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient historian, "his laws were written not with ink, but with blood." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of almost every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again returned to confusion and disorder, and remained so till the time of Solon. The gentle manners, disinterested virtue and wisdom, 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. The first step of his legislation, was to abolish all the laws of Draco, excepting those relative to murder. Death was continued the punishment of this crime; 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; and his establishments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preserved their liberties. He divided the citizens into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed; and the poorest class he rendered 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, 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, an hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important business that came before the assembly of the people; the second, though but a court of justice, gained great ascendancy in the councils of the republic.

Such was the system of government established by Solon. Upon the same plan most of the other ancient republics were established. To enlarge on all of them,

therefore, is hardly necessary, and would oblige us to transgress our limits. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had something in it so peculiar, that the great lines of it ought not to be omitted in a sketch of this kind. 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 have been the first king, about the year B. C. 1516. At length two brothers, Euristhenes, and Procles, getting possession of this country, became conjunct in royalty; and what is extremely singular, their posterity, in the direct line, continued to rule jointly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, *anno* two hundred and twenty before the Christian era. The Spartan government, however, did not take that singular form, which renders it so remarkable until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legislator. The plan of policy devised by Lycurgus agreed with that already described, in comprehending a senate and assembly of the people, and, in general, in all those establishments which are deemed most requisite for the security of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, it having two kings, whose office was hereditary, though their power was circumscribed by proper checks and restraints. But the great characteristic of the Spartan constitution, consisted in 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 which had the smallest tendency to enervate the minds of the Spartans, was absolutely proscribed. They were forbidden the use of money; they lived at the public tables on the coarsest fare; the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the more advanced in years; and all ranks, capable of bearing arms, were daily accustomed to the most painful exercises. To the Spartans alone, war was a relaxation, rather than a hardship, and they behaved in it with a spirit, of which hardly any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

B. C.
1102.B. C.
884.

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 dissolution of their government by Cambyfes of Persia, in the year B. C. five hundred and twenty-four, the Egyptians were, fortunately for themselves and their neighbours, 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, neglected the administration of affairs, and shutting himself up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, justly 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, conspired against their sovereign, whom they defeated. Sardanapalus set fire to his palace, and perished in the flames, B. C. eight hundred and twenty; and they divided between them his extensive dominions. These two kingdoms, sometimes united under one prince, and sometimes governed each by a particular sovereign, maintained the chief sway of Asia for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Assyria, *anno* B. C. seven hundred and seventy-seven,

B. C.
781.

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. seven hundred and twenty-one. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, also in the year B. C. five hundred and eighty-seven, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year one thousand and fifty-five, and conquered all the countries

around him. But in the year five hundred and thirty-eight, Cyrus took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Persian yoke. The
 B. C. 538. manners of this people, brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its departments, are elegantly described by Xenophon, a Grecian philosopher and historian. It is not necessary, that we should enter on the same detail upon this subject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. The era of Cyrus is, in one respect, 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 distance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, supposed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largest is five hundred feet in height, and two thousand six hundred and forty broad each way at bottom. The top is thirteen feet square. The second stands on as much ground as the first, but is forty feet lower. It was a superstition among this people, derived from the earliest times, that even after death the soul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the custom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body, such vegetables as experience had discovered to be the greatest preservatives against putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the same view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as these superstitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably secure a safe and comfortable retreat for their souls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the East, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were superb and magnificent structures. But the orders of architecture were not yet known. The arts, in which, next to architecture, these nations principally excelled, were sculpture and embroidery. As to the sciences, they bestowed their principal attention on astronomy; but it does not appear that they made great progress in explaining the causes of the phenomena of the universe, or in any species of rational and sound philosophy. To demonstrate this to an intelligent reader, it is sufficient to observe, that magic and astrology, which always decrease in proportion to the advancement of true science, were in high esteem among them, during the latest periods of their government. The countries which they occupied, were extremely fruitful, and afforded, without much labour, all the necessaries and even luxuries of life. They had long been accustomed to a civilized and polished life in great cities. These circumstances had tainted their manners with effeminacy, and made them an easy prey to the Persians, a nation just emerging from barbarism, and of consequence brave and warlike. This was still more easy in the infancy of the military art; when strength and courage were the qualities which gave the chief advantage to one nation over

another ; when, properly speaking, there were no fortified places, which, in modern times, have been found so useful in stopping the progress of a victorious enemy ; and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we must now turn our attention to other objects.

The history of Persia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year B. C. 529, offers little, considered in itself, that merits our regard ; but, when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly interesting. The monarchs who succeeded Cyrus, gave, by their ambition, 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 the institutions of Lycurgus. Athens had just recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was their situation, B. C. 504. when the lust of universal empire, led Darius, at the instigation of Hippias, who had been expelled from Athens, and because the Athenians had burnt the city of Sardis, to send forth his numerous armies 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 animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, on the plains of Marathon, with ten thousand Athenians, overcame the Persian army of a hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand cavalry. His countrymen, Themistocles and Aristides, the first celebrated for his abilities, B. C. 490. the second for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the noblest monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over servitude, deserve to be read at length in ancient writers.

Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, with an army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thousand men. This account has been justly considered as incredible. The truth B. C. 480. cannot now be ascertained ; but, that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the more probable from the great extent of his empire, and from the absurd practice among 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. But though the Persian war concluded honourably for the Greeks, it is, in a great measure, to this war that the subsequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they suffered the loss of so many brave men, but those in which they acquired the spoils of Persia—it was not their enduring so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connexion with the Persians, after the conclusion of it—which subverted the Grecian establishments. The Greeks became haughty after their victories. Delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with each other ; their quarrels were fomented by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the Peloponnesian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and involved the other states of Greece. B. C. 431. They continued to weaken themselves by these intestine divisions, till Philip, king of Macedon, a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful, rendered himself, by the battle of Cheronæa, master of Greece. But this conquest did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had, by bribery, promises, and intrigues, gained such a number of considerable persons in the states of Greece to his interest, that another day would have subjected Greece to him, had he failed at Cheronæa. The Greeks had lost that virtue which was the basis of their confederacy. Their manners having degenerated, their popular governments served only to give a sanc-

tion to their licentiousness and corruption, The principal orators, in most of their states, were bribed into the service of Philip; and all the eloquence of Demosthenes, was ineffectual against the mean, seductive arts of his opponents; who, by flattering the people, used the surest method of gaining their affections.

Philip had proposed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece; but he did not long survive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his decease, his son Alexander was chosen general against the Persians, by all the Grecian states, except the Athenians and Thebans. These made a feeble effort for their

B. C. expiring liberty; but they were obliged to yield to superior force. Secure on
334. 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 destructive ravager, falsely termed the great, 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. His name, which ought to be held up to detestation, has received from servile and base historians, those eulogies due, not to the destroyers, but to the benefactors and saviours of mankind.

B. C. Soon after his rapid career, of victory and success, Alexander died at Baby-
323. lon. His generals, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided his dominions among them. This gave rise to a number of eras 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 to the Roman affairs, where the historical deduction is more simple and more important.

The bare names of illustrious men, who flourished in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the highest degree of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings 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, was a celebrated sculptor. Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Timantheus, during the same age, first displayed the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished a thousand years before the christian era, the tragic poets Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the first great improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave simplicity and elegance to profane writing; Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it remained for 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 great success. Not to mention Socrates, the excellence of whose philosophy justly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, will not suffer on comparison with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which these philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could reach.

War was fatally reduced to a science among the Greeks. And military renown being the most dazzling and captivating, and at the same time the most infallible means of acquiring an ascendancy among the people, the restless, ambitious spirit

of their leaders involved them in almost incessant hostilities with their neighbours, and with each other. This renders their history little more than a record of frightful carnage, which the writers of all ages have exhausted themselves in celebrating. But we must leave this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important as their territory was inconsiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are more interesting, 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 insignificance. But, when we consider him as the founder of such an extensive empire, whose progress and decline have occasioned the two greatest revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot fail to be interested in his conduct. His disposition was martial and rapacious; and the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts, afforded a most inviting opportunity, for the gratification of his propensity to rapine and conquest. Romulus was continually embroiled with his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected to aggrandize themselves, or 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 tribes whom 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 circumstance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended, had, by means of the arts or arms they employed, any advantage, Romulus immediately adopted them, 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 height 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 rejected the latter, and adopted the Sabine buckler in fighting against other states. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He instituted what was called the senate, a court originally composed of a hundred persons, distinguished for their wisdom and experience. He enacted laws for the administration of justice, and for restraining the fierce and unruly passions of his followers; and, after a long and turbulent reign, was, according to the most probable conjecture, privately assassinated by some of the members of that senate which he himself had instituted.

B. C.
753.

B. C.
717.

Numa, who succeeded to him, established the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inspired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the soul of their military discipline. Tullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priscus, and Servius Tullius, laboured each during his reign for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the seventh and last king, having obtained the crown by the murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to support it by cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the brutality of his son Sextus Tarquinius, who, by dishonoring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occasioned the expulsion of the Tarquin family, and, with it, the dissolution of the regal government. As the Romans were continually engaged in war, they found it necessary to have some officer invested with supreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterprises. In the room of kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magistrates, called consuls, who, without creating the same jealousy, succeeded to all the power of their sovereigns. This form of government, thro' the desire the consuls entertained of distinguishing their

B. C.
509.

short administration by some victory or conquest, was extremely favourable to the destructive spirit of ravage and subjugation, which prevailed among the Romans, and which made them, for so many ages, the curse and scourge of the human race, as far as their power or arms extended. They readily contrived pretences, often the most frivolous and contemptible, to attack the neighbouring states, one after another; and found little difficulty in subduing them singly; their whole policy being invariably directed to aggrandizement and conquest. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inspired to deeds of valour, by every consideration that influences the human heart, and that the citizens of Rome were all soldiers, we need not be surprised that they should, in the course of some centuries, extend their power throughout Italy.

The Romans, now secure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, and too restless to remain inactive or in peace, turned their eyes abroad, and met with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This state had, some time before Rome, been founded or enlarged on the coast of the Mediterranean, in Africa, by a colony of Phœnicians, B. C. 869; and, according to the practice of their mother country, had cultivated commerce and naval greatness, in both of which they had proved wonderfully successful. Carthage commanded both sides of the Mediterranean. Besides the coast of Africa, which she almost entirely possessed, she had extended herself on the Spanish side through the straits. Thus mistress of the sea, and of commerce, she had seized on the islands of Corsica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itself; and the Romans eagerly seized on a pretext for taking up arms. Hence a

succession of hostilities between these rival states, known in history by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians were an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage had been a powerful republic, when Rome was an incon siderable state; but she had become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political constitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars. The Roman republic, as we have already mentioned, was composed of soldiers. The first war with Carthage lasted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea, with which they had been hitherto unacquainted.

A Carthaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used it for a model; in three months fitted out a fleet; and the consul Duilius, who fought their first naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpose to mention 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 was sent back on his parole, to negotiate an exchange of prisoners. He maintained 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 he returned to a certain death.

Neither was Carthage, tho' corrupted, deficient in great men. Of all the enemies with whom the Romans had to contend, Hannibal was the most inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred against the Romans, and having settled the intestine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inspire his son, though but nine years old, with his own sentiments. For this purpose, he ordered a solemn sacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading Hannibal to the altar, asked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition against the Romans. The gallant boy not only consented to go, but conjured his father, by the gods present, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father who loves you, if you will swear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied; and the solemnity of the ceremony, and the sacredness of the oath, made such an impression upon his mind, as nothing afterwards could efface. Being appoint-

ed general at twenty-five years of age, he crossed the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and descended upon Italy. The loss of four battles threatened the fall of Rome. Sicily was allied with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuse, declared against the Romans, and almost all Italy abandoned them. In this extremity, Rome owed its preservation to some great men. Fabius Maximus was the grand instrument of averting the impending destruction. By avoiding an engagement, he gained time for the Romans to recover their fortitude. Marcellus raised the siege of Nola, took Syracuse, and revived the drooping spirits of his troops. The success of Scipio confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converse with the gods. At the age of four and twenty, he went into Spain, where both his father and uncle had lost their lives, attacked New Carthage, and carried it at the first assault. Upon his arrival in Africa, Carthage trembled in her turn, and saw her armies defeated. Hannibal, sixteen years victorious, was in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage, subdued, and rendered tributary, gave hostages, and engaged never to enter upon a war, but with the consent of the Roman people. B. C.
218.

Before the conquest of Carthage, Rome had considerable wars, but unimportant victories; after this event, its wars were inconsiderable, and its victories great. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; the one was ravaged by the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was desolated by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander. 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, Achæians, and Beotians; each of these was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. The Etolians were the most powerful. The kings of Macedon maintained that superiority, which in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally possessed over his neighbours. Philip, the reigning monarch, had rendered himself odious to the Greeks, by some unpopular and tyrannical steps: the Etolians were most irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their assistance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garrisons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became tributary to the Romans, and the states of Greece became their dependants. 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 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 pursued Antiochus, the last object of their resentment, into Asia, and, having vanquished him by sea and land, compelled him to submit to a humiliating treaty. B. C.
190.

In these conquests, the Romans 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, under a specious name, concealed a condition very servile, and inferred that they should submit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on these easy conquests, we have reason to

be astonished at the resistance which the Romans met with from Mithridates king of Pontus, for the space of twenty-six years. But this monarch had great resources. His kingdom, bordering on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, abounded in a race of men, whose minds were not enervated by pleasure, and whose bodies were firm and vigorous.

The different states of Greece and Asia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not spirit to shake it off, were transported at finding a prince, who dared to show himself an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully submitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was at last compelled to yield to the superior fortune of the Romans. Vanquished successively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was finally subdued by Pompey, and stripped of his dominions and life, in the year B. C. 63. In

B. C. 106. 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 other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The same Marius, whose name

B. C. 107. was so terrible in Africa, then made the north of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians, less formidable than the Roman legions, retired to their wilds and deserts. But while Rome conquered the world, there subsisted an eternal war

within her walls. This war had subsisted from the first periods of the government. Rome, after the expulsion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The descendants of the senators, who were distinguished by the name of patricians, were invested with so many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to shake it off. A thousand disputes arose betwixt them and the patricians, in which the popular party had generally the advantage. These disputes, while the Romans preserved their poverty, 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, almost always named patricians. But when the Romans, after the conquest of foreign nations, had introduced their luxuries and refinements; when they were tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eastern courts—the state, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either side, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody seditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguishable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it easy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action against each other. The love of their country was now no more than a specious name; the higher orders 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, conquered, and plundered. He might command them to embroil their hands in the blood of their countrymen. Those 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 supporting 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 probably have surrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæsar, at length, appeared. By subduing the Gauls, he gained to his country the most useful conquest it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, was overcome in the plains of Pharsalia. Cæsar became 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 was acknowledged master at Rome, and in

the whole empire. Brutus and Cassius attempted to give Rome her liberty, by stabbing him in the senate-house. But though they delivered the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic, through the general corruption and depravity, did not obtain its freedom. It fell into the hands of Mark Anthony : Cesar Octavius, nephew to Julius Cesar, wrested it from him by the sea-fight at Actium. 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 at Rome, the Romans were, without dispute, the masters of the world. Their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Persian, the Grecian, the Assyrian, and Macedonian glory. No sooner, therefore, was Octavius established on the throne, than ambassadors, from all quarters of the known world, crowded to make their submissions. Æthiopia sued for peace ; the Parthians, who had been a formidable enemy, courted his friendship ; India sought his alliance ; Pannonia acknowledged him her master. Victorious by sea and land, he shut the temple of Janus. The world was at peace under his power. At this time was born Jesus Christ, four years before the common era.

B. C.
44.B. C.
31.C. B.
7.

Having thus traced the progress of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to say a few words with regard to the arts, sciences, and manners of that people. In the infancy of the republic, and even long after the consular government was established, learning and the arts made very little progress at Rome. Agriculture, and the study of arms, principally engaged the public attention. An adequate idea may be formed of their Vandalic disregard of works of art, by the edict of Mummius, who, having destroyed the city of Corinth, ordered the pictures painted by the most eminent artists of Greece, to be carried to Rome, with this remarkable caution, that if any were lost in the passage, they should be obliged to make up the number. Nor were the sciences in more request at Rome. Some of the ablest philosophers of Greece coming to Rome in the time of Cato the Elder, he ordered them to depart the city, lest the minds of the youth should be corrupted by philosophy, and rendered too effeminate for military achievements. They had, for a long series of years, no written laws at Rome. Those of Solon, brought from Greece, were the first that were known in that city. They were generally called the laws of the twelve tables, because they were written in twelve departments. These constituted the civil law of the Romans. They were afterwards corrected by various decrees of the senate, orders of the people, and edicts of the prætors.

After the destruction of Carthage and the states of Greece, when the Romans had no rival to fear, they applied themselves to cultivate the arts of peace. The curious remains of the Grecian magnificence, which were sent to Rome, inspired them with a desire of imitating the perfect models of the Greek artists. Whatever was elegant, whatever was curious, whatever was beautiful, might be consulted without trouble or expense. But the Romans, though undoubtedly great artists, never equalled the finished models of their masters. Eloquence had been long studied in Rome ; but it did not reach its greatest height till Cicero appeared. His orations are inferior only to those of Demosthenes. Cicero gave cadence and harmony to the Roman language, and enriched it with beauties before unknown. He was to Rome what Demosthenes had been to Greece, the glory of his country ; they both carried eloquence to the highest perfection it ever attained. The poetry of Virgil is equal to any work produced by the Greeks, except the Iliad of Homer. The odes of Horace have not commonly the majesty and sublimity of Pindar ; but they abound in beauties of another kind ; a delicacy of sentiment, a smooth flow of harmonious verse, and the most lively images conveyed in the most correct language. The style of Livy, though

varied to infinity, is every where equal : simple without meannefs ; elegant and florid without affectation ; great and sublime without being tumid ; full of force and sweetness ; always clear ; and always intelligible. Tacitus did not flourish till after the reign of Augustus ; nor has his style the purity of the writers in that age of literary rivalship. For some farther remarks on the writers of ancient Rome, we must refer to the literary article of ITALY.

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 the government, we need only recal to our minds 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 directed 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 from the superiority of their discipline, not 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 which the Romans met with in subduing the other nations of Europe. The contests were on both sides bloody ; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste, the inhabitants perished in the field ; many were carried into slavery, and but a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. This situation of affairs was unfavourable to the happiness of mankind. Yet the barbarous nations, from their intercourse with the Romans, acquired some taste for the arts, sciences, language, and manners of their new masters. These, however, were but miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of their arms, for being overawed by mercenary soldiers kept in pay to restrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy.

The Roman empire, now stretched out to such an extent, had lost its spring and force. It contained within itself the seeds of dissolution ; and the violent irruption of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the parts of Germany which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries to the north of Europe, and north-west of Asia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that restlessness which actuates the minds of Barbarians, and makes them rove from home in quest of plunder, or new settlements. The first invaders met with a powerful resistance from the superior discipline of the Roman legions ; but this could not daunt men of a strong and impetuous temper. They returned to their companions, acquaint-

ed them with the unknown conveniencies and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or blessed with a milder climate than their own; they acquainted them with the battles they had fought; with the friends they had lost, and warmed them with resentment against their opponents. Great bodies of armed men, with their wives and children, and slaves and flocks, issued forth, like regular colonies, in quest of new settlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deserted, were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. These, in their turn, pushed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increasing, rolled on, and swept every thing before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred, and what was profane. They respected no age, or sex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was most calamitous and afflicted, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Theodosius the great, A. D. 395, to the establishment of the Lombards in Italy, A. D. 571. The cotemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, are at a loss for expressions to describe its horror. *The scourge of God, the destroyer of nations*, are the epithets by which they distinguish Attila, the most noted of the barbarous leaders.

Constantine, who was emperor in the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced christianity, changed the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople. 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, A. D. 323. threw down the western barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Rome became then known by the name of the *Western Empire*, in contradistinction to Constantinople, which, from its situation, was called the *Eastern Empire*. The former, weakened by this division, became a prey to the barbarous nations, and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, was seated on the throne of the Cæsars. 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 all the luxuries of the world, the emperors were at a loss to find new provocatives. The most distant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exercised, and the tribute of provinces expended upon a favourite dish. The tyranny, and the depravation of manners, that prevailed under the emperors, could only be equalled by the barbarity of those nations who overcame them. A. D. 476.

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 sixteenth 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 ninth century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy; and that of 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 the sovereign, and, in distributing portions of their lands among their dependants, annexed the same condition to the grant. But this system, calculated for defence against a foreign enemy, degenerated into a system of most grievous oppression.

The usurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a state of actual servitude. The latter 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 fought redress at the head of his vassals. His adversaries met him in like hostile array. The kindred and dependants of the aggressor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter.*

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachments of their nobles with impatience. In order to create some power that might counterbalance those potent vassals, who, while they enslaved the people, controlled or gave law to the crown, a plan was adopted of selling new privileges to towns. Perhaps their avarice was as powerful a motive to this salutary measure, as sage political views. 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 that 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 the 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. The inhabitants

communicated some knowledge of these to their neighbours in Italy; and the
 A. D. 1096. 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

* This Gothic system still prevails in the unpartitioned part of Poland; a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland so late as till the year 1748. And even in England, very numerous relics of these Gothic institutions are perceivable at this day.

of these expeditions was conquest, and not commerce, and though the issue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

Soon after the close of the holy war, the mariner's compass was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian states, particularly those of Venice and Genoa, began to establish a regular commerce with 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 for elegance, unknown to their predecessors, or despised by them. During the twelfth and thirteenth 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 were established in every different kingdom. They became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe.

While the Italians, in the south of Europe, cultivated trade with such industry and success, the commercial spirit awaked in the north towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations around the Baltic, were, at that time, extremely barbarous, and infested that sea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburg, soon after they had begun to open some trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived such advantages from this union, that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a short time, eighty of the most considerable cities, scattered through those large countries of Germany and Flanders, which stretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanseatic league*; which became so formidable, that its alliance was courted, and its enmity 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, in different towns, the most eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, 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, the most populous, 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, had totally neglected commerce, and not even attempted those manufactures, the materials of which they furnished to foreigners. By alluring Flemish artisans 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 their high 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 on the Turks, who had been such enemies to the christian name; and who, from a contemptible horde 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 sovereigns. 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 this description, who committed his discoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who, with some of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from Pope Innocent to the great Khan of Tartary, in favour of the christian subjects in that prince's extensive dominions. Soon after this, a spirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general; and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, served in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greatest princes of Tartary, whose conquests reached to the most remote extremities 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.

In the introduction to a work of this kind, it will be expected that we should give a short account of the rise and progress of navigation, in modern times; and of the original source of those discoveries both by sea and by land, which have so wonderfully extended the ideas of the human species, and their acquaintance with each other, even in the remotest regions of the globe. The utility, or rather necessity of such a narrative, to render many passages of the subsequent work intelligible, will form a satisfactory excuse for the length to which it may extend.

By degrees, the calamities and desolation brought upon the western provinces of the Roman empire, had begun to be forgotten, and, in some measure, to be repaired. The first symptoms of revival were discerned in Italy. The northern tribes, which took possession of that country, made progress in improvement with greater rapidity than the people settled in other parts of Europe. An accidental exertion of genius in Italy, contributed more than all the efforts and ingenuity of preceding ages, to improve and to extend navigation. That wonderful property of the magnet was observed, by which it communicates to a slender needle or rod of iron, such virtue, as to point towards the poles of the earth. The use which might be made of this, in the direction of navigation, was immediately perceived. That most valuable, though now familiar instrument, *the mariner's compass*, was constructed. By its means, navigators found, that all seasons, and in every place, they could discover the north and south with so much ease and accuracy, that it became no longer necessary to depend merely on the light of the stars, and the observation of the sea-coast. They gradually abandoned their ancient timid and lingering course along the shore. They ventured boldly into the ocean, and, relying on this new guide, could steer in the darkest night, and under the most cloudy sky, with a security and precision hitherto unknown. The compass may be said to have opened to man the dominion of the sea, and to have put him in full possession of every part of the earth, by enabling him to visit almost every part of it. Flavio Gioia, a citizen of Amalfi, a town of considerable trade in the kingdom of Naples, was the author of this inestimable discovery, without which the continent of America must forever, or at least to a very distant period, have remained unknown.* We have already observed that this discovery took place in the beginning

* From the efforts of Captain Cook, we learn, that America is separated from the eastern shore of Tartary, only by a narrow strait. It is plain, however, that a correspondence with Europe, by such a route, must have been almost entirely impracticable,

of the fourteenth century. It hath been alas ! too often the fate of those illustrious benefactors of mankind, who have enriched science, and improved the arts by their inventions, to derive more reputation than benefit from the success of their labours. But the lot of Gioia has been still more cruel. By the inattention of cotemporary historians, he has been defrauded even of the fame to which he had so just a title. We receive from them no information with respect to his profession, his character, the precise time when he made this important discovery, or the accidents and enquiries which led to it. Though this event has produced greater effects than any other recorded in the annals of the human race, its history has been transmitted to us without any of those circumstances, which can gratify the curiosity, that it naturally awakens. Many causes combined to prevent this beneficial invention from producing its full effect, in a short time. Men relinquish ancient habits with timidity and reluctance. The commercial jealousy of the Italians also, in all probability laboured, to conceal from other nations, the happy invention of their countryman. The art of steering by the compass, with such skill and accuracy, as to inspire a full confidence in its direction, was to be acquired by degrees. Sailors, unaccustomed to quit sight of land, durst not launch out at once and commit themselves to unknown seas. Accordingly, almost half a century elapsed from the discovery of the compass, before navigators ventured into any seas which they had not formerly been accustomed to frequent.

The first remarkable consequence of this invention, appears to have been the discovery of Canary, or Fortunate islands, by the Spaniards. It is said that these were not unknown to the ancients ; and Plutarch perhaps intended to allude to them, when he mentions a scheme, which had once been thought of by Sertorius, of quitting his contest for independent authority in Spain, and sailing away to certain islands in the ocean, of whose climate, the biographer gives a flattering description. Whatever truth might be in this report, it is certain, that these islands had been concealed from the rest of the world for many ages ; when, about the middle of the fourteenth century, they were discovered by the Spaniards.

The first considerable efforts towards the improvement of navigation, were made by the Portuguese. Various circumstances prompted their activity in this new direction, and enabled them to accomplish undertakings, apparently superior to the natural force of their monarchy. The kings of Portugal, after having driven the Moors out of their dominions, had the complete command of the national force ; and could employ it, without dread of interruption from any domestic enemy. By the perpetual hostilities carried on for a long period against the Mahometans, the martial and adventurous spirit that distinguished the European nations, during the middle ages, was improved and heightened among the Portuguese. The situation of the country, bounded on every side by the dominions of a more powerful neighbour, did not afford free scope to the activity of the Portuguese by land, as the strength of their monarchy was far inferior to that of Castile. But Portugal was a maritime state, in which there were many commodious harbours ; the people had begun to make some progress in the knowledge and practice of navigation ; and the sea was open to them, presenting the only field of enterprise in which they could distinguish themselves.

Such was the state of Portugal, when John the first, about the year 1412, appointed a few vessels to sail along the western coast of Africa, bounded by the Atlantic ocean, and to discover the unknown countries situated there. Though Africa lay so near to Portugal, the Portuguese had never sailed beyond cape Non. The vessels, sent upon the discovery, doubled that formidable cape, which had terminated the progress of former navigators, and proceeded a hundred and sixty miles beyond it, to cape Bajador. The commanders were satisfied at this discovery, and

returned to Lisbon. But, to render undertakings of this kind ultimately successful, it was necessary that they should be conducted by a person who possessed abilities, capable of discerning what was attainable, who enjoyed leisure to form a regular system for prosecuting discovery, and who was animated with an ardour that would persevere in spite of obstacles and repulses. These qualities were united in Henry duke of Vifio, the fourth son of John the first. He cultivated the arts and sciences, which were then almost wholly unknown and despised by persons of his rank. He applied with peculiar fondness, to the study of geography, and acquired such knowledge of the habitable globe, as enabled him to discover the great probability of finding new and opulent countries, by sailing along the coast of Africa. That he might pursue his scheme without interruption, he retired from court, and fixed his residence at Sagres, near cape St. Vincent, where the prospect of the Atlantic ocean, invited his thoughts continually towards his favourite project. His first effort was inconsiderable. He fitted out a single ship, and instructed the commanders to double cape Bajador, and thence to steer towards the south. They held their course along the shore, but a sudden squall of wind arose, drove them out to sea, and when they expected every moment to perish, landed them on an unknown island, which they named *Porto Santo*. Next year, Henry sent out three ships to take possession of this island. Madeira, which lay near to the former, was soon after discovered. A colony of Portuguese were sent out to settle these new discoveries. Slips of the vine from Cyprus, and plants of the sugar-cane from Sicily, were introduced. These thrived so prosperously, in this part of the world, that the sugar and wine of Madeira, quickly became of consequence in the commerce of Portugal.

By voyages to Madeira, the Portuguese were gradually habituated to a bolder navigation, and instead of creeping along the coast, ventured into the open sea. Cape Bajador, which, for upwards of twenty years, had been the boundary of Portuguese efforts, was at last doubled. A new sphere of navigation was opened. The vast continent of Africa was discovered, washed by the Atlantic ocean, and stretching towards the south. The Portuguese advanced within the tropics, and in a few years, they discovered the river Senegal, and all the coast extending from cape Blanco, to cape de Verd.

When they began to enter the torrid zone, the idea which prevailed among the ancients, that the heat was so excessive as to render it uninhabitable, deterred them, for some time, from proceeding. Their own first observations confirmed this opinion. When they advanced to the south of the river Senegal, the human form put on a new appearance. They beheld men with skins black as ebony, with short curled hair, flat noses, thick lips, and all the peculiar features which are now known to distinguish the race of negroes.

The fame of the Portuguese voyages spread over Europe. Adventurers, from every quarter, crowded to prince Henry, and solicited employment in his service. Many Genoese and Venetians, in particular, entered aboard the Portuguese ships, and acquired a more perfect knowledge of their profession in that new school of navigation. In emulation of these foreigners, the Portuguese made greater exertions of their own talents. The cape de Verd Islands, and soon after the Azores, were discovered. The former lie above three hundred miles from the African coast, and the latter nine hundred miles from any continent. Prince Henry died in the year one thousand four hundred and sixty-three. During his life, the Portuguese did not advance towards the south, within five degrees of the equinoctial line; and after their continual exertions for half a century, hardly fifteen hundred miles of the coast of Africa were discovered.

At the death of Prince Henry, Alphonso possessed the throne of Portugal. He committed the care of discoveries to a merchant in Lisbon, to whom he granted an

exclusive right of commerce with all the countries of which prince Henry had taken possession. As ever happens, under the restraint and oppression of monopoly, the spirit of discovery languished. Some progress, however, was made. The Portuguese ventured, at length, to cross the line, and, to their astonishment, found that region of the torrid zone, which was supposed to be scorched with intolerable heat, not only habitable, but populous and fertile.

John the second, in 1481, succeeded Alphonso. While the Portuguese had proceeded along the coast of Africa, from cape Non, to the river of Senegal, they found that extensive tract to be sandy, barren, and thinly inhabited, by a wretched people professing the Mahometan religion, and subject to the empire of Morocco. But to the south of that river, the power and religion of the Mahometans were unknown. The country was divided into small independent principalities; the population was considerable, the soil fertile, and the Portuguese soon discovered that it produced ivory, rich gums, gold, and other valuable commodities. By the acquisition of these, commerce was enlarged, and became more adventurous. John promoted this spirit. He declared himself the patron of every attempt towards discovery. A powerful fleet was fitted out, which, after discovering the kingdoms of Benin and Congo, advanced above fifteen hundred miles beyond the line; and the Portuguese, for the first time, beheld a new heaven, and observed the stars of another hemisphere. John built forts on the coast of Guinea. He sent out colonies to settle there. He established a commercial intercourse with the more powerful kingdoms. According to the uniform and detestable policy of Europeans, he endeavoured to render such as were feeble or divided, tributary to his crown. By a regular and vigorous system of policy, the Portuguese power and commerce in Africa were established upon a solid foundation.

By their constant intercourse with the natives of that continent, the subjects of John gradually acquired some knowledge of those parts of Africa, which they had not visited. They had detected the error of the ancients concerning the nature of the torrid zone. They found as they proceeded southwards, that the continent of Africa contracted itself, and inclined towards the east. This induced them to give credit to the account of the ancient Phœnician voyages round Africa, and led them to hope, that, by following the same route, they might arrive at the East-Indies, and engross that commerce which has been the source of wealth and power to every nation possessed of it. The king entered with ardour into these sentiments, and concerted measures for this dangerous and important voyage.

At this crisis, accounts were transmitted from Africa, that various nations along the coast, had mentioned a powerful kingdom situated on their continent, at a great distance towards the east, and that its king professed the christian religion. John concluded that this must be the emperor of Abyssinia, and resolved, if possible, to open some intercourse with his court. He selected Pedro de Covillam, and Alphonso de Payva, who were perfect masters of the Arabic language, and sent them into the east, in search of the residence of this unknown monarch, and to make him profilers of friendship. The ambassadors were directed to obtain whatever intelligence the nations, whom they visited, could supply, with respect to the trade of India, and the course of navigation to that continent.

In the mean time, the voyage of discovery was committed to Bartholomew Diaz, a navigator, whose sagacity, experience, and fortitude, rendered him equal to the undertaking. He stretched boldly towards the south, and proceeding beyond the utmost limits to which his countrymen had hitherto advanced, discovered about a thousand miles of new country. Neither the frequent mutinies of his men, nor the calamities of famine, nor a succession of violent tempests, could deter him from his purpose. At last, he descried that lofty promontory, which bounds Africa to the south, and is

known by the name of the cape of Good-Hope. But to descry it was all that he had in his power to accomplish. The violence of the winds, the shattered condition of his ships, and the turbulent spirit of his sailors, compelled him to return, after a voyage of sixteen months, in which he discovered a far greater extent of country, than any former navigator.

Those sanguine expectations, excited by the success of Diaz, were confirmed by the intelligence which John received over land from his Abyssinian ambassadors. Covillam and Payva had repaired to Grand Cairo. From that city, they travelled with a caravan of Egyptian merchants, and embarking on the Red Sea, arrived at Aden in Arabia. Payva went directly for Abyssinia. Covillam embarked for the East-Indies. He visited Calecut, Goa, and other cities on the Malabar coast, returned to the east side of Africa, and thence to Cairo, which Payva and he had fixed upon as their place of rendezvous. Payva had been murdered in Abyssinia, but Covillam found at Cairo, two Portuguese Jews, whom John had dispatched after them, to communicate new instructions. By one of these Jews, Covillam transmitted to Portugal a journal of his travels by sea and land, his remarks upon the trade of India, and exact maps of the coasts on which he had touched. His conclusion was, that by sailing round Africa, a passage might be found to the East-Indies.

The opinion of Covillam, supported by the recent discoveries of Diaz, left hardly any shadow of doubt with regard to the possibility of sailing from Europe to India. But the vast length of the voyage, and the furious storms which Diaz had encountered near the cape of Good-Hope, alarmed the Portuguese. The zeal and authority of the monarch dispelled, by degrees, the fears of his subjects, or made it necessary to conceal them. While he was adopting every precaution that wisdom or experience could suggest, to insure the success of this expedition, intelligence arrived in Europe, of the discovery of America. Nor was it until five years after that event, in the year 1497, that the Portuguese 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 the grand project of sailing thither by the west. His proposal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and absurd, he laid his schemes successively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better success. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of almost 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 through the interest of queen Isabella. This princess was prevailed on to patronise him, by the representations of Juan Perez, guardian of the monastery of Rabida. He was a man of considerable learning, and of some credit with queen Isabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his personal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a physician settled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his skill in 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 entered into the scheme, and even generously offered to pledge her own jewels, in order to raise as much money as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santangel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the requisite sum, that the queen might not be reduced to the necessity of having recourse to that expedient.

Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with three ships, upon one of the most adven-

turous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had many difficulties to contend with ; and his sailors, who were often discontented, at length began to insist upon his return, threatening, in case of refusal, to throw him overboard ; but the firmness of the commander, and the discovery of land, after a passage of thirty-three 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 he soon discovered it to be a new world. Of this the reader will find a more circumstantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

The discovery of America, and that of a passage to the East-Indies by the cape of Good-Hope, are among the greatest and most important events in the history of mankind. Their consequences have already been very great ; but in the short period of between two and three centuries, which have elapsed since these discoveries were made, it is impossible that the whole extent of their consequences can have been seen. What benefit, or what misfortunes to mankind may hereafter result from these events, no human wisdom can foresee. By uniting, in some measure, the most distant parts of the world, by enabling them to relieve the wants, to increase the enjoyments, and to encourage the industry of each other, their general tendency would seem to be beneficial. To the natives, however, both of the East and West-Indies, all the commercial advantages which can have resulted from those events, have been sunk and lost in the dreadful misfortunes which they have occasioned. These misfortunes seem to have arisen rather from accident and the rapacity of the discoverers, than from any thing in the nature of these events themselves. At the particular time when these discoveries were made, the superiority of force happened to be so great on the side of the Europeans, that they were enabled to commit with impunity every sort of injustice in those countries. Hereafter perhaps the natives of those countries may grow stronger, or the natives of Europe may grow weaker, and the inhabitants of all the different quarters of the world may arrive at that equality of courage and force, which, by inspiring mutual fear, can alone overawe the injustice of independent nations into some sort of respect for the rights of each other. But nothing seems more likely to establish this equality of force, than that mutual communication of knowledge, and of all sorts of improvements, which an extensive commerce carries along with it.

In the mean time, one of the principal effects of these discoveries has been, to raise the mercantile system to a degree of importance, which it could not otherwise have attained. It is the object of that system to enrich a nation rather by trade and manufactures, than by the improvement of land, rather by the industry of towns and cities, than by that of the country. And in consequence of those discoveries, the commercial towns of Europe, instead of being the manufacturers and carriers for but a very small part of the world, have now become the manufacturers for the numerous and thriving cultivators of America ; and the carriers, and, in some degree, the manufacturers, for almost all the different nations of Asia, Africa, and America. Two new worlds have been opened to their industry, each of them much greater and more extensive than the old one ; and these markets are augmenting every day.

The countries which possess the colonies of America, and which trade directly to the East-Indies, enjoy, indeed, the whole show and splendor of this great commerce. Yet other countries, notwithstanding the invidious restraints, by which it is intended to exclude them, often enjoy a greater share of the real advantage of it. The colonies of Spain and Portugal, for example, give more real encouragement to the industry of other countries than to that of the parent states.

Even the regulations by which each nation endeavours to secure to itself the exclusive trade of its own colonies, are frequently more hurtful to the countries in favour

of which they are established, than to those against which they are directed. This fact has been fully demonstrated by Dr. Smith, in his inquiry into the wealth of nations. After all the unjust attempts, therefore, of every country in Europe, to engross to itself the whole advantage of the trade of its own colonies, no country has yet been able to engross to itself, any thing, but the expense of supporting in time of peace, and of defending in time of war, the oppressive authority, which it assumes over them. The inconveniences resulting from the possession of its colonies, every country has, indeed, very completely engrossed to itself. The advantages resulting from their trade, it is obliged to share with many other countries.

At the first sight, indeed, the monopoly of the great commerce of America, seems naturally to be an acquisition of the highest value. To the undiscerning eye of giddy ambition, it presents itself amidst the confused scramble of politics; as a very dazzling object to fight for. The dazzling splendor of the object, that is, the immense greatness of the commerce, is the very quality, which renders the monopoly of it hurtful.

In the trade to America, every nation endeavours to engross, as much as possible, the whole market of its own colonies, by entirely excluding all other nations from any direct trade with them. During the greater part of the sixteenth century, the Portuguese endeavoured to manage the trade to the East-Indies in the same manner, by claiming the sole right of sailing in the Indian seas, on account of the merit of having first found out the road to them. The Dutch exclude all other nations from any direct trade to their spice islands. Monopolies of this kind are evidently established against all other European nations, who are thereby not only excluded from a trade, into which it might be convenient for them to turn some part of their stock, but are obliged to buy the goods which that trade deals in, somewhat dearer, than if they could import them directly from the countries which produce them.

Though the Europeans possess many considerable settlements both upon the coast of Africa and in the East-Indies, they have not yet established in either of these countries, such numerous and thriving colonies, as those in the Islands and upon the continent of America. Africa, however, as well as several of the countries comprehended under the general name of the East-Indies, are inhabited by barbarous nations. But those nations, at the time of their discovery, were, by no means, so weak and defenceless as the Americans; and, in proportion to the natural fertility of the countries, which they inhabited, they were besides much more populous. The most barbarous nations either of Africa, or of the East-Indies, were shepherds; even the Hottentots were so. But the nations of every part of America, except Mexico and Peru, were only hunters; and the difference is very great between the number of shepherds and that of hunters, whom the same extent of equally fertile territory can maintain. In Africa and the East-Indies, therefore, it was more difficult to displace the natives, and to extend the European plantations over the greater part of the lands of the original inhabitants. The genius of exclusive companies, besides, is unfavourable to the growth of new colonies, and has probably been one principal cause of the little progress which they have made in the East-Indies. The Portuguese carried on the trade both to Africa and the East-Indies, without any exclusive companies, and their settlements at Congo, Angola, and Benguela on the coast of Africa, and at Goa in the East-Indies, bear some faint resemblance to the colonies of America. The Dutch settlements at the cape of Good-Hope, and at Batavia, are at present the most considerable colonies which the Europeans have established, either in Africa, or the East-Indies.

These general remarks will assist the reader in forming an idea of the advantages derived to Europe by the discovery of the new world, and of some of the principal consequences of that memorable event.

We shall close this chapter with some remarks on the progress of society and learning in Europe, from the close of the fifteenth century to the present time.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkness, into which she had been sunk since the subversion of the Roman empire. Learning awoke from her slumber of near twelve centuries, and the inhabitants of Europe became another people. The art of printing, which, with such rapidity, spreads from country to country the wisdom and follies of mankind, was invented : artillery and engineering were brought to perfection, and totally changed the operations of war. The maritime nations fitted out fleets for making discoveries, and the whole world became connected by commerce. The human mind was, in some degree, released from the shackles of superstition, which had long silenced reason, and prevented the reasoning faculty from exerting its powers. The arts and sciences began to be more generally cultivated ; literature was esteemed ; commerce was every day improved, and riches flowed into Europe from every quarter. New principles of action, and new systems of conduct, were introduced at this æra of mental improvement ; but the powers of the human mind are unfolded only by slow degrees. Many prejudices were to be removed, many abuses corrected, and many difficulties surmounted, before the sciences could appear in their genuine lustre ; for the principles of the arts and sciences were partly forgotten. A. D.
1440.

The first studies that engaged mankind at the revival of learning, were languages and history. The human mind, released from barbarism, grew eager to collect ideas ; but was then incapable of acquiring them in a regular order. Memory, therefore, was the first faculty cultivated ; because the most easily satisfied, and the knowledge it procures, the most easily attained. Hence proceeded that croud of scholars, so deeply skilled in the learned languages, and so negligent of their own.

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

The arts of elegance are so closely connected with polite learning, that a genius for cultivating the one, leads to the improvement of the other. The various works of the ancients were no sooner carefully examined, than judicious artists were struck with those master-pieces of antiquity, which had escaped the fury of Gothic barbarity. Raphael, and Michael Angelo, brought their art to a degree of perfection, which has not since been exceeded.

The progress of philosophy was much slower than that of the polite arts. Most of the philosophical works of the ancients were lost ; and the few that remained, could give but very uncertain and confused glimmerings of so diffusive a subject. The face of nature is the primary book of philosophers, and the moderns were obliged to study it. The ancients could not save them the labour. But philosophy had other difficulties that retarded its progress ; ignorance, a blind admiration for antiquity, and superstitious bigotry, united in obscuring the light of reason, and almost stifled the genuine rays of science in their dawn.

Whilst ignorance or malevolent enemies therefore declared open war with science, philosophy retreated under the shelter of some extraordinary men ; who, without entertaining the dangerous, but illustrious, ambition of unveiling the eyes of their cotemporaries, prepared, in shade and silence, that light, which afterwards, by insensible degrees, illuminated the world.

The fifteenth and sixteenth centuries were distinguished for many important dis-

coveries. 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 shall give some account in the history of each particular state, in the following work. The great events which happened then, have not hitherto exhausted their force. The political principles and maxims then established, still continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced, or rendered general, still influence, in some degree, the councils of European nations.

It seems extremely probable, that the jealousy of so many rival powers will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no less probable, that, in contending for it, they must weaken their own force, and may at length render themselves incapable of defending even their just possessions. The partial conquests which they may make, are extremely illusive; instead of promoting, they rather oppose their designs. The external conquests of one nation, generally excite alarms in others, and are almost always less solid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occasion to, by which the nation, which has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to great extremities in the end. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the best established in the science of politics. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The states of Greece, in particular, delivered from the terror of the Persian invasions, exhibit the same truth in a great variety of lights. There was not one of the most inconsiderable of these little societies, but, in its turn, imbibed the frenzy of conquest, and in its turn, too, was reduced by this frenzy, to the utmost misery and distress.*

P A R T III.

Of the ORIGIN and PROGRESS of RELIGION.

DEITY 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 than the natural feelings, and more frequently 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 originated in 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.

* The reader who would see this subject fully illustrated, may look at the oration of Isocrates on the peace; a finished model of ancient eloquence; and which contains a fund of political knowledge.

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 formed 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 solely upon sentiment. As each tribe of men had their heroes, so likewise they had their gods. Those heroes who had led them forth to the combat, who had presided in their councils, whose image was engraved on their fancy, whose exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an existence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendship, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot easily conceive ; but the power of imagination over the senses, is what all men have, in some degree, experienced. Combine these two causes, and it will not appear strange, that the images of departed heroes should have been seen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the same functions which they performed when alive. An appearance so unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil spirits, and whose fears were confined to 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 disposition of those who had not, gained an universal assent among all the members of their society. A small degree of reflexion would be sufficient to convince them, that as their own heroes existed after death, it might likewise be the case with 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. 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 the 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 interspersed 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 greatest part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, also had theirs; and there was room enough in the universe for both to live together in friendship, without interfering 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 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 doctrines and precepts. It required not the aid of human power; it sustained itself by the truth and wisdom by which it was characterised. Constantine first established christianity as the religion of the empire. The barbarous nations copied the example of their masters, the Romans. Christianity was embraced by the Burgundians in Gaul, the Suevi in Spain, the Vandals in Africa, the Ostrogoths in Pannonia, and the various bands of mercenaries, who raised Odoacer to the throne of Italy. The Franks and the Saxons persevered for some time, in the errors of paganism; but the Franks obtained the monarchy of Gaul, by their submission to the example of Clovis; and the Saxon conquerors of Britain, were reclaimed from their savage superstition by the missionaries of Rome. These barbarian proselytes displayed an ardent and successful zeal in the propagation of the faith. The Merovingian kings, and their successors, Charlemagne and the Otos, extended, by their laws and victories, the dominion of the cross. England produced the apostle of Germany; and the evangelic light was gradually diffused from the neighbourhood of the Elbe, the Vistula, and the Baltic.

Christianity, which opened the gates of heaven to the barbarians, introduced an important change in their moral and political condition. They received, at the same time, the use of letters, so essential to a religion whose doctrines are contained in a sacred book; and while they studied the divine truth, their minds were insensibly enlarged by the distant view of history, of nature, of the arts, and of society. The version of the scriptures into their native tongue, which had facilitated their conversion, must excite, among their clergy, some curiosity to read the original text, to understand the sacred liturgy of the church, and to examine, in the writings of the fathers, the chain of ecclesiastical tradition. These spiritual gifts were preserved in the Greek and Latin languages, which concealed the inestimable monuments of ancient learning. The celebrated productions of Virgil, Cicero, and Livy, which were accessible to the christian barbarians, maintained a silent intercourse between the reign of Augustus, and the times of Clovis and Charlemagne. The emulation of mankind was encouraged by the remembrance of a more perfect state; and the flame of science was secretly kept alive, to warm and enlighten the mature age of the western world. In the most corrupt state of christianity, the barbarians might learn justice from the *law*, and mercy from the *gospel*; and if the knowledge of their duty was insufficient to guide their actions, or to regulate their passions, they were sometimes restrained by conscience, and frequently punished by remorse. But the direct authority of religion was less effectual, than the holy communion which united them with their christian brethren in spiritual friendship. The influence of these sentiments contributed to secure their fidelity in the service, or the alliance, of the Romans, to alleviate the horrors of war, to moderate the insolence of conquest, and to preserve, in the downfall of the empire, a permanent respect for the name and institutions of Rome. In the days of paganism, the priests of Gaul and Germany reigned over the people, and controlled the juris-

dition of the magistrates ; and the zealous profelytes transferred an equal, or more ample measure of devout obedience, to the pontiffs of the christian faith. The sacred character of the bishops was supported by their temporal possessions ; they obtained an honorable seat in the legislative assemblies of soldiers and freemen ; and it was their interest, as well as their duty, to mollify, by peaceable counsels, the fierce spirit of the barbarians. The perpetual correspondence of the Latin clergy, the frequent pilgrimages to Rome and Jerusalem, and the growing authority of the popes, cemented the union of the christian republic ; and gradually produced the similar manners, and common jurisprudence, which have distinguished, from the rest of mankind, the independent, and even hostile, nations of modern Europe.

It is foreign from our design, to trace the progress of the history of the church, during the middle ages ; but we shall conclude by mentioning some of the causes, which produced the reformation of religion, in the sixteenth century.

In the ancient state of Europe, before the establishment of arts and manufactures, the wealth of the clergy gave them the same sort of influence over the common people which that of the great barons gave them over their respective vassals, tenants, and retainers. In the great landed estates, which the mistaken piety both of princes and private persons had bestowed upon the church, jurisdictions were established of the same kind with those of the great barons, and for the same reason. In those great landed estates, the clergy or their bailiffs, could easily keep the peace without the support or assistance either of the king or of any other person ; and neither the king nor any other person, could keep the peace there, without the support of the clergy. The jurisdictions of the clergy, therefore, in their particular baronies or manors, were equally independent, and equally exclusive of the authority of the king's courts, as those of the great temporal lords. The tenants of the clergy were, like those of the great barons, almost all tenants at will, entirely dependent upon their immediate lords, and therefore liable to be called out at pleasure, in order to fight in any quarrel in which the clergy might think proper to engage them. Over and above the rents of those estates, the clergy possessed, in the tythes, a very large portion of the rents of all the other estates in every kingdom of Europe. The revenues arising from both those species of rents were, the greater part of them, paid in kind, in corn, wine, cattle, poultry, &c. The quantity exceeded greatly what the clergy could themselves consume ; and there were neither arts nor manufactures, for the produce of which they could exchange the surplus. The clergy could derive advantage from this immense surplus, in no other way, than by employing it, as the great barons employed the like surplus of their revenues, in the most profuse hospitality, and in the most extensive charity. Both the hospitality and the charity of the ancient clergy, accordingly, are said to have been very great. They not only maintained almost the whole poor of every kingdom, but many knights and gentlemen had frequently no other means of subsistence, than by travelling about from monastery to monastery, under pretence of devotion, but in reality, to enjoy the hospitality of the clergy. The retainers of some prelates were often as numerous as those of the greatest lay-lords ; and the retainers of all the clergy, taken together, were perhaps, more numerous than those of all the lay-lords. There was more union among the clergy than among the lay-lords. The former were under a regular discipline and subordination to the papal authority. The latter were under no regular discipline or subordination, but almost always equally jealous of one another, and of the king. Though the tenants and retainers of the clergy, therefore, had both together been less numerous than those of the great lay-lords ; and their tenants were probably much less numerous ; yet their union would have rendered them more formidable. The charity of the clergy, too, not only gave them the command of a great temporal force, but increased very much the weight of their spiritual weapons. Those

virtues procured them the highest respect and veneration among all the inferior ranks of people, of whom many were constantly, and almost all occasionally, fed by them.

The gradual improvements of arts, manufactures, and commerce, the same causes which destroyed the power of the great barons, destroyed in the same manner, through the greater part of Europe, the whole temporal power of the clergy. In the produce of arts, manufactures, and commerce, the clergy, like the great barons, found something for which they could exchange their rude produce, and thereby discovered the means of spending their whole revenues upon their own persons, without giving any great share of them to other people. Their charity became gradually less extensive, their hospitality less liberal or less profuse. Their retainers became, consequently, less numerous, and, by degrees, dwindled away altogether. The clergy, too, like the great barons, wished to get a better rent from their landed estates, in order to spend it, in the same manner, upon the gratification of their own private vanity and folly. But this increase of rent could be got only by granting leases to their tenants, who thereby became, in a great measure, independent of them. The ties of interest, which bound the inferior ranks of people to the clergy, were in this manner gradually broken and dissolved. They were even broken and dissolved sooner than those which bound the same ranks of people to the great barons; because the benefices of the church being, the greater part of them, much smaller than the estates of the great barons, the possessor of each benefice was much sooner able to spend the whole of its revenue upon his own person. During the greater part of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the power of the great barons was, through the greater part of Europe, in full vigour. But the temporal power of the clergy, the absolute command which they had once had over the great body of the people, was very much decayed. The power of the church was, by that time, very nearly reduced, through the greater part of Europe, to what arose from her spiritual authority; and even that spiritual authority was much weakened, when it ceased to be supported by the charity and hospitality of the clergy; since the inferior ranks of people no longer looked upon that order, as they had done before, as the comforters of their distress, and the relievers of their indigence. The events, to which this revolution of influence gave rise, will be unfolded in the historical department of this work.

E U R O P E.

EUROPE, though the least extensive quarter of the globe, containing according to Zimmermann* only about 2,627,574 square miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world in the other quarters, are estimated at 36,666,806 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, 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 great 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, unfolicited 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 avail itself of its strength, and that many of the arts, subservient to utility or pleasure, were invented, or at least much improved. What Greece therefore was, with regard to Europe, Europe is with regard to the rest of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther, and it is necessary to attend to it. As ancient Greece (for we do not speak of Greece as it is at present, under the dominion of barbarians) was distinguished above all the rest of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political constitutions; so has Europe in general been remarkable for smaller deviations, at least, from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though most of the European governments are monarchical, we may discover, on due examination, that there are a thousand little springs, which check the force, and soften the rigour of monarchy in Europe, that do not exist any where else. In proportion to the number and force of these checks, the monarchies of Europe, such as Russia, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one another. Besides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief sway, there are in Europe *aristocracies*, or governments of the nobles, and *democracies*, or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; France, and some states of Italy and Switzerland, afford examples of the latter. There are,

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

likewise, mixed governments, which cannot be assigned to any one class. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three is the most singular instance of this kind. The other mixed governments in Europe are composed of two of the simple forms, such as Poland, several states of Italy, &c. all which shall be explained in their proper places.

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, which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1st, The Greek church; 2d, The Roman catholic; and 3d, Protestantism: which last is again divided into Lutheranism and Calvinism, so called from Luther and Calvin, the two distinguished reformers of the 16th century. The church of England forms a third great division of protestants, entirely distinct from the two former.

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

“The greatest part of Europe being situated above the 45th degree of northern latitude, and even its most southern provinces being far distant from the torrid zone, the species of organized bodies are much less numerous in Europe, than in the other parts of the globe. Thus, for instance, upon an equal number of square miles, the number of species of quadrupeds in Europe is to the number of them in Asia as 1 to 2 1-5, to that in America as 1 to 2 1-3, and to that in Africa as 1 to 10: and the number of the vegetable species in the other three divisions of the globe, is greatly superior to that in Europe. But nature has enriched the European continent with every species of minerals; diamonds, and platina perhaps excepted. Gold, the first of metals, is not found in Europe as plentifully as in the other continents. However, as the European nations excel the rest of mankind not only in the skill of making the best use of their natural productions, but also in the art of transplanting into their own soil as many of the foreign productions as their nature will permit; Europe upon the whole must be allowed to be one of the richest parts of the globe.”*

It will doubtless be agreeable to the inquisitive mind to have at one view a comparative estimate of the different states of Europe, both as to the article of revenue, and that of their land and naval forces: we shall therefore add the same from respectable authority.†

PUBLIC REVENUE *of the* PRINCIPAL STATES *in* EUROPE.

	£. Sterl.		£. Sterl.
1. Great-Britain‡	14,500,000	11. Sweden	1,300,000
2. Austria	12,400,000 (112 million florins)	12. Venice	1,000,000
3. France	18,000,000 { (Necker, Compté rendu)	13. Denmark	1,000,000
4. Spain	5,000,000 Of old Spain alone.	14. Electorate of Saxony	1,100,000
5. Russia	5,800,000	15. Electorate of Hanover	900,000
6. Turkey	5,000,000	16. Joint elect. of the Palat. and Bavaria	1,100,000
7. Prussia	3,600,000	17. Sardinia	1,000,000
8. Portugal	1,800,000		
9. Sicily	1,400,000 medium		
10. Holland	4,000,000		

“A more exact account will be found in the special tables, the preceding statement in round numbers being intended merely to give the reader a general idea of the relative state of European finances. It would, however, be very impro-

* Zimmernann, p. 8.

† Ibid. p. 11—15.

‡ The revenue of Britain is now (1793) at least fifteen millions.

per to judge of the power of states merely by their finances ; because, in some countries, the value of money is much higher than in others : thus, for instance, the whole Russian army costs the state less than two millions of rubles. Russia, Denmark, England, Sweden, and others, have paper money."

LAND FORCES of the EUROPEAN STATES in the year 1783.

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

" As I have stated here the forces of the principal states only, passing over a considerable part of Germany, Italy, and Switzerland, we may calculate the armies of all the countries in Europe to amount to two millions of men ; so that supposing 140 millions of inhabitants in Europe, no more than one seventieth part of the whole population are foldiers. The military establishment of every kingdom, in a time of general peace, differs somewhat from the above statement. France, Austria, and Prussia have by far the most formidable armies : as to Russia, the immense extent of its provinces can never allow an army of more than 120, or 130,000 men to act against an enemy ; and as to the Turkish forces, they are at present much inferior to any well disciplined army. The different proportions, in different countries, between the population, and the number of foldiers, is not unworthy of observation. There are in Germany, nearly 500,000 foldiers, consequently one fifty-second part of the whole population are engaged in the military profession : in Italy, on the contrary, even supposing the standing armies of that country to amount to 120,000 men, this number makes only 1-133 of the whole population, which amounts to 16 millions."

NAVAL FORCES.

Number of ships of the line, frigates, cutters, sloops, &c.

1. England	-	-	465	8. Russia	-	-	63
2. France	-	-	266	9. Sardinia	-	-	32
3. Spain	-	-	130	10. Venice	-	-	30
4. Holland	-	-	95	11. Sicily	-	-	25
5. Sweden	-	-	85	12. Portugal	-	-	24
6. Denmark	-	-	60				
7. Turkey	-	-	50				
			{ commonly reckoned 60				
				Total	-	-	1,325

" Several of these numbers, taken from the naval lists of 1783, are at present reduced ; the actual number will be mentioned in the special tables. This gives, however, some idea of the respective naval strength of the different powers of Europe. Some of them, as for instance, Denmark, Sweden, Sicily, Portugal, having had no war for many years past, and having for that reason built but a

small number of ships, are capable of maintaining a much larger navy than they now have; and they would, undoubtedly, increase their naval forces very considerably in case of a war.

“ It may, perhaps, be an object of curiosity, to compare the proportions of ground now occupied, and formerly disputed by the Roman catholic and protestant religions, with the numbers of their adherents. The proportion of the surface of the countries in which the protestant religion is established, to those in which the Roman catholic religion prevails, is nearly as 3 to 4: the number of Roman catholics is, according to my calculations, drawn up with as much accuracy as such an intricate matter will allow of, about 90,000,000; the number of protestants only 24,000,000, which is a proportion of nearly 4 to 1. I shall observe, in addition to this account of the European religions, that an inconsiderable number of ignorant Laplanders may, with propriety, be called Pagans*.

“ The greatest part of Europe is under the influence of a climate, which, being tempered with a moderate degree of cold, forms a race of men, strong, bold, active, and ingenious; forced by necessity to make the best use they can of the smaller share of vegetable and animal treasures, which their soil produces. In hotter and richer parts of the globe, the profusion of spontaneous natural productions, and the heat of the atmosphere, relax the bodily and mental powers of the inhabitants, check their spirit of enterprise, and confine the compass of their thought. The torrid zone has never been able, nor is it likely, to boast of a Newton, a Cæsar, or a Frederic.

“ Great ridges of mountains, the chief of which are the Alps, the Appenines, the Pyrenean, the Carpathian, Sudetic, and Saxon mountains, effect not only a great variety in the climate, but pour out many large and navigable rivers, and contain every species of minerals. It is likewise no small convenience and encouragement to commerce, that Europe is intersected by several seas, and that it is contiguous to the Atlantic ocean.

“ The seeming natural disadvantages of Europe have, by dint of the ingenuity and perseverance of the inhabitants, given rise to numberless arts and sciences, which have been carried to such a degree of perfection, as insures to Europe a decided superiority over the rest of the globe. Asia, Africa, and America have immense deserts, such as are no where to be found in Europe; deserts of many thousand square miles, and which are partly owing to natural, and insuperable disadvantages of situation, partly to want of industry, which is at once both a cause and effect of desolation. It is almost needless to mention how far the sciences of Europe excel those of the other three continents, excepting those parts into which European knowledge and civilization have been transplanted. Europe may also boast of the greatest number of useful inventions and institutions, to preserve and to propagate acquired knowledge. It has at present about one hundred and thirty universities, and an almost infinite number of literary societies or academies of sciences, arts, and languages. In consequence of the great progress of knowledge, the Europeans enjoy all the conveniences of life in a much higher degree than the inhabitants of regions, on which nature has bestowed greater riches. And such is their superiority of skill in astronomy and navigation, that having conquered in a great measure, the dangers of the ocean, the commerce of the Europeans seems to be bounded only by the limits of the globe itself †.

“ The state of Europe, considered with respect to their intrinsic power and influence abroad, may be divided into three classes: France, Great-Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, belong to the first class. Secondary powers are those

* Zimmermann, p. 16, 17.

† Zimmermann, p. 17,—19,

of Turkey, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Sardinia: the third class comprehends Portugal, Naples, and Sicily, Poland, the Joint Electorate of the Palatinate and Bavaria, the electorate of Saxony, Switzerland, and Venice. For the last three centuries past, the cabinets of Europe, and chiefly that of France, have endeavoured to keep up a constant equilibrium between the different states. France and England endeavoured to preserve the balance of power in the west; Prussia, Austria, and Russia, that in the east, of Europe: Russia has, by its late extraordinary increase of power, gained a great ascendancy in the north, after a successful struggle with the rival power of Sweden*.”

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand division of the earth is situated between the 10th degree west, and the 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 west, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-east; and 2500 broad from north to south, from the north cape in Norway, to cape Caya or Metaphar in the Morea, the most southern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and states.

	Kingdoms.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief city.	Diff. & bearing from Philad.	Diff. of Time from Philad.	Religions.
					Statute miles.	H. M.	
British empire.	England	380	300	London	3720 N. E.	5 1 bef.	Calvinists, Luths, &c.
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh	3540 N. E.	4 48 bef.	Calvinists, &c.
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin	3430 N. E.	4 34 bef.	R. catholics, &c.
Nether-lands.	Norway	1000	300	Bergen	3750 N. E.	5 24 bef.	Lutherans
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhag.	4250 N. E.	5 50 bef.	Lutherans
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	4410 N. E.	6 10 bef.	Lutherans
	Russia	1500	1100	Petersburg	4730 N. E.	7 4 bef.	Greek church.
	Poland	700	680	Warsaw	4710 N. E.	6 24 bef.	R. cat. Luth. & Calv.
	K. Pr. dom.	609	350	Berlin	4330 N. E.	5 49 bef.	Luth. and Calvinists.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	4610 N. E.	6 5 bef.	R. cat. Luth. & Calv.
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	4280 N. E.	6 4 bef.	Roman catholics.
	Holland	150	100	Amsterdam	3950 N. E.	5 18 bef.	Calvinists.
	Flanders	200	200	Brussels	3910 N. E.	5 16 bef.	Roman catholics.
	France	600	500	Paris,	3910 N. E.	5 9 bef.	Roman catholics.
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	3810 E.	4 43 bef.	Roman catholics.
	Portugal	300	100	Lisbon	3550 E.	4 22 bef.	Roman catholics.
	Switzerland,	260	100	Bern, Coire &c.	4150 E.	5 28 bef.	Calv. & R. catholics.
Italy.	Several small states	Piedmont, Montferrat, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Tuscany. Turin, Casal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mantua, Venice, Genoa, Florence.					
	Papedom	240	120	Rome	4610 E.	4 8 bef.	Roman catholics.
Turkey in Europe.	Naples	280	120	Naples	4730 E.	6 0 bef.	Roman catholics.
	Hungary	300	200	Buda	4640 N. E.	6 17 bef.	R. cat. & protestants.
	Danubian provinces	600	420	Constantinople.	5500 E.	6 58 bef.	Mahometans, and Greek church.
	Lit. Tartary	380	240	Precop	5620 E.	7 24 bef.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	5340 E.	6 37 bef.	

* Zimmermann, p. 21, 22.

§ This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Russia, for the particulars of which, see Russia.

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

	Islands.	Chief towns.	Subject to.
In the Northern ocean.	Iceland,	Skalholt,	Denmark.
	Zealand, Funen, Alfen, Falster, Langeland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm.	— —	Denmark.
Baltic sea.	Gothland, Afand, Rugen,	— —	Sweden.
	Ofel, Dagho,	— —	Russia.
	Ufedom, Wollin	— —	Prussia.
Mediterranean sea.	Ivica,	Ivica,	Spain.
	Majorca,	Majorca,	Ditto.
	Minorca,	Port Mahon,	Ditto.
	Corfica,	Bastia,	France.
	Sardinia,	Cagliari,	King of Sardinia.
	Sicily,	Palermo.	King of two Sicilies.
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice.	Lufiena, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zant, Leucadia,	— —	Venice.
Archipelago and Levant seas.	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being of ancient and modern Greece.	— —	Turkey.

D E N M A R K.

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

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

Denmark.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Denmark Proper	North Jutland 9,600	155	98	Wyburg.
	South Jutland, or Sleswic, 2,115	70	63	Sleswic.
	Zealand, 1,935	60	60	COPENHAGEN, { N. Lat. 55—41 E. Long. 12—50
	Funen, 768	38	32	Odenfee.
	Falster and Langeland, { 220	27	12	{ Nikoping. Naxkaw.
	Femeren, 50	13	8	Borge.
	Alfen, 54	15	6	Sonderborge.
	Mona, 29	14	5	Stege.
	Bornholm, 160	20	12	Rostcomby.
In the North seas,	Iceland Island, 46,000	435	185	Skalholt.
	Norway, 71,400	750	170	Bergen.
	Danish Lapland, 28,400	285	172	Warkhuys.
Westphalia	Oldenburg, 1,260	62	32	Oldenburg.
Lower Saxony,	Stormar, 1,000	52	32	Gluckstadt.
	Danish Holstein.			
	Total. 163,041			

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

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

E A S T G R E E N L A N D,

THE most northerly part of his Danish majesty's dominions, or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 10 and 11 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. lat. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was discovered by sir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is supposed to be a continuation of old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and raggedness of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here; and the fish and fowl are said to forsake the coast in winter. The Russians of Archangel have formed, within the last thirty years, settlements for hunting in several places of the island of Spitzbergen. The aurora borealis, enables them to pursue the chase during the long winter's night that reigns in those gloomy regions; and they take a great number of sea-lions which serve them for food. There is a whale-fishery, chiefly prosecuted by the Dutch and British vessels, on the coast, which contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay; the inland parts are uninhabited.

W E S T G R E E N L A N D

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

INHABITANTS.] By the latest accounts from the missionaries employed for the conversion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 stated inhabitants: mr. Crantz, however, thinks that the roving southlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great resemblance between the aspect, manners, and dress of those natives, and the Esquimaux Americans, from whom they differ but little, after all the pains which the Danish and German missionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They are low in stature, few exceeding five feet in height; and the generality 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 use their hands with skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers, but are good humoured, friendly and unconcerned about futurity. Their most agreeable food is the flesh of rein-deer; but that is now scarce among them, and their best provisions are fish, seals, and sea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which stands in the house in a great copper vessel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fish bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping dish. The men make their hunting and fishing implements, and prepare the wood-work of their boats; and the women cover them with skins. The men hunt and fish; but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it. The women are the butchers and cooks, and also the carriers to dress the pelts, and make clothes, shoes, and boots, out of them;

so that they are likewise both shoemakers and tailors. The women also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenters work. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly severe; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the latest and best accounts of this country, says, that in their longest summer days it is so hot, from the long continuance of the sun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments. They have no trade, though they have a most improveable fishery upon their coast; but they employ all the year either in fishing or hunting, in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing seals.

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

There are several kinds of whales in Greenland; some white, and others black. The black sort, the grand bay whale, is in most esteem, on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords. His tongue is about eighteen 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 two hundred and fifty pieces of this whalebone. The bones of his body are as hard as an ox's bones. There are no teeth in his mouth; and he is usually between sixty and eighty feet long; very thick about the head, but grows less from thence to the tail.

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

When they come near the whale, the harpooner strikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the animal, 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 friction 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 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, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a second time, they pierce him with spears in the vital parts, till he spouts out streams of blood instead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the sea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him some leagues, till he has lost his strength; and when he is dying, he turns himself upon his back, and is drawn on shore, or to the ship, if they be at a distance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore; otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home. Every fish is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. sterling a barrel. The Dutch and English by their prosecution of this fishery, have starved to death a great part of the original inhabitants of Greenland.

I C E L A N D.

THIS island, which receives its name from the great masses of ice that are seen near it, lies between 63 and 67 deg. N. lat. and between 11 and 27 deg. W. long. from London. It extends four hundred miles in length, and an hundred and sixty in breadth, containing about 46,000 square miles. In April, 1783, the inhabitants of Iceland observed something rising and flaming in the sea, to the south of Grinbourg, at eight miles distance from the rocks des Oiseaux, which afterwards was found to be a new island. The fact is authentic, but its dimensions and situation

are not well ascertained. The information brought by the last ship from thence, was, that the island was still encreasing, and that great quantities of fire issued from two of its eminences.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] It appears, that a Norwegian colony, among which there were many Swedes, settled in Iceland in the ninth century. They found there, inhabitants who were Christians, and whom they called *Papas*. It is said, that the Norwegians also found among them Irish books, bells, and crofiers: and it is conjectured, that the people who were there, when the Norwegians arrived in the island, originally came from England and Ireland. The inhabitants long retained their freedom; but they were at last obliged to submit to the kings of Norway, and afterwards became subject, together with Norway, to the kings of Denmark. They were at first governed by an admiral, who was sent there every year to make the necessary regulations; but that mode has been changed for many years, and a governor appointed, who is styled *Stiftsamtman*, 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 was 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, puts an entire stop to their fishing. The small-pox has likewise been very fatal here: for, in the years 1707 and 1708, that disease destroyed 16,000 persons.

The Icelanders, in general, are middle-sized, and well made, though not very strong. They are an honest, well-intentioned people, moderately industrious, and very faithful and obliging. Theft is seldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hospitality, and exercise it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief 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 nowhere else so happy. An Icelander, 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, and imploring the divine protection: and they are always thankful for their preservation, when they have passed the danger. When they meet together, their chief pastime consists in reading their history. The master of the house begins, and the rest continue in their turns, when he is tired. They are famous for playing at chess; and one of their pastimes consists in reciting verses. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns sing stanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occasionally join in chorus. The dress of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental; but it is neat, cleanly, and suited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear several gold, silver, or brass rings. The poorer women dress in the *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 of lava, with moss stuffed between the lava. Their

roofs are covered with fods laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales, which are both more durable and more expensive than wood. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between three stones; and the smoke issues from a square hole in the roof. 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 a year.

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

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

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] It is said that poetry formerly flourished in Iceland; the art of writing was not much in use till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and most probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Christian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted; as the Runic alphabet, which only consists of sixteen letters, was found insufficient. The first Icelandic bishop, Isleif, founded a school at Skalholt; and soon after were 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 some knowledge in morality, philosophy, natural history, and astronomy. Most of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and some of them have been printed. Sir Joseph Banks presented one hundred and sixty-two Icelandic manuscripts to the British museum. That gentlemen visited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by dr. Solander, dr. Van Troil, and dr. Lind. Dr. Van Troil, who published an account of their voyage, observes, that he found more knowledge among the lower class in Iceland, than is to be met with in most other places; that many of them could repeat the works of some of their poets by rote; and that a peasant was seldom to be found, who, besides being well instructed in the principles of religion, was not also acquainted with the history of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional histories, that being one of their principal amusements.

John Arefon, bishop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieffon, a native of Sweden, in establishing a printing-press in Iceland, about the year 1530; and the first book printed by him there, was the *Breviarium Nidarosense*. He also printed an ecclesiastical manual, Luther's catechism, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic bible in 1584. A new privileged printing-office has lately been established at Hrappsey in this island, at which several valuable books have been printed.

MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Though this island is situated so far to the north, earthquakes and volcanoes are more frequent than in many countries in much warmer climates. The former have several times laid the country almost desolate, particularly in the years 1734, 1752, and 1755, when fiery eruptions broke out of the earth, and produced very fatal consequences. Many of the snowy mountains have also gradually become volcanoes. Of these burning mountains, Heckla is the best known, especially to foreigners. This mountain is situated in the southern part of the island, about four miles from the sea-coast, and is divided into three points at the top, the highest of which is that in the middle; and which is computed to be above 5,000 feet higher than the sea. It has frequently sent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful in 1693, when they occasioned terrible devastations, the ashes being thrown all round the island, to the distance of 180 English miles. The last eruption of Mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded also from it in December, 1771, and in September, 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

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

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

Basaltine pillars are likewise very common in Iceland, which are supposed to have been produced by subterraneous fires. The lower sort of people imagine these

pillars to have been piled one upon another by giants, who made use of supernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to seven sides, and are from four to six feet in thickness, and from twelve to sixteen yards in length, without any horizontal divisions. In some places they are only seen here and there among the lava in the mountains; but, in others, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

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

No wood grows successfully in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found on the whole island, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew there in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated to any advantage; though cabbages, parsley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or six gardens, which are said to be all that are in the island.

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

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

THE FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS,

SO called from their lying in a cluster, and the inhabitants ferrying from one island to another, are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. W. longitude from London. The space of this cluster extends about 60 miles in

length, and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the westward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-west. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 4000, add little to the revenues of Denmark.

N O R W A Y.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, } **T**HE natural signification of Norway is the *Nor-*
AND EXTENT. } *thern-way*. It is bounded on the south by the en-
trance into the Baltic, called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the west and north,
by the northern ocean; and on the east, it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge
of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield,
Rundfield, and Dourfield. The reader may consult the table of dimensions in
Denmark for its extent; but it is a country so little known to the rest of Europe,
that it is difficult to fix its dimensions with precision.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its posi-
tion towards the sea. At Bergen, the winter is moderate, and the sea is practica-
ble. The eastern parts of Norway are commonly covered with snow; and the cold
generally sets in, about the middle of October, and continues with intense seve-
rity, to the middle of April; the waters being all the time frozen to a consider-
able thickness. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Dron-
theim, perished in the snow, on the mountains which separate Sweden from Nor-
way; and their bodies were found in different postures. But even frost and snow
have their conveniencies, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. In the
more northerly parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is so intense, that
they are but little known. At Bergen, the longest day consists of about 19 hours,
and the shortest of about five. In summer the inhabitants can read and write at mid-
night 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 half;
owing to the reflexion of the sun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithstanding,
has been so kind to the Norwegians, that in the midst of their darkness, the sky is
so serene, and the moon and the aurora borealis so bright, that they can carry on
their fishery, and work at their several trades in open air.

The air is so pure in some of the inland parts, that it has been said the inhabitants
live so long as to be tired of life, and cause themselves to be transported to a less
salubrious air. This is most probably a fiction. Sudden thaws and snow-falls have,
however, sometimes dreadful effects, and destroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway contains a chain of unequal mountains running from
south to north: to pass that of Hardanger, a man must travel about seventy Eng-
lish miles; and to pass others, upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is esteemed the highest
mountain in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful preci-
pices, and which are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travel-
ling 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 pre-
sent 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, perhaps, than those in any other part of the world. One of them, called Dolsten, was, in 1750, visited by two clergymen, who reported, that they proceeded in it till they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they descended a flight of natural stairs; but when they arrived at another, they durst not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles going and returning.

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

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

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

QUADRUPEDS, FOWLS } All the animals that are natives of Denmark, are to
AND FISHES. } be found in Norway, with an addition of many more. The wild beasts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the fox, the lynx, the glutton, the leming, the ermin, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag; it is harmless, and, in winter, social. Its flesh tastes like venison. The hares are small; and are said to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are strong and sagacious; they are reported to be remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are in common with the rest of their species in northern countries; nor can we much credit the extraordinary specimens of their sagacity, recorded by the natives. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are shy

even of a cow or goat, unless impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by some called the goupes, is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous: it is of the cat kind, and has claws like the tyger; it digs under ground, and often undermines sheep-folds, where it makes dreadful havoc. The skin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewise found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs ashore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of. The glutton, otherwise called the erven, or vielfras, resembles a turn-spit 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 his skin unhurt: he is bold, and so ravenous, that it is said he will devour a carcase larger than himself, and unburdens his stomach by squeezing himself between two close-standing trees: when taken, he has been said to have eaten stone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its shyness and cleanliness; and its fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and large brown forest cat, only its head and snout are sharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. We shall mention the beavers, in treating of North America.

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

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

The Scandinavian lakes and seas are astonishingly fruitful in all kinds of fish that are found on the sea-coasts of Europe. Stock-fish are innumerable, and dried upon the rocks without salting. Some fish in those seas have their peculiarities. The haac-moren 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 had fallen over board, to keep him from rising. The season for herring-fishing is announced to fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales (of which seven different species are mentioned) in following the herring shoals. The large whales resemble the 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 beaks, 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, as to beat himself to death upon the rocks. The coast of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable shoals come from under the ice at the north pole, and about the latitude of Iceland divide themselves into three bodies ; one of these supplies the Western Isles and coasts of Scotland ; another directs its course round the eastern part of Great Britain down the Channel ; and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form great part of the food of the common people ; the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torfk-fishes follow them, and feed upon their spawn ; and are taken in prodigious numbers, in 50 or 60 fathoms water ; these, especially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage ; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fishing on the coast of Norway. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea-scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length ; and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The most seemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning sea-monsters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian seas ; and the sea-snake, or serpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was shot by a master of a ship ; its head resembled that of a horse ; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes, a white mane hanging from its neck : it floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea : between the head and neck were seven or eight very thick folds, 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. The peculiarities related of this animal would be incredible, were they not attested upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) says, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful sea-monster raised itself so high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-mast of the ship from which it was seen ; 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 ; the skin is variegated like a tortoise-shell ; and its excrement, which floats upon the surface of the water, is corrosive.

The existence of the kraken, or korven, is strongly asserted ; and, as it is said to exist in these seas, we think proper to mention it in this place, leaving it to the reader to give what credit to it he pleases. Its bulk 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 sand-banks, on which fishes sport, and sea-weeds grow : upon emerging farther, a number of pellucid antennæ, 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 formed in the water. In 1680, a young kraken perished among the rocks and cliffs of the parish of Alstahong, and his death was attended by such a stench, that the channel was impassable. Without entering into any romantic theories, we may safely say,

safely say, that the existence of this fish accounts for many of the phenomena of floating islands and transitory appearances in the sea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of such an animal.

The mer-men and mer-woman hold their residence in the Norwegian seas; but all that is related concerning them by the natives is not credible. The mer-man is about eight spans long, and undoubtedly has as much resemblance as an ape to the human species: a high forehead, little eyes, flat nose, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characterise its head; its arms are short, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members resembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane: the parts of generation indicate their sexes: though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like those of fishes. The females have breasts, at which they suckle their young ones.

CURIOSITIES.] Those of Norway are only natural. On the coast, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex, or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the sea, and by some Malestrom, or Moskoeftrom. 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 with a boisterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the sea with a violence and noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a whirlpool of great depth and extent; so violent that if a ship comes near, it is immediately drawn irresistibly into the whirl, and there disappears, being carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is dashed to pieces against the rocks; and just at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes still for about a quarter of an hour, it rises again in scattered fragments, scarcely to be known for the parts of a ship. When agitated by a storm, it has reached vessels at the distance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themselves in perfect security. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a situation of more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the sudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of a whirlpool, of which the noise and turbulence still increasing as it is approached, are an earnest of quick and inevitable destruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of despair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impossible: and see before them the dreadful abyss in which they are about to be plunged, and dashed among the rocks at the bottom. Even whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they struggle against it, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, which attempt to swim to the island to prey upon the sheep.

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

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE RELI- } The Norwegians preserve a medium, between
GION, AND CUSTOMS. } the simplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders,
and the more polished manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and
they have bishops, as those of Denmark, without temporal jurisdiction. Their

viceroy, like the Danish king, 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 and supposed injuries. The women are handsome and courteous; and the Norwegian forms, both of living and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly resembling those of the Saxon ancestors of the present English. Almost every inhabitant is an artisan, and supplies his family with its necessities by his own manufacture; so that in Norway there are few who are by profession, hatters, shoemakers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, or joiners. The lowest Norwegian peasant is an artist, and a gentleman, and most of them attempt poetry. 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 of contemplation even to a philosopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished with plenty; 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 out-brave it; for they expose themselves to cold, without any cover upon their breasts or necks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age is not accounted past his labour: it has been asserted, although incredible, that in 1733, four couples were married, and danced before his Danish majesty at Fredericshall, whose ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

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

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

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

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

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

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	240† }	between	{ 54 and 58 North latitude.
Breadth	114 }		{ 64 and 67 W. long. from Phil.

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

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

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

The greatest part of the lands in Denmark and Holstein are fiefs; and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained such a power over the farmers, and those who resided upon their estates, that they at length reduced them to a state of extreme slavery; so that they were bought and sold with the lands, and esteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders in Sleswic and Holstein have the power of life and death. The situation of the farmers has, indeed, been made somewhat more tolerable by some modern edicts; but they are still, if such an expression may be allowed, chained to their farms, and disposed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark, or in Holstein, is industrious, and is situated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate advantageously, as soon as

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

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

countries, as the reader will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland, for instance, is one hundred and fourteen miles where broadest, though in sundry other parts it is not fifty.

he has performed the toilsome task, and expects to reap the profits of what he has sown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hands, removes him to one of his poor farms, and expects that he should perform the same labourious task there, without any other emolument than he shall think proper to give him. This has been so long the practice in this country, it has necessarily thrown the greatest damp upon the efforts of industry, and prevents those improvements in agriculture which would otherwise be introduced: the consequence of which is, that nine tenths of the inhabitants are in a state of great poverty. But if the farmers had a security for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at present, and a much greater number of people supported by the produce of agriculture.

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

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

Jutland numbered	358,136	Duchy of Sleswic	243,605
Zealand	283,466	Duchy of Holstein	134,665
Funen	143,988	Oldenburgh	62,854
Norway	723,141	Delmenhorst	16,217
Islands of Ferro	4,754		
Iceland	46,201	Sum total,	2,017,027

However disproportioned this number may seem to the extent of the Danish king's dominions; yet, every thing considered, it is greater than could have been expected from the uncultivated state of his possessions. But the trade of Denmark has been so shackled, and her merchants so depressed by the despotism of her government, that this kingdom is at present one of the most indigent states in Europe. These circumstances prevent Denmark from being so populous as it might be, if the government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to those who engage in agriculture, and other arts. The empress of Russia, in 1773, ceded to the king of Denmark that portion of Holstein which descended to the line of Holstein-Gottorp, in exchange for Oldenburgh and Delmenhorst, which she gave to the prince of Lubec. This exchange is favourable to Denmark, both as to trade and population.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark possessed a degree of courage, which approached even to ferocity; but by a continued series of tyranny and oppression, their national character is much changed; and from a brave, enterprising, and warlike people, they are become indolent and timid.^x They value themselves extremely upon those titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly 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 contrast of that nation. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who now

^x Not true, see recent instancs of the contrary in contest w Antonin 1801

begin to visit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION.] The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into six dioceses; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; besides four in Norway, and two in Iceland. These dioceses are governed by bishops, whose profession is to superintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a distinction of their ecclesiastical dress, for they have neither cathedral nor ecclesiastical courts, nor the smallest concern with civil affairs. They are paid by the state, as all the church-lands were appropriated to the government at the reformation.

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

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

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is situated on the fine island of Zealand, was originally a settlement of sailors, and first founded by some wandering fishermen in the twelfth century; but it is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a distance. It is very strong, and defended by four castles or forts. It contains ten parish churches, besides nine others, belonging to the Calvinists and other persuasions, and some hospitals. Copenhagen is adorned by some public and private palaces, as they are called. Its streets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, and those in the lanes chiefly of timber. But the principal glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which

* Zimmermann, p. 79.

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

admits of only one ship to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the streets have canals, and quays for ships to lie close to the houses; and its naval arsenal is said to exceed that of Venice. The road for the shipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as by the difficulty of the navigation. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or sea service; and the number of forces is too large for the kingdom. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular; and people may walk through the city at midnight with great safety. Indeed, it is usually as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village.

The apartments of the palace at Copenhagen are grand, and the tapestry in many of them beautiful, particularly the story of Esther, and an assortment of wild beasts, after the manner of Quida. A colonnade, at each extremity, forms the stables, which, for their extent and beauty, are equal to any in Europe. The finest palace belonging to his Danish majesty, lies about 20 English miles from Copenhagen, and is called Fredericzburg. 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 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 ceiling is a most minute and laboured performance in sculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of silver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even besieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithstanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. The late unhappy queen Matilda spent much of her time at this palace, during the king's tour through Europe. About two miles from Elfsineur is another 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. Jagerburg is a park, which contains a royal country seat, called the Hermitage, remarkable for the disposition of its apartments, and the quaintness of its furniture; particularly a machine which conveys the dishes to and from the king's table in the second story. The chief ecclesiastical building in Denmark is the cathedral of Roschild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments still remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered passage, is a royal palace, built in 1733.

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

COMMERCE.] Denmark is extremely well situated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ships of all 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, besides fir, and other timber, are black cattle, horses, butter, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which, being the natural product of the Danish dominions, are consequently ranked under the head of exports. To these we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are salt, wine, brandy, and silk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had a great intercourse with England, from whence they import broad-cloths,

clocks, cabinet, lock-work, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England.

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

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

The greatest rarities in his Danish majesty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers ; I mean those ancient inscriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquarians and historians ; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the use of paper of any kind, and waxen tables, was known. These characters are Runic, and so imperfectly understood by the learned themselves, that their meaning is very uncertain ; but they are imagined to be historical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited specimens of several of these inscriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.] The ancient constitution of Denmark was originally upon the same plan with other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election ; and, in conjunction with the senate where he presided, was invested with the executive power. He likewise commanded the army, and decided all the disputes which arose between his subjects. The legislative power, together with the right of electing the king, was vested in the states ; who were composed, first, of the order of nobility, and secondly, of the order of the citizens and farmers : and after the christian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were admitted, not only to be an order of the states, but to have seats 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 for 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 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 tyrannized over the people. Christian the second, by endeavouring, in an imprudent manner, to stem the torrent of their oppression, lost his crown and his liberty ; but Christian the third, uniting with the nobles and the senate, destroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppression of the common people by the nobility still remained. At length, in the reign of Frederic the third, the people, instead of exerting themselves to remedy the defects of the constitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were so infatuated as to make the king despotic, in hopes of rendering themselves less subject to the tyranny of the nobility. A series of unsuccessful wars had brought the nation in general into so miserable a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The dispute came to a short question, which was, that the nobles should submit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people, upon this, threw their eyes towards the king for relief and protection from the oppressions of the order of nobility ; in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the states, it was proposed that the nobles should bear their share in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg reminded the people that the commons were no more *slaves* to the lords. This was the watch-word, which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itself. Nanson, speaker of the commons, exclaimed at the term *slavery* ; the assembly broke up in a ferment ; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a house of their own, where they resolved to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services, and formally to establish in his family the hereditary succession to the crown. This resolution was executed the next day. The king accepted of their tender, promising them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were shut ; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, submitted with the best grace they could, to confirm what had been done.

On the 18th of October, 1660, the three orders of nobility, clergy and people signed each a separate act ; by which they consented, that the crown should be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and invested the king with absolute power, and gave him the right to regulate the succession and the regency, in case of a minority. This renunciation of their rights, subscribed by the first nobility, is still preserved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family ; a relic which perpetuates the memory of the humbled insolence of the nobles, and the hypocrisy of the prince, who, to gratify his revenge against them, persuaded the people that his only wishes were to repair a decayed edifice, and then excited them to pull it to the ground, crushing themselves under its ruins.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark divested the nobility of many of their privileges ; but he took no method to relieve those poor people who had been the instruments of investing him with the sovereign power ; but left them in the same state of slavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the present age. When the revolution in the reign of Frederic the third had been effected, the king re-united in his person all the rights of the sovereign power ; but as he could not exercise all by himself, he was obliged to entrust some part of the executive power to his subjects. The supreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace at Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal president. What they call the German provinces have likewise their supreme tribunal ; which, for the duchy of Holstein, is holden at Gluckstadt ; and for the duchy of Sleswic, in the town of that name.

Matters of importance are for the most part decided by the king in his council, the members of which are named and displaced at his will. In this council, laws are proposed, discussed, and receive the royal authority : and any 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 most important affairs of his dominions.

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

There are many excellent regulations for the administration of justice in Denmark ; but it is so far from being distributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can scarcely ever have justice against the nobility, or those who are 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, obtain an order from the king to stop all the law-proceedings, or a dispensation from observing particular laws ; and there the matter ends. The code of laws at present established in Denmark, was published by Christian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes since published, and is nearly the same with that published in Norway. These laws are very just and clear ; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial consequences to the people. But as the king can alter the laws, and support his ministers and favourites in any acts of violence and injustice, the people undergo a great degree of oppression, and have abundant reason to regret the tameness and

fervility with which their liberties have been surrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

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

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

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

Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by so enterprising a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repossess themselves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greatest danger that can arise to Denmark from a foreign power, is, when the Baltic (as has happened more than once) is so frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which case the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conquest of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] The king of Denmark's revenues have three sources: the impositions he lays upon his own subjects: the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demesne lands, including confiscations. Wine, salt, tobacco, and provisions of all kinds, are taxed. Paper, corporations, land, houses, and poll-money, also raise a considerable sum. The expenses of fortifications are defrayed by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The internal taxes of Denmark are uncertain, because they are abated or raised at the king's will. Customs, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by strangers arise chiefly from foreign ships that pass through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow strait of three miles between Schonen and the island of Zealand. These tolls are in proportion to the size of the ship and the value of the cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Danish majesty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often disputed by the English and Dutch,

being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expence of light-houses on the coast ; and the Swedes, who command the opposite side of the pass, for some time refused to pay it ; but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of George I. of England, the Swedes agreed to pay the same rates as the subjects of Great Britain and the Netherlands. The first treaty relative to it was by the emperor Charles V. on behalf of his subjects in the low countries. The toll is paid at Elfsineur, a town situated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic sea, and about 20 miles distant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elfsineur, amounts at present to above 5,000,000 of rix-dollars, or 1,002,000l. sterling yearly.

A list of the king's revenues, exclusive of his private estates.

	Rix dollars, at 4s. sterling each.
Tribute of hard corn, or land-tax, - - -	1,000,000
Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound rents, excise, &c. - - -	950,000
Custom-house duties, - - -	154,000
Duties of the Sound, - - -	200,000
Duties of Jutland from salt-pits, - - -	27,000
Tythes and poll-tax of Norway, - - -	770,000
Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Christiansand, and Christiana, - - -	160,000
Other tolls, - - -	552,000
Revenues from mines, - - -	300,000
Revenue from Sleswic, Holstein, &c. - - -	690,000
Taxes on acorns, and masts from beech, - - -	20,000
Tolls on the Weser, - - -	7,500
Post-office, - - -	70,000
Farms of Iceland and Ferro, - - -	35,000
Farms of Bornholm, - - -	14,800
Oyster fishery, - - -	22,000
Stamp paper, - - -	40,000
Sum total, - - -	5,011,300

In English money, £.1,002,460

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

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three last kings of Denmark, notwithstanding the degeneracy of their people in martial affairs, were very respectable princes, by the number and discipline of their troops, which they maintained with great care. The present military force of Denmark consists of near 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greatest part of which consists of a militia, who receive no pay, but are registered on the army list, and every Sunday exercised. The regular troops are about 20,000, and mostly foreigners, or officered by foreigners ; for Frederic III. was too refined a politician to trust his security in the hands of those he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdensome to the nation, yet it costs little to the crown : great part of the infantry are stationed in Norway, where they live upon the peasantry at free quarter ; and in Denmark, the peasantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furnish them with money. The fleet of Denmark is composed of 36 ships of the line, and 18 frigates ; but many of them being old, and wanting great repairs, more than 25 ships cannot be fitted out upon the greatest emergency. This fleet is generally stationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, store-houses, and all the materials necessary for

the use of the marine. There are nearly 40,000 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 two dollars per month; but they have a sort of uniform, with some provisions and lodgings allowed for themselves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] These are two; that of the *Elephant*, and of *Daneburg*: the former was instituted by Christian I. and is deemed the most honourable; its badge is an elephant surmounted with a castle, set in diamonds, and suspended to a sky-coloured watered riband; worn like the *George* in England: the number of its members, besides the sovereign, are thirty. The badges of the *Daneburg* order, which is said to be of the highest antiquity, consist of a white riband with red edges, worn over the left shoulder; from which depends a small cross of diamonds, and an embroidered star on the breast of the coat, surrounded with the motto, *pietate et justitia*.

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

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

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

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

naval expeditions, ravaging the more southern and fertile kingdoms of Europe; hence by sir William Temple, and other historians, they are termed the *Northern Hive*, the *Mother of nations*, the *Store house of Europe*.

itary 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 styled the Semiramis of the North. Her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one sovereign, was dissolved; but Norway still continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Christian, count of Oldenburg, from whom the present royal family of Denmark is descended.

In 1513, Christian II. king of Denmark, one of the most infamous 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. His uncle Frederic duke of Holstein was unanimously called to the throne, on the deposition of Frederic. Christian 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 1629, 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 Frederic III. consented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch after this, persuaded him to declare war against Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden; which had almost cost him his crown in 1657. Charles stormed the fortress of Fredericstadt; and in the succeeding winter, marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprised the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyburg, and marched over the Great Belt to besiege Copenhagen itself. Cromwell, who then governed England, under the title of Protector, interposed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roschild; by which he ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the island of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic fought to elude those severe terms; but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more besieged Copenhagen by sea and land. The steady intrepid conduct of Frederic, under these misfortunes, endeared him to his subjects: and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence, till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and defeated the Swedish fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederic, 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 islands of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not restore to Denmark all she had lost, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic under the most imminent dangers, and his attention to the safety of his subjects, even preferably to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became absolute, in the manner already related. Frederic was succeeded, in 1670, by his son Christian V. who obliged the duke of Holstein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roschild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated 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 Landscroon; and having almost exhausted his dominions in his 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 variety of treating and fighting with the Holsteiners, Hamburgers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was succeeded by Frederic IV. who, like his predecessors, maintained his pretensions to Holstein; and probably must have become master of that duchy, had not the English and Dutch fleets raised the siege of Tonningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was no more than sixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to assist his brother-in-law, the duke of Holstein. Charles probably would have made himself master of Copenhagen, had not his Danish majesty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty, concluded with the states general, Charles obliged himself to furnish a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great service against the French in the wars of queen Anne.

Notwithstanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes, and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a descent upon the Swedish Pomerania; and another, in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated at Gadesbuck by the Swedes, who laid his favourite city Altena in ashes. Frederic revenged himself, by seizing great part of the ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general, count Steinbock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the successes of Frederic were so great, by taking Tonningen and Stralsund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wismar in Pomerania, that his allies began to suspect he aimed 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 embittered spirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the siege of Fredericshal, Frederic durst not refuse the offer of his Britannic majesty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in consequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in possession of the duchy of Sleswic. Frederic 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 Frederic, 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 pacific, he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburg. He obliged the Hamburgers to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver marks. He had, two years after, viz. in 1738, a dispute with the king of England about the little lordship of Steinhorst, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holstein Lawenburg, and which Christian said belonged to him. Some blood was spilt during the contest; in which Christian, it is thought, never was in earnest. It brought on, however, a treaty in which he availed himself of the king of England's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Christian a subsidy of 70,000l. sterling a year, on condition of keeping in readiness 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. Two years after, Christian seized some Dutch ships, for trading without

* 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.

leave, to Iceland; but the difference was accommodated 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 suffer all Scandinavia to be subject to one family. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people. His son, Frederic V. in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to George II. of England. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happiness of his people; and wisely took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. By his intervention, the treaty of Closter-seven was concluded between the late duke of Cumberland and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his first queen, who was mother to the present Danish king, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His son, Christian VII. was born the 29th of January 1749; and married the youngest sister of George III. the princess Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at first a very promising appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen-dowager, mother-in-law to the present king, who has a son named Frederic, whom she is represented as desirous of raising to the throne. When the princess Carolina-Matilda came to Copenhagen, she received her with all the appearance of friendship and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the same time telling her, that she would take every opportunity, as a mother, to assist her in reclaiming him. By his conduct she became the depository of all the young queen's secrets, while at the same time, it is said, she placed people about the king, to keep him constantly engaged in all kinds of riot and debauchery. When the king was upon his travels, the queen-dowager used frequently to visit the young queen; and, under the mask of friendship and affection, told her of the excesses which the king had fallen into in Holland, England and France, persuading her not to live with him. But as soon as the king returned, the queen gently reproaching him with his conduct, his mother-in-law endeavoured to persuade the king to give no ear to her counsels, as it was presumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Matilda now began to discover the designs of the queen-dowager, and afterwards lived upon good terms with the king. She also now assumed to herself the part which the queen-dowager had been complimented with in the management of public affairs. This exasperated the old queen; and her thoughts were entirely occupied with schemes of revenge. But her views of this kind at first appeared the more difficult to carry into execution, because the king had displaced several of her friends, who were about the court, and had been increasing the national debt in times of the most profound peace, and were rioting on the spoils of the public. However, she at length found means to gratify her revenge in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was observed that Brandt and Struensee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as a minister; and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were supported by her. This opened a new scene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the discarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and she became the head of the party. Struensee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the administration of the public affairs at once, which should have been the work of time; and thereby made a great number of enemies among those whose interest it was, that things should continue upon the same footing that they had been for some time before. After this, queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter; but as soon as the queen-dowager saw the child, she, with a malicious smile, de-

clared that the child had all the features of Struensee : on which her friends published it among the people, that the queen must have had an intrigue with Struensee : which was corroborated by the queen's often speaking with this minister in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated ; and it was asserted, that the ruling party had formed a design to supercede the king, as being incapable of governing ; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her son ; and that Struensee was to be her prime-minister. Whatever Struensee did to reform the abuses of the late ministry, was represented to the people as so many attacks upon, and attempts to destroy, the government of the kingdom. By such means the people began to be greatly incensed against this minister : and as he also attempted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head of which were some creatures of the queen-dowager, who took every opportunity to make the inferior officers believe, that it was the design of Struensee to change the whole system of government. It must be admitted, that this minister seems in many respects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his passions : his principles also appear to have been of the libertine kind.

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

by those who had the principal share in the revolution ; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whose person and name it was necessary occasionally to make use of. All the officers concerned in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almost total change took place in the departments of administration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic presided, and a commission of eight members, to examine the papers of the prisoners, and to commence a process against them. The son of queen Matilda, the prince royal, now entered into the fifth year of his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governess, under the superintendency of the queen-dowager. Struensee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorously treated in prison ; they both underwent frequent examinations, and at length received sentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previously cut off. Struensee at first absolutely denied having had any criminal intercourse with the queen ; but afterwards confessed the fact ; and though he is said to have been induced to this by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt were esteemed notorious, and his confessions full and explicit. Beside, no measures were adopted by the court of Great Britain to clear up the queen's character in this respect.

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

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

Queen Matilda was naturally of a lively disposition, until her misfortunes brought on a settled melancholy, which preyed upon her mind. In company she endeavoured to dissemble her sorrows, and assume a cheerfulness to which her heart was a

stranger. She became extremely fond of solitude; and, when alone, indulged her grief in the most bitter lamentations. She retained, to her last moments, the most unaffected attachment to her children in Denmark: with all the anxiety of a parent she made repeated enquiries after them, and was delighted with receiving the minutest accounts of their health, amusements, and education. Having obtained their portraits from Copenhagen, she placed them in her most retired apartment, often apostrophized them as if they were present, and addressed them in the tenderest manner*.

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

THE DANISH KING'S GERMAN DOMINIONS.

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 Hamburgh and Lubec: but on the 16th of November, 1773, the ducal Holstein, with all the rights, privileges, and territorial sovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, 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.

Altena, a large, populous, and handsome town, of great traffic, is commodiously situated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburgh. It was built in that situation, that it might share in the commerce of the latter. Being declared a free port, and the staple of the Danish East India company, the merchants also enjoying liberty of conscience, great numbers flocked to Altena from all parts of the North and even from Hamburgh.

The famous city of Hamburgh lies, in a geographical sense, in Holstein; but is an imperial, free, and Hanseatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holstein called Stormar. It has the sovereignty of a small district round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the most flourishing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark still lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be considered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of inhabitants are said to amount to 180,000; and it is furnished with a variety of noble edifices, both public and private; it has two spacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals.

* Cox's travels into Poland, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, 4to. vol. ii. p. 516—518.

† Christian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1766 he was married to the princess Carolina Matilda

of England; and has issue Frederic, prince royal of Denmark, born Jan. 18, 1768; and Louisa Augusta, princess royal, born July 7th, 1771, who was married to the prince of Sleswic-Holstein, May 27, 1786.

Hamburgh 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 Hamburgers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, besides an artillery company.

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

L A P L A N D.

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

SITUATION, EXTENT, AND NAME.] The whole country of Lapland extends, so far as it is known, from the North cape, in 71° 30' N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is the most valuable; and some parts, in the east, to the Muscovites or Russians. It is needless to point out the supposed dimensions of each. That belonging to the Swedes may be seen in the table of dimensions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts say, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth; it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that separate Norway from Sweden. The Muscovite part lies towards the east, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Those parts are divided into smaller districts; generally taking their names from rivers: but, unless in the Swedish part, which is subject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be said to be under no regular government. Swedish Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly considered by authors in describing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the descendants of Finlanders, driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from the word *Lappes*, which signifies exiles. The reader, from what has been said in the introduction, may easily conceive, that in Lapland, for some months in the summer, the sun never sets; and, during winter, it never rises; but, as has been observed, the inhabitants are so well assisted by the twilight, and the aurora borealis, that they never discontinue their work through darkness.

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

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The reader must form in idea a mass of mountains irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland; they are, however, in some interstices, separated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of islands, some of which form delightful habitations; and are believed by the natives to be the terrestrial paradise; roses and other flowers

grow wild on their borders in the summer ; though this is but a short gleam of mild weather ; for the climate in general is excessively severe. Dusky forests, noisome, unhealthy morasses, and barren plains, cover great part of the flat country, so that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the state of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as those of iron, copper and lead, have been discovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage ; beautiful crystals are found here, as are some amethysts and topazes ; also various sorts of mineral stones, surprisingly polished by the hand of nature ; valuable pearls have likewise been sometimes found in the rivers, but never in the seas.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] We must refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries. The *Zibelin*, a creature resembling the martin, is a native of Lapland ; and the skin, whether black or white, is so much esteemed, that they are frequently given as presents to royal and distinguished personages. The Lapland hares are said to grow white in the winter ; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. The most remarkable of the Lapland animals is the *rein-deer*, which nature seems to have provided to solace the Laplanders for the privation of various comforts of life. This animal, the most useful perhaps of any in the creation, resembles the stag, only it somewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All describers of this animal have taken notice of the cracking noise that it makes when it moves its legs, which is attributed to its separating and afterwards bringing together the divisions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the same manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery bristles, which is almost the only bird that can endure the rigour of the same climate. The hoof, however, is still further protected ; the same necessity which obliges the Laplanders to use snow shoes, renders the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof equally convenient in passing over snow, as it prevents their sinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body rest only on a small point. This quadruped hath therefore an instinct to use a hoof of such a form, in a still more advantageous manner, by separating it when the foot is to touch the ground so as to cover a larger surface of snow. The instant, however, the leg of the animal is raised, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the collision of the parts occasions the snapping which is heard on every motion of the rein. And probably the cracking which they perpetually make, may serve to keep them together, when the weather is remarkably dark. In summer, the rein-deer provide themselves with leaves and grass ; and in the winter they live upon moss : they have a wonderful sagacity in finding it out, and when found, they scrape away the snow that covers it with their feet. The scantiness of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of the journies, which they perform with so little support. They fix the rein-deer 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 the ice and snow. The deer, whose harness is very simple, sets out, and continues the journey with prodigious speed ; and is generally so safe and tractable, that the driver is at little trouble in directing him. At night they search for their own provender ; and their milk often helps to support their master. Their instinct in choosing their road, and directing their course, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the summer months, when they live in the woods. Their flesh is a 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 in the fields, they may be shot as other game. But

it is said, that if one is killed in a flock, the survivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore single stragglers are generally pitched upon. Their surprising speed (for they are said to run at the rate of 200* miles a day) seems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of those carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, that, by whispering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their destination. But after all these abatements, the natives would have difficulty to subsist without the rein-deer, which serve them for so many purposes.

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

“Those who have not seen it, will scarcely believe what numbers of water-fowl are to be met with; and my watermen would every now and then put in to shore, to look for the eggs of wild ducks and geese, among the reeds, which grow here and there upon the river side, or in the little islands which in several places are formed in the middle of the river, and that after the manner of the Laplanders, who get vast quantities of these eggs, and of the wild-fowl too, when in season; for instance, the old ones in winter, and the goslings and young ducks in summer, which they have several ways of killing; and their prey is in such plenty, that should one of them go out a shooting for two hours, and not bring home a load of game, he would certainly conclude that some enchanter, who bore him a grudge, had, out of mere spite, spoiled his sport||.”

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finnish origin, and comprehends so many dialects, that it is with difficulty they understand each other. The greater part have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make use of in their Rounes, a sort of sticks that they call Pistave, and which serve them for an almanac. These hieroglyphics are also the marks they use instead of signatures, even in matters of law. Missionaries, from the christianized parts of Scandinavia, introduced among them the christian religion; but they can hardly be said even yet to be christians, though they have among them some religious seminaries, instituted by the kings of Denmark. The majority of the Laplanders practise as gross superstitions and idolatries as are found amongst the most uninstructed pagans; and so absurd, that they scarcely deserve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their superstitions have induced the northern traders to believe that they are skilful in magic and divination. For this purpose their magicians make use of what they call a drum, made of the hollowed trunk of a fir, pine, or birch-tree, one end of which is covered with a skin; on this they draw, with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jesus Christ, the apostles, the sun, moon, stars, birds, and rivers; on these they place one or two brass rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and, according to

* Holberg says, the rein deer, “if he is pressed, will travel at the rate of ten or twelve Swedish miles a day (70 or 84 English miles), but by such hard driving he is generally destroyed. It, however, frequently happens, that he will persevere in

his journey 50 miles, without intermission, and without taking any refreshment.” Linnæi Amœnit. Academ. Vol. I. p. 169.

§ Holberg.

|| Montgray's Travels, vol. ii. p. 501.

their progress; the forcerer prognosticates. These frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ship-masters are such dupes to the arts of these impostors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the magician's directions, they gain what wind they want. This is also a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great address on the part of the forcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted talisman. The Laplanders still retain the worship of many of the Teutonic gods; but have among them great remains of the Druidical institutions. They believe the transmigration of the soul; and have festivals set apart for the worship of certain genii, called Juhles, who, they think, inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but, being without form or substance, they assign to them neither images nor statues.

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

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above six feet in height. They cover them according to the season, and the means of the possessor; some with briars, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarse cloth, or felt, or the old skins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains, which open 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, they place upright sticks at small 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 these 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 a post, which is the trunk of a tree, cut off at about the height of a fathom or six foot 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. Their principal dishes are the flesh of the rein-deer, and puddings made 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 most delicate meat. They eat every kind of fish, even the sea-dog; as well as all sorts 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, which they eat raw. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk: they make also broths and fish soups. Brandy is scarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a mat on the ground; and then men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Every Laplander 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 the dress of the Laplanders they use no kind of linen. In the *Flora Laponica*, Linnæus says, "Perhaps the curious reader will wonder how the people in Lapland, during the terrible cold that reigns there in winter, can preserve their lives; since almost all birds, and even some wild beasts, desert it at that time. The Laplander, not only in the day, but through the whole winter nights, is obliged to wander about in the woods with his herds of rein-deer. For the rein-deer never come under cover, nor eat any kind of fodder, but a particular kind of *liverwort*. On this account, the herdsmen are under a necessity of living continually in the woods, in order to take care of their cattle, lest they should be devoured by wild beasts. No part of our body is more easily destroyed by cold than the extremities of the limbs, which are most remote from the sun of this microcosm, the heart. The kibes that happen to our hands and feet, so common in the northern parts of Sweden, prove this. In Lapland, you will never see such a thing; although, were we to judge by the situation of the country, we should imagine just the contrary; especially as the people wear no stockings, as we do, not only single, but double and triple. The Laplander guards himself against the cold in the following manner. He wears breeches made of rein-deer skins with the hair on, reaching down to his heels, and shoes made of the same materials, the hairy part turned outwards. He puts into his shoes, *slender-eared, broad-leaved, cyperus grass, carex vesicaria. Spec. Pl.* (or the bladder carex) that is cut in summer and dried. This he first combs and rubs in his hands, and then places it in such a manner, that it not only covers his feet quite round, but his legs also; and being thus guarded, he is quite secured against the intense cold. With this grass they stuff their gloves likewise, in order to preserve their hands. As this grass keeps off the cold in winter, so in summer it hinders the feet from sweating, and at the same time preserves them from being annoyed by striking against stones, &c. for their shoes are very thin, being made, not of tanned leather, but of the raw hide*."

Their doublet is made to fit their shape, and open at the breast. Over this they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves; the skirts reach to the knees; and it is fastened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this

* Stillingfleet's tracts, p. 137, 138.

girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for getting fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, of leather, or of cloth; the close coat is of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at top, and the four seams adorned with lists of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, shoes, doublets, and close coats, in the same manner as the men; but their girdle, at which they carry likewise the implements for smoking tobacco, is commonly embroidered with brass wire. Their close coat hath a collar, which comes up higher than that of the men. Besides these, they wear handkerchiefs, and little aprons, made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and earrings, 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.

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

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

COMMERCE.] Little can be said of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports consist of fish, rein-deer, furs, baskets, and toys; with some dried pikes, and cheeses, made of rein-deer milk. They receive for these, rix-dollars, woollen cloths, linen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, spiritous liquors, tobacco, and other necessaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconsiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. The reader may make some estimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty squirrel skins, or one fox skin, and a pair of Lapland shoes, produce one rix-dollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greatest part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the security of their property, few disputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable aversion to war.

Length 800 miles } between { 55 and 70 degrees north latitude
Breadth 500 } { 10 and 30 east longitude

1. SWEDEN PROPER : Upland, Sudermania, Nericia, Westmania, Dalecarlia.
2. GOTHLAND : East Gothia, West Gothia, the isles of Gothland and Oeland, Vermland, the fief of Bohus, Dalia, Scania, Halland, Blekingen.
3. NORLAND : Geftricia, Helfingia, Medelpad, Herjedalia, Ongermania, Jemtland, West Bothnia.
4. FINLAND : Finland proper, the isle of Aland, East Bothnia, Tavastland, Nyland, Savolax, with parts of Kymene and Carelia.

Sweden has, besides, in Germany, a part of Pomerania, the island of Rugen, and the district of Wismar; all together 1440 square miles: it also obtained from France, in the year 1785, the small island of St. Bartholomew in the West Indies, computed about thirty miles square.¹

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.] " Though Sweden is situated under a rigorous climate, it enjoys a much milder temperature than those countries of Asia and America which have the same latitude. For this advantage it is undoubtedly indebted to the waters with which it is washed and intersected, as well as to that high degree of cultivation to which it has attained." The winter is long and very cold, but dry and clear. The short days are generally enlivened by a splendid sun ; and the long nights receive a mild and agreeable light from the moon, the aurora borealis, and the reflexion of the snow. " In summer, the sun remains so long above the horizon, that the night consists only of a slight twilight ; vegetation then acquires its full vigour, and Nature seems to regain that time which she has lost during the frosty season." The transition between these seasons is quicker than in more southern climes ; and very rapid in the northern provinces. These have scarcely any spring or autumn ; but their short summer is very warm, which, with the length of their days, ripens the grain sooner than in the southern. The district of Torno in West Bothnia, enjoys the pleasing phenomenon of a *midnight sun* for several nights about midsummer, and in the winter solstice they see this luminary but just rising above the horizon. " Thunder is seldom heard in this country. It produces no venom-

* This account of Sweden has been compiled by a Swedish gentleman in Philadelphia, principally from Catteau's view of Sweden, the latest and best publication on the subject.

ous reptiles : and earthquakes never spread terror and consternation. Some of its learned men pretend that traces of extinguished volcanoes are to be seen in it, but the proofs which they bring are far from being convincing. The pure and sharp air which the Swedes breathe, renders them vigorous, and preserves them from epidemical diseases. The plague has sometimes made havoc amongst them, but it appears that the infection was conveyed to them from the southern countries. They often attain to a very great age : according to a memoir published by mr. Wargentín, there were lately found, during a period of nine or ten years, 2036 men and 3540 women above the age of 90 ; 212 men and 328 women between 100 and 105 ; 31 men and 36 women between 106 and 110 ; 22 men and 19 women between 111 and 120 ; one man aged 122, and one woman of 127."

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRO- } " Linnæus reckons that there are in
DUCTIONS, WATERS, AND MINERALS. } Sweden 1300 species of plants, 200 of
which are used in medicine, and 1400 species of animals. Wolves, foxes, hares,
birds of prey, moor fowl, cocks of the wood, together with fresh and salt-water fish,
are found here in great abundance ; bears, elks, does, roebucks, fables, beavers,
and pole-cats, are more uncommon. It has been remarked, that no beeches grow
beyond Ostrogothia, and no oaks beyond Upland ; the birch grows in all the pro-
vinces. The pine and the fir however form the principal part of those forests
with which Sweden is covered : they preserve their verdure during the whole
winter, and afford a happy relief to the eye, dazzled by the continual splendor of
the snow : they preserve the image of life amidst an almost universal death."
Wild apple, pear, cherry, and plumb trees, grow here and there up to the 60th de-
gree, with the aria, prunus-padus, hazle, and service, (or rown) ; these three last,
with strawberries, huckleberries, cloudberryes, and lingon, (better than cranber-
ries) are in plenty over the whole country : the northerly provinces alone possess the
delicious rubus arcticus : currants, both red and white, are found even in Lapland.

" With regard to mineral productions, Sweden is very rich. Iron is found in many
places near the surface of the earth ; it is met with in veins and masses. It is gene-
rally contained in a calx of phlogisticated iron. The ore of Danmöra in Upland is
the best. The mine of Fahlun produces copper, well known throughout all Europe.
This mine is 180 fathoms in depth, and the mineral is a very hard pyrites. The
richest silver mine in the country is found at Sala, in the province of Westmania ;
the mineral consists of cubical wolfram. This mine produces a small quantity of
pure silver, some of which has been found also of late years in an iron mine at
Wermland, under strata of clay which intersect it. The gold mine discovered about
the middle of this century, at Ædolfors in Smoland, furnishes only a very small
quantity of that metal, which is contained in a calcareous matrix ; the miners find
sometimes a few pieces of it perfectly pure. This mine is eighty-four fathoms in
depth. Besides these, the bowels of the earth abound with lead, marble, alum, lime-
stone, coal, vitriol, curious petrifications, porphyry, amethysts, loadstone, - slate,
talk, quicksilver, sulphur, mother-of-pearl, and some other productions of the
mineral kingdom.

" The face of the country in Sweden is diversified with a profusion of eminences,
hills, and mountains. The most remarkable of these, the Sevebergfrygn, is a
chain of mountains, which in Westrogothia begins to rise above the level of the sea ;
it extends towards the north, between Norway and Norland, and separates these
two countries by summits covered with eternal snow. According to mr. Bergman,
it stretches as far as the northern part of Asia, and in that quarter of the globe is
terminated only by the boundaries of the earth. The mountain of Kinekulle, on
the banks of lake Wenner, deserves the attention of every traveller who traverses
Sweden : it consists of a number of terraces rising one above another, the high-

est of which presents a scene equally rich and variegated. The mountain of Omberg, in Smoland, is so high, that four provinces, six cities, and fifty churches, may be seen from the top of it. This mountain on one side touches lake Wetter, and in digging at the bottom of it there is found a quarry of lime-stone which extends pretty far under the water. These, as well as all the other mountains of Sweden, are composed of gravel, freestone, calcareous stone, slate, different kinds of petrifications, and granite; the basis of the greater part of them is granite, which is so plentiful, that it is found in large separate masses, that often rise to a considerable height. Jetteberg, in Westrogothia, forms a mass of this nature. Taberg, situated in Smoland, is a chain composed entirely of iron ore. There are three chains of the same kind in Swedish Lapland, viz. Kerumavara, Luosavara, and Gellivara.

“The soil of the plains and vallies which lie between the hills and mountains, is very proper for cultivation. The heat of the sun by being there concentrated, and the springs that fall from surrounding eminences, render them fertile even when they are not refreshed by showers of rain. The plough is employed also on many of the hills, which by active industry are now converted into fields fit for tillage.

“The waters by which Sweden is washed and intersected are very numerous. Here you find a vast arm of the sea, there an extensive lake, and a little farther a broad and rapid river, or a foaming and impetuous torrent. The Baltic, which extends along the kingdom, forming two large gulphs, that of Bothnia and that of Finland, seems to be the grand resource of Sweden. Much has been written on the decrease of the waters of this sea; and about the middle of the present century a very warm dispute arose on the subject among the Swedish literati. Many arguments may be advanced on both sides, but the question is not yet determined. Mr. Bergman, in his *Physical description of the earth*, inclines towards the system of its decrease, and his authority has considerable weight. The northern sea, or the German ocean, washes the provinces of Scania, Halland, Westrogothia, and Bohus, under the name of the Categate, or Skagerack. The coasts of the districts bordering on these two seas abound with rocks, islands, and promontories, which form a number of gulphs and bays. These passes, formidable to navigators, are in the language of the country called Schæren.

“The rivers of Sweden are rapid, and supply abundance of fish; but the numerous rocks and shoals which are found in them, render them unfit for the purposes of navigation. The Dal has a very picturesque fall near Elfskarleby, in Upland, and produces great plenty of salmon. Gothia is celebrated for the cataracts of Trolhætta, which signifies the *forcerer's manor*. The river Motala in its course forms a number of beautiful cascades near the city of Norkœping, and, like the Dal, is very abundant in salmon. Lakes of greater or less extent are found in most of the provinces. The Mælar which waters Upland, Sudermania, and Westmania, is seventy-six miles in length and fifty in breadth: it contains a surprising number of islands; there are reckoned to be 1290, several of which are six or eight miles in extent, and exhibit a picture of fertility and abundance. The banks of the Mælar are covered with towns, villages, farms, and gentlemen's seats. At Stockholm this beautiful lake discharges itself into the Baltic by two rapid currents, one of which is called the northern, and the other the southern current. The Hielmar washes Sudermania and Nericia; it is forty-four miles in length, and three or four in breadth. It contains fewer islands than the Mælar, into which it discharges itself near the city of Torshälla. The Wenner, which divides its waters among three provinces, Westrogothia, Dalia, and Wermland, is ninety miles in length, and in breadth forty-five. It is much higher than the northern sea, with which it has a communication by the river Gothia: it increases and decreases regularly, abounds with fish, and contains a number of islands. Of all the lakes of Sweden, the Wetter is the most interesting, on account

of the different phenomena which it exhibits to the observer. Four provinces, Ostrogothia, Westrogothia, Smoland, and Nericia, are washed by its waters : its greatest length is 95 miles, and its greatest breadth twenty. It receives a continual supply from the streams of forty rivulets, and is considerably higher than the Baltic, into which it discharges itself by the Motala. Its waters are so clear, that a piece of money may be distinguished in it at the depth of twenty fathoms : in some places its bottom has never yet been discovered, though sounded with a very long line. The Wetter often increases and decreases in a very short space of time : this is said to be occasioned by subterranean winds, and upon such occasions it makes a rumbling kind of noise, and a tempest soon after follows. The same winds, when least expected, break the ice with which the lake is covered in winter, and the sulphureous and bituminous substances deposited at its bottom forcing a passage, produce explosions, the noise of which is very alarming to those who live in the neighbourhood. In Swedish Lapland there are two lakes, Enara and Kemijarvi, which are remarkable on account of their extent. The first is in length 130 miles, and the other 200." Mineral springs abound in every province ; their number is not less than 360. That of Loca, in Westmania, and Medevi in East Gothia, are very salutary : the latter was, by professor Bergman, preferred to all the rest.

POPULATION.] Bloody wars, with the inseparable neglect of industry, had, till the death of Charles the 12th, greatly retarded the population of Sweden. Since that period, however, it has been promoted with anxious care. On the one hand, the means of subsistence have been increased, and on the other salutary measures have been adopted for the preservation of health and life : in every province, some physicians are appointed to take care of the poor ; inoculation is become general : hospitals have been enlarged, extended, and improved : asylums for widows, orphan-houses, and lying-in places for indigent or forlorn women, have been established. In Stockholm the college of medicine has lately prepared a house for a free inoculation, and public midwives cannot practice there without previous examination. The common paupers, all over the country, have competent provision in their parishes, and their number will be small while the common people preserve their healthy constitution, frugality, and innocence.

" In order to ascertain the exact state of the population of the kingdom, the states, in 1741, created a remarkable institution, highly worthy of being imitated in every other country. This institution, called *the commission of registers*, is entrusted with the care of collecting and comparing all the registers of marriages, births, and deaths, in Sweden ; it corresponds with every town and parish, and distributes to the magistrates and clergy forms of registers divided into several tables. The first table contains births, deaths, and marriages in general ; the second deaths, and the third the sum total of the inhabitants. The two first tables are accompanied with the number of legitimate and illegitimate children ; that of double or triple births, and that of divorces. To these are also added the ages of those women who are delivered ; the ages of those who marry ; the sex and age of those who die ; the causes of their death ; the diseases prevalent at each season, &c. &c. Mr. Wargentin having found, by the increase in eight dioceses, that between 1775 and 1780 the number of inhabitants had been augmented 89,000, thence concluded, in a memoir presented to the academy of sciences at Stockholm, that the fourteen dioceses, which compose the kingdom, had gained an increase of 200,000 souls from 1772 to 1782 ; and that the number of inhabitants at the latter period, might be considered as amounting to nearly three millions, including 100,400 in the German possessions. Population is sufficiently numerous in the southern provinces ; but it decreases in proportion as we advance northwards : two or three persons often occupy a square league. Some of the northern provinces have however increased con-

siderably in population of late years. Norland has experienced a happy revolution in some of its districts : in the year 1729 there were in all Finland only 142,600 inhabitants ; but at present there are above 600,000. The whole population is now above three millions, of which the people in the country make eight-ninths.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] “ Though Sweden is covered with rocks, woods, and mountains, its inhabitants are mild and peaceable. Theft, murder, and atrocious crimes, in general, are very uncommon amongst them ; and even in war, they do not appear sanguinary. Every traveller who traverses their country, must pay a tribute of gratitude and esteem to their attention, disinterestedness and hospitality. Naturally serious and grave, they are acquainted with, and cultivate the valuable bonds of sociability. Under the most simple external appearance, they conceal a profound judgment, an acute and delicate genius, and often an active and intrepid spirit. They long made a conspicuous figure by their military exploits, and they have since proved, that they are equally fit for the arts of peace. They are fond of travelling ; but at the same time, they love their country, never forget it, and always long to see it again.” They unite love for liberty with a zeal for civil order : without servile homage for royalty, they have always borne the warmest affection and highest veneration for those kings who were worthy of the throne. Probity and candour are general characteristics. Law suits are very rare in country places, and generally finished without the aid of lawyers. The only vice, which in some degree may be called national, is an intemperate use of spiritous liquors, which, in many cases, proves destructive to health, property, and morals. The higher classes are generally free from this : but many of them are corrupted by that love of pomp, and sensuality, which prevails in other countries, with their necessary attendants, poverty, diseases, frauds, celibacy, and illicit connexions.

“ The capital of Sweden has had the fate of all those proud cities, to which the riches of states are conveyed, and in which they are accumulated. Except some few shades, arising from different degrees of population, Stockholm exhibits the same scenes as other places of the like kind. Here we may see the madness of luxury passing from the superior to the inferior classes ; a taste for pleasure giving birth to a dislike for labour and the performance of one’s duty ; and seduction sacrificing numberless unhappy victims, to gratify brutal and inordinate passions. Here also we meet with abundance of professed gamblers, fine gentlemen and fine ladies—good-natured husbands, and modish wives who take advantage of their simplicity and condescension. The fashions and customs which are imported from France, always obtain here a decided preference ;” and have, with some good, caused much mischief. Other great cities have more or less imitated the modish vices of the metropolis ; but as yet they have not penetrated into the interior parts. These frequently present charming scenes of a virtuous and elegant country life, similar to those which are so feelingly painted in Thomson’s seasons.

Fondness for convivial pleasures, music, and dancing, is a leading feature in the Swedish character ; and no nation has better mingled festive joy with moral sentiment. Their weddings are celebrated with the most affecting ceremonies ; those of the more opulent farmers exhibit a show of rural hospitality, plenty, ceremonious festivity, and cordial hilarity. The young couple, attended by a chosen set of their youthful friends, a band of musicians, and a numerous retinue of neighbours and relations, repair to the parochial church, to give, before the altar, a reciprocal vow of sacred love : a canopy of silk is held over the flowing curls of the swain, and the splendid crown of his bride, while the priest chants the nuptial benediction, accompanied with the melodious choir, and the solemn organ : arrived, under joyful acclamations, at the bridal house, which is adorned with flowers and ever-greens, they listen to a fresh sacerdotal benediction, and an excellent

hymn, sung by the whole company : the sumptuous banquet commences then with copious libations and specific tunes for every toast ; and is succeeded by a variety of dances : the guests, sometimes 150 in number, are frequently entertained for five days. The poorer people make proportional exertions, and, agreeably to an old laudable custom, are aided by their friends and neighbours. Christening and churching is likewise productive of a festive day. Mowing, harvest, and other extraordinary work is performed by the joint labour of one or two villages, and always rewarded with the feast and dance. Christmas is kept for two weeks between public worship, and social enjoyment : other festivals have their due share. “ Two days of the year, the first of May, and midsummer, are in Sweden particularly consecrated to public mirth and joy. On the first of May, large fires, which seem to announce that natural warmth about to succeed the severity of the winter, are kindled in the fields ; around these, people assemble, while others go to enjoy good cheer, and with the glass in their hands to banish care and sorrow. Midsummer day is still better calculated to inspire mirth and festivity : the fine season is then established ; the sun every where diffuses his vivifying rays ; the tenants of the woods, freed from their long captivity, tune their throats to joy ; the flocks range the fields at their ease, to taste the juicy grass ; and man, awakened from that lethargy into which he has been sunk, together with all nature, seems to be animated by a new soul, while his faculties resume their wonted vigour, and his heart becomes open to the soft impressions of sensibility. On the evening before this happy period, the people assemble ; the houses are ornamented with boughs, and the young men and young women erect a pole, around which they dance till morning. Having recruited their strength by some hours of repose, they repair to church, and after imploring the protection of the Supreme Being, they again give themselves up to fresh effusions of joy, which undoubtedly are no less agreeable to the father of mankind, than reciting prayers and hymns. During these two festivals, the people display all their gaiety by dances and songs, the greater part of which are national, and partake somewhat of the climate.”

Superstition is a foible which the Swedes have in common with their neighbours, more or less according to education and circumstances. The inhabitants of mountains and forests have many accounts of invisible beings, which, however, partake less of the terrible than the romantic.

Preservation against the cold of winter, especially necessary in the northern parts, is well understood. Pelisses, cloaks, great coats, caps, and boots, lined with fur, are of excellent use. “ The greater part of the houses are of wood ; but when well constituted and kept in good repair, they are warmer than those built of brick or stone ; they likewise contract less moisture, and are not apt to retain that nourisher of cold. The seams of the windows are daubed over with pitch or cement, and double ones are sometimes employed ; but these are attended with a sensible inconvenience in winter, by rendering the apartments too dark. The stoves are constructed in such a manner as is most suitable to the country ; the tubes of them are so twisted as to make the heat circulate, and to prevent it from being too soon dissipated : by means of a lever, the air may be condensed, or rarefied at pleasure. Wood here is not dear, and little care is employed to save it. The price of provisions is equally moderate ; but the case is not the same with labour and objects of luxury.”

The lower classes of people live principally upon hard rye bread, salted and dried fish, milk, peas, cabbage, turnips, &c. with a proportion of pork, beef, salted mutton, and goat's flesh, butter and cheese. Beer is their common beverage, and very cheap. The tables of the opulent are covered with a variety of meat, fresh fish, wild fowl, and made dishes, often to an excess of luxurious refinement. The consump-

tion of wine is very great in Sweden. The use of tea, coffee, and chocolate, is every day extended more and more.

The Swedes have a national dress adopted in 1777, with the laudable design of repressing luxury in the article of clothes. The men wear a close coat, very wide breeches, strings in their shoes, a girdle, a round hat, and a cloak. But the great body of yeomanry, who have no need of this regulation, dress at option, in their neat simplicity. Their general competency is greatly owing to contempt of tyrannic fashions. They partake, however, of the national taste for plate; many poor cottagers have their small silver cups: easy farmers display a variety of plate: opulent families, both in towns and the country, have very splendid silver services.

The several provinces present various shades of the general character, manners and customs; but our limits only permit a sketch of the Dalecarlians. "Under a rigorous sky, amidst mountains covered with snow, during eight months of the year, they accustom themselves to the severest labours, and fear no fatigue. Like the rocks which surround them, they brave every attack; proud and intrepid, as all mountaineers are, they detest slavery, resist oppression; and, attached to their manners and customs, they transmit them unchanged from generation to generation. Short coats, all black or white, a long beard, and an uncouth but nervous dialect, distinguish them from the other inhabitants of Sweden. Placed upon an ungrateful and barren soil, they have often no other nourishment than bread, composed of the coarsest meal, mixed with the bark of trees, gruel, seasoned only with water and salt, or dried fish. These people emigrate, in great numbers, to seek for a maintenance in the more opulent provinces, and above all in the capital: they are employed in public as well as in private works: and in whatever they undertake, they show as much intelligence as honesty. While they are absent from their native country, they observe the strictest economy in their manner of living, and endeavour to save enough to enable them to return, and to supply their wants, which are not numerous." Their open integrity has sometimes been abused by leaders of a criminal ambition; but their object, even in revolts, was always to support the rights of the nation. In great dangers, they have been a national bulwark. Under the banners of Gustavus Vasa, they delivered Sweden from a foreign yoke. In the alarming crisis of 1789, their generous valour supported Gustavus III. against a powerful combination of external foes, and internal traitors.

AGRICULTURE.] "In travelling through Sweden, one finds fields well cultivated and covered with rye, wheat, barley, and oats. Meadows are not wanting, some of which are natural, others artificial; and they produce excellent grass; but they can be mown only once. Vegetables of every kind are known and reared; potatoes grow in abundance, and the people begin to be fond of them. Proprietors of land who are in easy circumstances, have orchards, kitchen gardens, hot-beds, and green houses, and display on their tables cherries, pears, plums, and melons, which would do no dishonour to the southern countries." All the common fruit-trees will thrive in most of the provinces. The fine bergamot pear, and the high-flavoured Astracan apple ripen beyond the 61st. degree. As yet, however, large orchards are rare among the common farmers, but they rise and extend very fast.

"For some years past, the Swedes have applied with great ardour to the cultivation of hemp and flax; and on this account they import much less than before from other countries. Tobacco, so highly valued by all the people of the north, is also greatly esteemed in Sweden; the fields in the neighbourhood of the capital, and of some other cities, are entirely covered with it. Bees, too, are not neglected, but the climate seems to be unfavourable for breeding them; and the Swedes, perhaps, have not sufficiently studied the care and attention which these useful insects require in cold countries."

“The half of those vast territories that compose Sweden, is occupied by forests, lakes, marshes, rocks, and underwood. Rich proprietors, however, improve a great deal by blowing up rocks, clearing away woods, draining marshes, and rooting up bushes. By these means, fields and meadows increase every year, and industry makes new conquests over nature.”

“The Swedes are well acquainted with the management of cattle, and do not neglect it. But their cattle are small, as is the case in all the other northern regions : and they would be more so, were not the breed mended by a mixture with those of other countries. They cannot feed on grass for more than five or six months. During the rest of the year, they are confined to their stalls, and cost the proprietors a considerable sum for their maintenance.” The milk is, however, superior to that of warm countries, and that of goats makes excellent cheese.

“Scania, Ostrogothia, and Finland, seem to be the provinces most susceptible of those improvements in agriculture, which are essential to the subsistence of man. The soil and climate of Scania are the same as those of the northern districts of Germany : all kinds of grain ripen properly in that province ; and the cattle attain to a greater size than in other parts of Sweden. Ostrogothia is a delightful country, intersected with hills and lakes ; its inhabitants are intelligent and active. Finland abounds with fertile plains and excellent pastures ; the soil there has yielded sometimes twenty and thirty fold. In the northern part of it there are vast districts, which the nearest villages took possession of, without a legal title, and which they could not turn to any advantage. Government, however, ordered them to be accurately surveyed ; and having left to the ancient proprietors an extent proportioned to their means, converted the rest into new farms, subject to new rents ; but those who possess them, are exempted from paying them for twelve years. Smoland supports itself by its pastures. Upland, Sudermania, Westmania, and Nericia, have an ungrateful soil ; but the industry of the inhabitants assists the efforts of nature, and for the most part procures them the necessaries of life. In other provinces, the inhabitants struggle against obstacles, sometimes with success, but often with great loss ; in some years, they are obliged to mix the roots and the bark of trees with the coarse meal which they use.”

The rapid increase of cultivation, with the late arrangements for permanent magazines, will, no doubt, in future secure ample supplies of grain. The illustrious society, called patriotic, has made the promotion of agriculture in every branch a principal object. It distributes every year aids and honorary rewards to those who improve their freeholds or tenures. Petty tenants, soldiers, labourers and dairy maids, partake of these : and such is the spirit of honour among the poorest, that they value a silver-necklace, or an embroidered hatband, received in this way, more than weighty coin.

MANUFACTURES.] The silk manufactures are indifferent. Those that employ cotton and camel's hair, thrive better, and are somewhat benefited by the naturalization of the Angora goat.

“Since the English, Spanish and German breeds of sheep have multiplied, and since the cultivation of flax and hemp has been extended, broad cloths, fine and coarse linens, sail cloth and cordage, have been manufactured with success, and in considerable quantities. The produce of broad cloth manufactured in Sweden, may amount to 500,000 rix-dollars annually : Spain and Portugal furnish wool, which must be mixed with that of the country. The fine Swedish cloth is much esteemed ; it is generally used, and large quantities of it are exported, on account of the bounty, which is twelve per cent. when the cloth is exported to any country of Europe, and twenty-five per cent. when exported to any other quarter of the globe. As the coarse cloths are inferior in quality, and much dearer, they will

not, like fine clothes, defray the expence of labour, and the consumption of them is much more limited. The peasants manufacture those woollen stuffs which they use for their dresses, and with which they clothe their soldiers. The peasants also, and above all, those of Westrogothia, Norland, and Finland, manufacture the principal part of the linen cloths, which are exceedingly good, and sold at a moderate price. The country manufactures might be encouraged, in order to afford occupation to the inhabitants during the long winters, were the cities numerous enough, and sufficiently populous. Administration has opened in the capital, and in some provinces, public workhouses, destined for the relief of the poor, who are employed in manufacturing linen and thread. The overseers are employed to dispose of the work which they produce. There are paper manufactories in different parts of the kingdom ; but they do not supply enough for daily consumption. The Swedes are well acquainted with the art of dressing leather : considerable quantities are, however, imported from Russia and England. The gloves of Scania are in great request, and many of them are sold in the neighbouring countries. A person has for some time been settled in the capital, who manufactures excellent Morocco. Sugar bake-houses, salt works, starch, powder, tobacco, and soap manufactories, together with oil mills, have been established of late years. In the ports where the herrings are caught, innumerable hands are employed in extracting oil from them. The porcelain and stone ware of Marieberg and Rorstrand, in the neighbourhood of the capital, are inferior in quality to those of China and some countries of Europe. Glass-houses have not yet attained to a high degree of perfection in Sweden : there is only one worthy of notice, which was established in Finland by a very active and intelligent person. The Swedes make a respectable figure as gilders, goldsmiths, jewellers, and watchmakers ; and they have applied, for some time past, and with considerable success, to embroidery."

The mines are great sources of riches. The furnaces and forges produce yearly 400,000 scheppund*, of which about 100,000 are afterwards brought to various degrees of refinement. " Anchors are forged in various places ; but those of Sæderfors are accounted the best. Iron guns, bombs, and grenades, are fabricated at Stafsjæ, Oker, and Finpong ; brass guns are cast at Stockholm : and fuses, sword-blades, carabines, and other instruments of destruction, are made at Norkœping, Jœnkœping, and in the capital. Manufactories of iron plates, tin plate, steel, iron wire, nails, and various kinds of utensils, have increased very much of late years. The city of Eskilstuna, in Sudermania, is remarkable for the manufactories of steel and cast iron, which government have established there. On this account, the city has obtained several privileges ; and the workmen, who distinguish themselves by their industry, receive establishments according to their merit. There are several of them who display great ingenuity, and whose works are almost as well finished as those of England."

The produce of the copper mines, of which that of Fahlun, in Dalecarlia, yields the greatest part, is about 6000 schp. of pure metal. The manufactories of brass and brass wire, consume annually 2000 schp. The rest is exported, or converted into sheets for coppering vessels—into very thin plates for covering houses—into various utensils—and into coin. Saltpetre works are found in every province. Allum works, powder mills, with manufactories of vitriol and red lead, produce a surplus for exportation. Sweden has four or five silver mines ; but the old one of Sahla in Westmania, is the principal, though it yields at present only 1500 or 2000 pounds per annum. The gold mine at Aedelfors in Smoland, produces only five or six thousand ducats, which hardly defray the cost of working.

* $\frac{1}{2}$ Schp. make a ton.

INTERNAL AND FOREIGN COMMERCE.] "The waters, which wash and intersect the kingdom, are of great utility for transporting the productions of the soil, and the fruits of industry, from one province or city to another. The Swedes have endeavoured to derive every advantage possible from these waters, by digging canals. The oldest of these, is that, which, by nine sluices, joins lake Mælär, to lake Hielmar, near the city of Arboga, in Westmania. It was begun under Charles XI. and the breaches made in it by the hand of time have been lately repaired. A small river which runs past Arboga, and throws itself into the Mælär, tended greatly to facilitate the junction of these two lakes. This canal has established a regular trade between several provinces, and twelve cities, of which Stockholm, Upsal, Westeros and Arboga, are the principal." The communication between the great lake Wenner and the Northern sea, by the river of Gothia, would be very advantageous, if the obstacles of the shoals and cataracts in it could be removed. The terrible falls of Trolhätta still remain; but the new project of a canal along the banks of the river may prove successful. Canals are also opened in Finland, which has peculiar need of them. "Several of its districts are separated by woods, marshes, and rivers, which can be of no service to navigation: but a plan has been lately formed, to drain these marshes, to clear the woods, and to render the rivers navigable. The foundation of three new cities have also been laid. These are Kuopio, Tammerfors, and Kaskö.

"The highways, which have been formed in Sweden by the hands of men, are very broad and solid: the basis of them consists of rocks, stones, and gravel. Every one who possesses land, must contribute towards the support of these roads, and repair them every year immediately before harvest. An attempt has been made to establish waggons between Stockholm and Scania. But those who undertook to carry this plan into execution, found that it would not answer. The post for conveying letters was regulated under queen Christina; it is conducted by a certain number of peasants, who farm lands from the crown. These lands are called Posthemman, and in virtue of their destination, are exempted from many burdens. The mail may be often seen in the hands of a child, who, calmly seated on his horse or cart, and fearing no danger, conveys it with perfect security from one place to another. This is a remarkable circumstance, which does honour to the national character of the Swedes; for there are few countries in which the mail can be forwarded in this manner. When a conveyance cannot be had by water, it is made in winter on the snow, by means of a light sledge, which is exceedingly commodious, and costs very little. Ore, wood, and coals, are thus transported to the different forges; and the principal fairs are held in winter on account of this convenience."

The foreign commerce has increased rapidly of late years. "They carry it on entirely themselves, and their flag is known on the most distant shores. Their vessels, which are well built, are numerous, and procure them considerable gain for freight, and by coasting voyages. By the act of navigation, published in 1738, foreign nations cannot send to Sweden, in their own bottoms, but their own productions, or those of their colonies; and they are subjected besides to certain duties, which are not paid by the natives of the country.

"The mines, forests, and waters of Sweden furnish the principal articles of exportation. It exports, one year with another, between 300, and 330,000 schp. of iron. Bar-iron, pig-iron, iron hoops, steel, wrought iron, cannons, and iron bullets, constitute this lucrative part of foreign commerce; the price of bar-iron is between five and six rix-dollars per schp. The Swedes have been apprehensive of being out-rivalled by the Russians in this branch; but the acknowledged superiority of the Swedish iron has always kept up its price, and the demand for it continues

to be very great." The copper, both in bars, plates, and sheets, is also in great demand ; as are brass and steel.

" The iron and copper entered at the different ports of Sweden, in order to be exported, produced, from the year 1760 to 1779, the sum of 46,152,962 rix-dollars. The Swedes export annually about 150,000 dozen of planks ; 2,474 dozen of joists ; 4,550 beams ; 97,000 tons of pitch and tar ; and 4,000 tons of wood-ashes and pot-ashes. The exportation of herrings amounts, one year with another, to 160,000 barrels ; that of herring oil increases more and more, and brings an annual gain of five or six thousand rix-dollars. The articles of re-exportation are not very numerous : the most important are furnished by the East India company.

" If Sweden possesses many objects of exportation, those which it imports are equally numerous. Some of these are absolutely necessary ; but others of them are sought for only in consequence of those factitious wants created by luxury, which are daily increasing in every country of the world. Sweden imports sometimes 500,000 barrels of grain ; it has occasion also for 280,000 barrels of salt one year with another ; and it expends immense sums for wines, stuffs, leather, tallow, hemp, sugar, coffee, tea, tobacco, and other articles of provision. It has been proved by the custom-house registers, that the corn, coffee, tea and tobacco, annually imported, cost more than a million of rix-dollars.

Sweden imports " hemp, tallow, hides, corn, and several other objects which Russia, Courland, Prussia, and the northern parts of Germany possess in abundance : but the iron, copper, steel, lime-stone, alum, and herrings which it gives in return, are not equivalent in value to the articles it receives : there is always a balance against it of 150 or 200,000 rix-dollars. With Denmark and Norway it gains ; but this gain is absorbed by the contraband trade carried on near the frontiers of the latter. The commerce of Sweden, on the German and Western oceans, extends to Holland, England, France, Spain and Portugal. The Dutch furnish it with spices, tobacco, colours and paper ; and in return take iron, and some other productions ; but in too small quantities to leave a balance in its favour. Sweden sends to the ports of France, iron, steel, copper, brass, iron and brass wire, planks and pitch, and brings back wine, salt, coarse sugar and fruit."

" From England it procures lead, tin, leather, beer, butter, cheese, and coals, to the amount of 100,000 rix-dollars all together : in return, it sells to the English, iron, copper, pitch, planks, and herrings, to the value of almost a million of rix-dollars ; so that it derives a profit from this trade sufficient to compensate it for several losses. It gains considerably also by Spain and Portugal, which do not pay, with the salt, wines, and wool purchased in their ports by the Swedes, for the iron, cannon, copper, planks, nails and pitch, which in return they take from Sweden.

" The Swedish ships frequent also the Mediterranean. They carry to Italy and the Levant the principal articles which they export, above all, artillery ; and bring back salt, fruit, spices, cotton, and cotton and linen cloth : in such voyages they bring great profit to their owners for freight.

" A new East India company has been formed, which obtained a charter for twenty years, and, like the former, engaged to pay 12,500 rix-dollars to government. Foreigners, as well as natives, may purchase a share in this company : they receive every necessary security.

" The Swedish vessels which perform the voyage to China, are generally of four hundred lasts burden ; they carry one hundred and fifty men, and draw 300,000 piastras at Cadiz. These vessels carry out some of the productions of Sweden, and return richly laden with tea, coffee, silk, porcelain, and cotton stuffs. These

articles, however, do not all remain in the country: the Dutch, the English, and the Danes purchase the greater part of them; and, one year with another, the company draw from foreign nations above a million of rix-dollars for the merchandise they import in their vessels. This is their truest gain, and the real advantage which the kingdom derives from its trade to the East Indies.

The acquisition of the island of St. Bartholomew gave rise to a West India company. Its charter is dated October 31, 1786: it pays nothing to the crown, and forms a fund by subscription. The island of St. Bartholomew has a governor, and a garrison: a council, of which the governor is chief, has been also established there, to second the operations of this rising company. In the year 1774, a company was formed for carrying on the whale fishery: it still subsists, but in such a languishing condition, that it will be a work of difficulty to revive it: active and powerful rivals will always raise up obstacles, and fetter its efforts.

PRINCIPAL CITIES.] Sweden, on a territory much larger than that of France, contains only 105 cities; many of these are small; and the interior districts of the north have none. This indicates a want of industry; but not in the degree that many would infer; because the most necessary mechanics are settled in every parish; and the greater number of country labourers and farmers practise several trades with considerable ingenuity. It is a proverb, that *the Swedes are born smiths and carpenters*. Nor is real poverty common in the uncultivated parts; because the few inhabitants have extensive pastures, with plenty of fish, game, and peltry. A cottager, on the borders of Lapland, can, at pleasure, feast on a fine pike, or salmon, and pretty often on a keder, orre, or hierpe*. The Swedes also love a country life; and many gentlemen reside constantly on their estates; hence magnificent seats are often found in the neighbourhood of inconsiderable towns.

Stockholm||, the metropolis, built upon seven high islands, between the Baltic and the lake Mælar, surrounded by mountains, woods, and gardens, exhibits views equally striking and delightful. Its circumference is thirteen miles; and it has 80,000 inhabitants. Among the principal edifices are the nobility's hall, the city hotel, the exchange, the bank, and the theatre of the national opera. Some of the churches make a fine appearance, and have precious paintings, silver vessels, organs, bells, &c. The royal palace consists of a large square, with two wings, and stands upon an eminence that commands a view of the whole city; the interior part displays great elegance and taste. This city has for 400 years been the seat of government, and gradually become the centre of all its branches. The several boards of chancery, commerce, treasury, war, admiralty, &c. are established here, with the national bank, the mint, the academy of sciences, and other illustrious institutions. The diets also assemble here. These advantages, with its central and maritime situation, have made it the first commercial place in the kingdom. "The trade of Stockholm employs six or seven hundred vessels. The harbour, though the avenues to it are rendered difficult by innumerable rocks and islands, possesses great advantages: ships there find themselves in the heart of the city. The custom house is situated close to it, and vessels can be unloaded with the greatest facility." Spacious warehouses, filled with the principal articles of exportation, and piles of beams, planks, rafters, &c. touch the sea, on one side, and the lake on the other.

Gottenburg is the next in rank, both in trade, and in population, which is estimated at 18,000. This city, situated between the Baltic and the northern sea, has this advantage over the capital, that its port is seldom shut up by the ice. These two ports are said to divide one half of all the national exports, in the proportion of five to

* These birds are respectively the size of turkeys, common fowl, and pheasants.

|| Long. 18. 9 E. Lat. 59. 20 N.

two. "A great many Englishmen, Germans, and Dutchmen, have settled at Gottenburg, under the auspices of civil and religious liberty. The trade carried on in this city employs from five to six hundred vessels; the most considerable article which it exports, is herring oil. As the East India company have their offices and warehouses at this place, it enjoys the principal profit of a very thriving branch of commerce.

"Norkœping, in Ostrogothia, has an excellent harbour, exports a great deal of brass, and disperses throughout the southern provinces several necessary articles, which its vessels bring from France and other countries." It contains 9000 inhabitants, and carries on great manufactures in brass, copper, arms, cloth, &c.

Obo, the capital of Finland, has a population of 9000, with a considerable trade in the produce of that country. One of the national universities and supreme courts is also established there. Gefle is the best city in Norland, and contains 6000 people.

In the south, these are most remarkable for population and wealth—Carlsrona, with 9000 inhabitants; Calmar, Lund, Landscrona, Malmo, Christianstadt, with 5000. In the west, Fahlun, with 7000; Westerohs, nearly as populous; Christinahamn and Wenersborg are worthy of notice. Upsala, distant fifty miles from Stockholm, is well known for its university, has a stately castle, the largest cathedral church in the country, and the see of the archbishop.

Those of the Swedish towns, which are not maritime, enjoy, a few excepted, a pleasant situation on some lake or river.

Of the German territory, Stralsund is the capital. It is a commercial city, with 11,000 inhabitants.

LANGUAGE.] "The language spoken by the Swedes, is little cultivated in other countries; but it deserves to be better known. It is characterised by force and energy: and though it has not that softness and flexibility, which are found in other languages, they are not, however, incompatible with its genius." It has a great affinity with the Saxon part of the English, with fewer words of Latin origin. Though it is less copious, it has a clearer tone by a better mixture of vowels, and by their more determined sound; which also makes the pronunciation more easy. The late professor Ihre has displayed the analogy and etymology of his mother tongue, in the *Glossarium Sweo-Gothicum*, a master-piece of erudition and criticism. Other writers have followed his example. The principal object of the Swedish academy, lately founded, is to improve the language. It intends to publish a dictionary and a grammar.

"There is in Sweden, as in all other countries, a variety of dialects: that of Scania has such an affinity to the Danish, as sufficiently shows that province to have been long subject to Denmark; that of Dalecarlia differs widely from the Swedish, properly so called; it has the rough energy of the ancient Gothic. It is even pretended, that, in the most remote districts of Dalecarlia, the inhabitants still make use of Runic characters." The Fins and Laplanders have each a particular language, and there is a great similarity between them. "Ihre pretends that these two languages, originally very little different, were prevalent in Scandinavia, before the arrival of Oden and the Goths. This assertion he supports by the testimony of several Icelandic historians; and he besides quotes some words, still preserved in the Swedish language, the origin of which cannot be found but in those of Finland and Lapland. A Finland bishop, named Juslenius, has favoured the literary world with a Finlandic and Latin dictionary: and Mr. Oerling, a native of Lapland, has lately published one, Laplandic, Swedish, and Latin, accompanied with the Laplandic grammar of Mr. Lindahl."

PUBLIC EDUCATION.] All the Swedes can read, and the greater part write. All

the towns, and some parts of the country, have schools, in which arithmetic, with the elements of geography, and history, are taught, without the toil of dead languages, needless in the common walks of industry. The poorest children receive a religious and moral education from parochial schoolmasters and the clergy; of which the rudiments are taught in a general catechism, fraught with excellent practical rules. They also learn music from the national hymn book, which has many good compositions, with fine melody. "Convinced that public education has influence in the most direct manner over public felicity, government have established a commission for the express purpose of bringing to perfection so important an object. This commission sits at Stockholm. There is also in that capital a society for the improvement of education, who publish elementary books, and other useful works. This society was first established by mr. Gørvell, librarian to the king."

RELIGION.] The Swedes commenced Christians in the ninth century. Lutheranism was introduced early in the sixteenth, and finally established in 1593, by the synod of Upsal. The reformation was not attended in Sweden by the tumults and persecutions of some countries; because it was gradual, and preserved many agreeable rites of the catholic church, such as, choral music, statues, pictures, and many other church ornaments. How far religious toleration extends at present, may be seen from the following decree of the states in 1778:

"Since the free exercise of religion, granted to those who establish themselves in the kingdom, is consistent with that toleration, which does honour to humanity, and which is at present introduced into almost all well-regulated states, we are of opinion, that as this toleration may be useful to Sweden, in many respects, it is necessary to adopt it among us, but with such exceptions as prudence, and the fundamental laws of the kingdom, equally prescribe. Having taken this matter into consideration, we decree, that the free exercise of religion shall be granted in Sweden, under the following conditions:

"I. That the people of a foreign religion who wish to settle in Sweden, shall not be permitted to hold any office under government.

"II. That they shall not open public schools, for the purpose of teaching their doctrine.

"III. That they shall not send missionaries either into the kingdom, or out of it.

"IV. That they shall not be permitted to found convents, of any sect whatever.

"V. That the Jews shall open no synagogues but at Stockholm, and a few more principal cities of the kingdom, where a watchful eye may be kept over them.

"VI. That they shall make no public processions, for fear of offending the weak.

"VII. Such Swedes as abandon their religion, shall be proceeded against according to the laws of the country.*"

As yet, few of the Swedes incline to schism, from these causes—the national religion is warm, but mild and easy; public worship is ceremonious and agreeable; the clergy are generally faithful pastors, and mix with their flock in social enjoyments; the church is neither proud, nor opulent, the prelates assuming no title of lordship, and the other ministers having various degrees of decent competency, without luxury or abject poverty.

LEARNING.] Scholastic erudition was cultivated in the two preceding centuries,

* "Banishment, and a loss of all civil privileges, is the punishment prescribed by the law in such cases." We are not certain how far the press is free for religious subjects.

and during the present, great progress is made in the sciences and polite literature. The fame of Linnæus will remain while natural history shall find votaries. This great man adored the Supreme Being, and was so strongly impressed with the idea of omnipresence, that he wrote over the door of his study, *innocui vivite, numen adest*. Among his many worthy disciples are Solander, Hasselquist, Bergius, Thunberg, Sparrman, Schwarz, &c. Mineralogy and chemistry have been greatly improved by Wallerius, Bergman, Cronstedt; experimental philosophy by Schele and Wilke; astronomy, mechanics, and natural philosophy by Polhem, Klingenshierna, Celsius, Stroemer, Wargentin, and Melanderhielm; political economy by Berk, Kryger, and Fischerstroem; medicine by Rosenstein, Acrell, Daxely, &c. Dalin, Botin, and Lagerbring are celebrated national historians. The history of Gustavus I. and that of Eric XIV. by bishop Celsius, are instructive and pleasing. A history of Gustavus Adolphus, by mr. Hallenberg, is now probably published: the author undertook it by order of the late king. The geography of Sweden by Tuneld, of which the fifth edition is in the press, is very much esteemed. The above Dalin, (who was tutor of Gustavus III.) the counts of Creutz and Gyllenborg, with madame Nordenflycht, were distinguished poets: Kellgren, Klevberg, Leopold, Lidner, Sjoeborg, and count Oxenstierna, occupy a distinguished rank among those of the present day. Those who well understand the language, acknowledge, that several pieces in every branch of poetry rival the best in any other country.

Some fine specimens of eloquence have been delivered in the Swedish diets, the universities, and academies. Taste in devices and emblems is much cultivated; as appears in the treatise of Sahlstedt on this subject. As a journalist, mr. Gjoervell, librarian to the late king, has great merit: he has published many volumes.

The Swedish academy of sciences at Stockholm directs its attention to the most useful enquiries in medicine, natural history, mathematics, and political economy: since its institution in 1738, many volumes have been published. The academy of belles-lettres, history, and antiquities, was formed by Louisa Ulrica. Her son, the late king, founded in 1786, another academy for the culture of the language, with pensions and funds for annual prizes. Other literary societies are formed at Upsala, Gottenburg, &c. and a physiographical one at Lund.

Architecture flourishes in the improved provinces: many strangers of taste are surprised to find so many stately edifices in a country so near the pole. Sweden has some excellent painters and sculptors. The Swedish theatre is of late much improved both in composers and actors: but its pleasures are confined to the greater cities. The whole nation has a taste for music: it is very generally taught: the common people have some simple but pleasing instruments, with many martial and pathetic songs in the style of Ossian.

Upsala has long been the first seminary in the north. Its library, botanical garden, observatory, economical theatre, and chemical laboratory, are worthy of notice. The professors are about twenty: among them are teachers of political economy, the national constitution and laws, and of agriculture. Masters of languages, and the fine arts, are also on the establishment, with a good riding school. The number of students is six hundred. Obo and Lund are the other two universities. Besides these, there are fourteen colleges, and a great number of classical schools. All the seminaries of learning, with the above mentioned common schools, are supported by the public, which extends a plain education to the poorest classes, and a learned one to all who can afford to attend the half yearly terms; even this is facilitated at the universities by certain funds. By these means, indigent young men of talents frequently rise to very eminent stations in society.

The royal libraries at Stockholm and Drottningholm, are well stored with excellent works. The cabinets of natural history at the latter place, at Upsala, and that

of the academy of sciences, are very valuable. Mr. Carleson has a museum containing 800 species of birds.

[CIVIL AND CRIMINAL LAWS.] “The civil and criminal laws of Sweden are more agreeable to the grand principles of reason, justice, and humanity, than those of many other countries. The Roman law is taught in the universities, but only as an object of erudition, the knowledge of which may be useful to the lawyer. Besides, the obscure and often unintelligible decrees of Justinian and Theodosius have no influence over the condition of the Swedes. They are condemned or acquitted by laws suited to their government. The latter were not dictated by despotism, amidst the terror and consternation of the people: they are the result of the deliberations of the national assembly.” The Swedish code of laws originated in the remotest era, and grew under various forms, with national circumstances, till it obtained considerable perfection in the reign of Gustavus Adolphus, and still greater in the year 1736, when the new code was published by the sanction of the states. A new edition, with salutary amendments, appeared in 1781. The brevity and precision of the civil laws tend greatly to abridge and shorten lawsuits. The criminal laws display a striking character of humanity and justice. The punishment of death is in most cases exchanged for heavy fines, whipping, and hard labour. Criminals, condemned to die, are generally beheaded. Very atrocious crimes are punished with greater severity; but of these there are few instances. Information against accomplices does not procure impunity. Imperfect proof cannot condemn. Seduced women no longer suffer the infamy of ecclesiastical punishment. Those who murder their infants are condemned to die, if, on a minute examination, the crime cannot bear extenuation. Gustavus III. abolished torture in the beginning of his reign. This barbarous and fatal practice had been tolerated as an abuse, but never admitted into the criminal code.

Territorial judges, assisted by twelve freeholders, administer justice in the country. Cities and corporate towns have tribunals composed of burgomasters and citizens. Appeals from any of these are carried to the four supreme courts which are stationed in convenient places, and, when necessary, send some of their members to examine facts on the spot. These must confirm all sentences of death. “Judges must strictly follow the spirit of the laws; and they are forbidden, under pain of fine and dismissal, to interpret them as interest or their passions may dictate. If, by such a perversion, they deprive a citizen of his honour or life, they are subjected to the same sentence which they pronounced against him. Established custom may serve them as a guide; but only in cases respecting which the code is entirely silent. The chancellor of the law is invested with the right of watching over the conduct of the judges, and of prosecuting them, if they act contrary to the duties of their office. On the opening the tribunals, the judges assist at divine service; and the minister at the altar reminds them, in a solemn manner, of the duties which they have to discharge.

“If it happens that a person of illustrious birth, or a whole body, is guilty of any offence against the king, the kingdom, or the crown, and if this offence cannot be tried by any of the ordinary tribunals, a tribunal of the kingdom is then established, in which the king presides, and in which the most distinguished personages of the state have a right to sit. The chancellor of justice is advocate in behalf of the public, and the oldest of the secretaries of revision holds the book of precedents: while sentence is pronounced, the doors are always open.

“On viewing the public prisons of Sweden, one readily perceives the character of a government that listens to the voice of humanity, and distinguishes mankind from brutes. Several very salutary alterations might still be made in these prisons; but it is a great deal, that those who see them, find more reason to lament the

crimes of the persons they contain, than the severity of the treatment which these victims of corruption experience while they wait with anxiety for their sentence."

The Swedish laws of inheritance are remarkably wise and just ; by their happy influence great inequality of property is prevented ; and Sweden has a greater number of small proprietors than any other country in Europe.

MILITARY ESTABLISHMENTS.] "Charles XI. when he mounted the throne, having deprived the nobles of those crown lands which his predecessors had granted them, appropriated the greater part of this acquisition for the support of the army, and finished the grand work of cantoning the troops, which had been begun under the reign of Charles IX.

"The crown lands, destined for the support of the soldiers, are farmed out to individuals, who are bound to raise and maintain, at their own expense, a dragoon or a foot soldier. The land which furnishes a dragoon with his horse, is named *rustholl* ; and several portions of land, united to furnish a foot soldier, are called *rote* : several are necessary, because they are much smaller than those which are obliged to raise the cavalry. The soldier receives from the farmer a house surrounded by a piece of ground ; this is what is called a *bostelle* : he receives also a certain quantity of provisions, a sum of money, and a suit of clothes, made of coarse cloth, which is renewed every three years. He is not obliged to perform any labour ; and if the farmer wishes to employ him, he must pay him separate wages. Military men, above the rank of a common soldier, from a sergeant to a colonel, are maintained in a different manner : government gives them a house, or *bostelle*, with a piece of ground of a certain extent ; sets apart lands for their use, the farmers of which are obliged to supply them with provisions and forage, and they have also an appointment in money, but it is exceedingly small. To complete the maintenance of the army, the state furnishes the common soldier with an uniform, which he wears at reviews and on some other occasions : it provides him also with arms, and in time of war allows him pay extraordinary.

"The troops, thus divided, assemble in bodies, more or less frequently according to circumstances ; but they are exercised at fixed periods. They constitute the real military force of the kingdom, and are in number as follows :

Twenty-three regiments of infantry	—	—	—	24,000
Eight regiments of cavalry, comprehending the standard of the nobility				7,400
Five bodies of dragoons	—	—	—	3,400
				<hr/>
				34,800

The establishment formed by Charles XI. confirmed by his successors, and sanctioned by the states, is in some respects advantageous, and in others not. The national army of Sweden will with difficulty acquire that skill in military exercises, and be accustomed to that routine of tactics, and that rigid and exact discipline, which distinguish the regular troops of other countries. As often as it marches against the enemy, it will leave a vacuum in the kingdom, fatal to agriculture : but it saves considerable sums to the state. In the time of peace, it is of real utility, and it must be susceptible of that fire of patriotism which can never warm the breast of the mercenary who traffics in blood. The Swedish soldier is a citizen, who braves dangers to defend that country in which he has left a wife, children, and a habitation dear to his heart.

Besides this national army, Sweden has always a body of troops, raised and maintained on the footing of foreigners. Their number is as follows :

Nine regiments of infantry	—	—	—	—	—	9,000
Two regiments of cavalry	—	—	—	—	—	800
Artillery	—	—	—	—	—	2,900
						<hr/>
						12,700

The country is guarded by a sufficient number of strong fortresses. Gottenburg, Warberg, and Bohus, are the barriers towards Norway ; towards the sound in Scania, there are Malmoe, Christianstadt, and Landscrona : Louisa and Sweaburg, are the barriers against Russia. Waxholm and Fredericzburg defend the port of Stockholm. There are arsenals in all the fortresses. "That of Stockholm contains a great number of trophies taken from the enemies of the kingdom, at those periods when the Swedes fought nothing but battle, and never quitted the field except when crowned with the laurels of victory. Several pieces of the armour of the conqueror of Leipzig are also preserved here, and that of the hero of Narva. In the hat worn by Charles XII. at Fredericshall, the hole made by that fatal ball, which in a moment overturned all his vast projects, is still to be seen.

The Swedish fleet, created by Gustavus I. had increased to thirty-eight ships of the line, when Charles XII. made a descent on Denmark. "When fortune deserted the Swedish hero, it decreased, and was even almost entirely ruined. After that unhappy epoch, government sometimes turned their thoughts towards it, but never with any success. Gustavus III. however, has bestowed the utmost attention on this important object ; and the Swedish navy is indebted to him for the flourishing state in which it has been for some years past. Great abuses prevailed in the management of it, and proper discipline was not kept up ; but a reformation has been brought about in both these departments, by making better arrangements, and exercising the men oftener. As the greater part of the vessels were old and worm-eaten, they have been carefully inspected, and those unfit for service have been replaced by new ones constructed according to the best principles of naval architecture. Twenty-four ships of the line, twelve frigates, and a suitable number of prames, brigantines, and shallops, compose the Swedish navy. Vessels of the first rate carry seventy guns, the rest sixty, and the greater part of the frigates forty.

"The coasts of the Baltic are so filled with islands and rocks, that ships of the line cannot navigate them. About the middle of this century, a zealous citizen, general Ehrensvärd, proposed to government to form a fleet of flat-bottomed vessels, which might sail on these shores with safety, and serve for disembarking troops. This fleet, called also the army fleet, on account of its utility for transportation, is divided between Stockholm and Sweaburg, and consists of about sixty flat-bottomed vessels. Some of them are real galleys : the rest have the name of *tonnroma*, and are constructed upon principles known to very few.

"Sweden procures its sailors from the maritime provinces, and maintains them upon the same footing as the national land forces : their number lately has been increased to 15,000."

Mr. Chapman superintends the building of ships of war : he has published some works which have been translated into different languages.

A fund for decayed sailors is formed by annual deductions from pay, and the grant of certain duties. Invalids in the land army have also small pensions.

REVENUE, EXPENSE, DEBT, AND COIN.] The public revenues are of two kinds—one fixed and permanent, and the other granted for the time by the representatives of the nation. The first arises chiefly from the crown lands, taxes upon lands, mines, and forges, customs and excise, post duties, and stamps on paper, and a very general but small poll-tax. Some of these imposts are levied in money and

others in kind. When the wants of the public are increased by particular circumstances, the states assemble, and grant certain subsidies for a limited time. These are principally levied on the produce of agriculture, industry, commerce, profits of offices, and some other personal resources, in the following manner: "in cities, the magistrate appoints a certain number of principal citizens, who bind themselves by oath to tax the inhabitants, according to registers given them by the commissaries of the district. In the country, the governor of the province, in concert with the territorial judge, chooses three persons among the nobility, clergy, and peasants, who tax the different bailiwicks to which they belong; and if these officers cannot agree, the decision of their dispute is referred to their constituents."

The collectors and receivers of all taxes, both regular and extraordinary, are, by various modes, under such a controul, that frauds are hardly practicable, and if committed, severely punished. To screen the poor from oppression, abatement and indulgence for a certain time is also granted.

All the public revenues do not exceed four millions of rix-dollars. This would be inadequate to the yearly expenditure, if the army was not principally supported in the manner above-mentioned. The church is likewise maintained by the glebes and direct contributions in kind. The seminaries of learning and several civil departments are supported in a similar way.

Those who know the economy of Sweden, must admire its regularity: no country is more free from the leeches of pensions and sinecures.

Nevertheless, it has been in debt ever since the twenty years war under Charles the XIIth. The three wars since 1742, with several unfavourable seasons, have increased this debt to twenty-nine millions of rix-dollars; but peace and industry will soon clear a country that has such good resources.

Excess of paper money had caused great mischief during twenty years: the solid coin was hoarded or exported: selfish speculators gained by the continual fluctuation of prices and the foreign exchange: the state and individuals suffered much by the depreciation of their fixed revenues. When a sense of these evils prompted a quick appreciation, stagnation in the general circulation, and ruin of debtors ensued. But in 1777, a judicious realization of the paper took place; and silver, with national bank notes, form a sure medium.

"The money used in Sweden is:

"The gold ducat, worth one rix-dollar, 46 schilling,

"The silver rix-dollar, of 48 schil. an imaginary coin of six dalr. of silver, or 18 dalr. of copper, also imaginary money: the value of the two-thirds, one-third, one-twelfth, and one twenty-fourth of a rix-dollar is in proportion.

"The copper enkel flant, or simple stiver, or 3 runstykens, or œre.

"The double flant, or double stiver of 6 runst. or œre,

"The œre, or runstyken, 12 of which make a schilling."

One pound sterling is worth four rix-dollars 15 sh. with casual variation of exchange.

GOVERNMENT.] Sweden had in the remotest ages a monarch, a senate, and states, with all the convulsive variations of a barbarous state. During the union of Calmar, despotism and anarchy reigned by turns, Gustavus I. checked the ambition of the great, and expelled foreign tyrants. Gustavus Adolphus, his grandson, improved on the foundation: the act of assurance which he delivered to the representatives of the nation when he mounted the throne, is still preserved. That prince promised to maintain the Lutheran religion; to deliberate with the states on the alteration to be made in the laws, on the taxes to be imposed, on the political alliances to be formed, on the wars to be undertaken, and on the treaties of peace to be concluded. He engaged, besides, to preserve to the four orders, their privileges, and

to inflict no punishment, but after a legal process. The long series of bloody wars rendered military services necessary ; and they were rewarded with titles of nobility and crown lands. This, with the unjust liberalities of Christina, contributed to aggrandize the noble order. Charles XI. reclaimed those donations with too great rigour ; but with a wise economy appropriated them for the support of the army. On the death of Charles XII. that absolute sovereignty which had subsisted nearly forty years, was succeeded all of a sudden, and too rapidly, by a liberty almost without bounds.

“ The supreme power was now in the hands of the states, who altered the laws, declared war, made peace, concluded alliances, and disposed of the army according to their own pleasure. They likewise imposed taxes, fixed the value of money, assembled every three years, whether convoked or not, and never terminated the diet until they thought proper. The senate was responsible to them for its conduct ; and the king had no power of introducing into that body, but one of the three subjects proposed to him. Nothing, therefore, remained to the sovereign but the executive power, and the right of appointing to the different offices. Both these privileges were abridged at the diet of 1756 ; and the states proceeded so far, as to furnish the senate with a royal seal, to be employed whenever the king should refuse to sign.

“ The court, however, had partisans who undertook to avenge its cause. The count Brahe, the first nobleman in the kingdom, and descended from the family of Vasa, the count Hord, and baron Horn, were at the head of this enterprise. Arms were collected ; sailors had been engaged ; and the signal was about to be given, when the states received information of their design. Count Hord betook himself to flight ; but count Brahe, trusting to his birth, his rank, and the remonstrances of the court, remained, and was conducted to prison. All those who were suspected shared the same fate. Being brought to trial before a tribunal the members of which were both judges and accusers, hatred and animosity pronounced the sentence of death. Count Brahe, baron Horn, and three others, were publicly beheaded, in the capital, opposite to the church of Ridderholm, while the king's guards attended to preserve good order.

“ Thus did the party of the *hats*, which at that time prevailed, manifest its zeal for a liberty more fatal than useful to the nation. The influence of the king was too much weakened, and the equilibrium of the different powers had disappeared ; liberty was unacquainted with the restraint of clear and permanent laws ; and the interests of the people were not concentrated in one focus, the welfare of the public. The two factions, that of the *hats*, and that of the *caps*, the one supported by France, and the other by England and Russia, triumphed in turns, according to the abilities of their chiefs. The court wavered between these two factions, neither of which favoured it ; and the diets were like theatres in which opposite passions contended. During these debates, disorder prevailed in the administration, and the national virtues lost all their energy. One diet overturned what another had wisely established ; and the Swedes, naturally tractable, honest, and loyal, acquired a spirit of intrigue, venality, and revolt.”

Such was the state of the kingdom when Gustavus III. assumed the sceptre, and the next year, 1772, effected an astonishing revolution, which was accomplished in three days, and without a drop of blood. Opinions are widely different on this and similar events, but it is generally agreed, that a very great majority of the nation, wearied of a miserable anarchy, sighed for an energetic government ; that the greater part, attached to monarchy by principle or habit, had great confidence in the splendid abilities and virtues of Gustavus, and that his lenity to his most implacable foes was beyond example.

The constitution by him offered, and received by the states, who were assembled at the time, is a high-toned monarchy, but not at all absolute. The states retained the exclusive power of granting supplies. Their consent is necessary for enacting or abrogating laws, for altering the value of the coin, and for making offensive war. They are sole trustees, guarantees, and managers of the national bank. They examine, at every diet, by a committee, the state of the finances, in order, (as the 50th article is worded) to be convinced, that the public money has been expended for the good of the country.

Besides, the crown has few means of corruption, because the principal branches of public revenue are appropriated to permanent objects; and because all offices both civil and military (those of confidence excepted) are held during good behaviour.

The necessity of a strong executive power to defend the country against a league between powerful foes and formidable malecontents, prompted the diet of 1789 to make these alterations in the constitution. The king can make offensive war. The senate is abolished. The supreme tribunal of justice, where the king presides with only two votes, must consist of both commoners and nobles. Commoners have an equal right to all civil and military offices, and to the acquirement of those privileged landed estates, called *faterier*. These articles with others are set forth in the act of union and safety.

The states of Sweden are represented by the four orders of the nobility, clergy, burghers, and peasants, (or, more properly, yeomen.) The eldest son of each family sits in the diet, under the name of *caput familiae*. The clergy choose deputies in proportion to the number of parishes. The bishops and other prelates sit in the same house with these, and have only simple votes. The burghers of the respective cities and towns choose representatives in proportion to population and wealth: Stockholm, f. e. has ten. The freeholders in the country elect in a similar manner, according to the value of the respective districts.

The four orders have separate houses: the decisions of their majorities respectively form their votes: and the consent of three houses decides upon all affairs merely national; but cannot violate the constitutional rights of a dissentient order.

POLITICAL INTEREST.] The gigantic power of Russia is a formidable neighbour to Sweden. It may attempt acquisitions in Finland, not so much for extending an immense territory, as for gaining a wider shore on the Baltic. It may also take advantage of those dissensions so natural in free states. Yet while the Swedes preserve a patriotic union, and their old valour, they will be safe: the rocks and waters of the frontiers make a tolerable barrier; and in case of need, the regular army would be aided by an hundred thousand militia. Since Denmark has no further hope of recovering its lost provinces, its true interest is a good neighbourhood.

As a maritime power, Sweden will support its commercial independence. On this principle, it formed, in concert with Russia and Denmark, the armed neutrality in the late war between Great Britain and the united states of America. Its occasional treaties with distant powers, will principally have in view the balance of power in Europe, and especially in the north: this accounts for its connexion with the Ottoman empire, as the Asiatic neighbour of Russia.

HISTORY.] The ancient Goths, joined with other northern swarms, subdued the Roman empire in Europe: the kingdom of the East Goths in Italy, lasted 60, and that of the West Goths in Spain 300 years. A little before the christian era, Sigge, afterwards called Oden, from the north-east of Asia, conquered the then inhabited part of Sweden, and erected an empire, of which Upsala was for many centuries the political and hierarchic seat. The provincial governors were, however, gene-

rally tributary princes ; frequently at war with each other, and against the upper king, as he was stiled. The remoter and larger provinces were not incorporated before the 11th century. Birger Earl, regent of the kingdom, founded Stockholm in 1252. Magnus, a son of this excellent man, established salutary laws, restrained the pride of the grandees, and was greatly beloved by the people : he got the surname of *Ladulas*, or (barn lock) because his just and vigorous administration secured their property.

After many contests with Denmark, a union of the three northern crowns was effected by Margaret ; but her successors treated the Swedes with injustice, and often with cruelty ; being frequently aided by traitors among the nobility, and the prelates, whose wealth and power had become exorbitant in the progress of christianity. After many struggles against combined tyrants, with variable success, the unfortunate Swedes experienced all the horrors of slavery, from the monster Christian, who in cool rage massacred 200 of the principal men in Stockholm, Nov. 8, 1520.

Gustavus Vasa escaped from innumerable dangers into the mountains of Dalecarlia, and by his persuasive eloquence, roused the patriotic valour of the inhabitants. Supported by them and other brave Swedes, who flocked to his banners, he defeated the Danes, and expelled them from every part of the kingdom. " For this service the states appointed him regent in 1521, and king in 1523. The union of Calmar was dissolved forever, and Sweden recovered its independence. The new monarch preserved the senate and the four orders, whom he assembled on important occasions. He distinguished his reign by an ardent and enlightened zeal for the prosperity of the state. Agriculture and commerce began to flourish, a navy was formed, and public schools were opened in the different provinces ; while the introduction of Lutheranism repressed the power of the clergy, and increased the influence of the crown. Interest and ambition, unable to gratify their private views, on account of the firmness and vigilance of the king, excited new revolts ; but Gustavus quelled them, and caused the sceptre to be declared hereditary in his family in 1544. He died in 1560, and left behind him the reputation of a great man.

" Gustavus was succeeded by his youngest son, Eric XIV. who did not possess the same qualities as his father. This monarch became a prey to a brutal kind of melancholy, which occasioned his ruin. His brother John easily supplanted a prince who had embued his hands in the blood of his subjects, and who was considered as the scourge of the kingdom. Eric, therefore, was deposed, and being thrown into prison, was there poisoned by order of John. Such are the dreadful excesses to which princes may be hurried by politics and ambition. John had married Catherine Jagellon, whom he loved and consulted. This princess had great influence in the council ; and being a zealous supporter of the catholic religion, which she professed, she prevailed upon her husband to render Sweden once more dependent on the holy see. Lutheranism however had taken too deep root ; and the efforts which the king made to destroy it, tended only to establish it the more. John died in 1572, very little regretted, because he was unworthy of the esteem of his subjects. His son Sigismund, already king of Poland, ought to have succeeded him ; but he consulted the Polish monks too much, and followed their advice too scrupulously : the Swedes dreaded the civil and religious yoke, which Poland was about to impose on them, and began to manifest their fear. Charles, duke of Sudermania, the youngest of Gustavus's sons, taking advantage of the disposition in which the people then were, caused himself to be elected regent of the kingdom. Sigismund undertook to conquer Sweden ; but the duke defeated his army, and after-

wards mounted the throne. The reign of this prince was severe and often cruel. Charles was harsh, sanguinary and violent : he died during a paroxysm of passion."

Gustavus Adolphus succeeded him in 1611. He was equally great in peace and war, and " showed himself a model for heroes and kings. At this period, Sweden was engaged in a war with Denmark, Russia, and Poland. A peace was concluded with the two first of these powers, and a truce with the latter ; but immediately after, glory and religion conducted Gustavus Adolphus to Germany. His army, though not numerous, was brave, inured to war, well disciplined, and full of confidence in their chief. Tilly lost his laurels at the battle of Leipzig, which Gustavus gained in 1631 ; and Wallenstein was defeated at Lutzen the year following : but the king perished in the bloody contest by the hand of a traitor. The protestants in Germany shed tears for their protector, while the *Te Deum* was chanted at Rome."

Christina was very young at her father's death ; but Oxenstierna directed the Swedish affairs in Germany with so much wisdom, and the military talents of Weimer, Baner, Horn, Torstenson, and Wrangel, were so successful, that Sweden obtained considerable acquisitions by the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, and had a principal share in settling the political system of Europe. Christina had a romantic taste for classical erudition and the fine arts ; but she lavished the public treasury upon favourites, and quitted her throne, her country, and her religion in 1654.

Charles Gustavus, her cousin, became successor. His reign was short, and splendidly warlike. " Casimir, king of Poland, having disputed his right to the crown of Sweden, Charles marched an army against him, fought a battle near Warsaw, which continued three days, and saw the haughty Poles tremble before him. The king of Denmark in the mean time having declared war against Sweden, the conqueror was obliged to evacuate Poland, and to oppose a new enemy. He led his small army across the Lesser Belt on the ice, took possession of the greater part of Denmark, and in 1658 obtained the peace of Roschild, by which several provinces were ceded to Sweden. Alarmed at such signal success, all the northern powers took up arms against this kingdom, and the emperor, Russia, and the elector of Brandenburg, joined its enemies. Charles, however, laid siege to Copenhagen ; but being repulsed, death soon after put an end to his career. He died suddenly in 1660 at Gottenburg, where he wished to assemble the states."

His son Charles XI. was then only five years of age. The regency appointed by the states, concluded immediately a general peace at Oliva. This king had a short rupture with Brandenburg, and fought several battles with Denmark, in which, though but twenty years old, he displayed great military skill and prowess. He gained the affection of the inferior orders, triumphed over the nobility, and became absolute sovereign in 1680. Though naturally austere and exceeding the bounds of justice in recovering the crown lands from the nobility, he was wise, economical, fond of peace, and very active : he promoted industry and commerce, reformed the laws, placed the military system in excellent order, and made his kingdom very respectable in the balance of Europe.

He 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 his first minister. Soon after his accession, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muscovy, formed a powerful confederacy against him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He opposed them all ; and besieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Danish majesty, by which the duke of Holstein was re-established in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at

the head of 80,000 men, and had besieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men ; but such was his 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 those of Gustavus Adolphus. He dethroned Augustus, king of Poland ; and raised Stanislaus to the crown of Poland in 1705 : and he was courted by all the powers of Europe ; and, among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidst the full career of her successes against France. But 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 afterwards found it convenient for their affairs to set him at liberty. After his return to his dominions, he prosecuted his revenge against Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon shot, at the siege of Fredericshall, in Norway, in 1718, when he was no 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 by a pistol*, from one of those about him. Charles was temperate, sober, chaste, and faithful in his promises, but his obstinacy and want of prudence were fatal to Sweden.

When the states assembled, they decreed the crown to his sister Ulrica Eleonora, on condition of renouncing the sovereignty, but by her request transferred it to her husband Frederic, landgrave of Hesse Cassel, who renounced several more of the royal prerogatives. In 1721, a general peace was obtained by ceding Livonia, Ingria, Estonia, with parts of Finland and Carelia, to Russia ; Bremen and Verdun to Hanover ; part of Pomerania to Prussia ; and submitting to the general duties of the sound exacted by Denmark. Sweden had begun to repair these losses by the arts of peace, when party-spirit, roused by national antipathy and French intrigues, caused the unfortunate war with Russia in 1741, by which another part of Finland was lost.

On the death of Frederic in 1751, Adolphus Frederic mounted the throne, with Louisa Ulrica of Prussia. In 1756 Sweden was again, by the ruling faction, made a party of the league against Prussia ; and was obliged to make peace in 1762, after great expense, and loss of troops by sickness. Adolphus died suddenly in 1771. He was a pattern of domestic virtues, but unequal to the task of ruling between turbulent parties.

Gustavus III. his son, with indefatigable care, carried a reforming hand through all the departments of public administration : the civil and criminal code were essentially improved ; and judges were taught, by exemplary corrections, to respect the rights of their lowest fellow-citizens. The army was disciplined and better provided for : the navy rose from its long decay : paper was changed into solid coin : the nation recovered its independence and reputation. By frequent, and often unexpected visits through his extensive country, he could see, hear, and feel its wants. His leisure hours were not wasted in the lap of luxury, or in the ferocious chase, but employed in cultivating belles lettres and the fine arts ; of which he was a connoisseur, and a liberal patron. All this, with graceful manners, and an amiable affability, made him for several years exceedingly popular. But clouds began to

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

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

obscure this bright horizon of Sweden. Some discontent arose among the people from the monopoly of the domestic distilleries, which the king assumed. A desire of restraining the pernicious excess in spiritous liquors, and of increasing the public revenue, induced him to adopt a measure which infringed personal rights, and did not in practice prove beneficial. He listened, however, to the public murmurs, and restored the unlimited freedom of private stills, on condition of a very temporary and moderate tribute in grain; to which he obtained the people's free consent by commissioners in the several counties. The nobility, whose political weight (as being hereditary) was most lessened by the revolution, were irritated afresh in the diet of 1778, by the king's reviving the ancient division of their house into classes; according to which, every individual was to vote within his class, and the plurality of classes to constitute the vote of the house. During the diet of 1786, a decided opposition was formed. Of the four propositions offered by the king, that only of a fund for public granaries was accepted: the states were so economical that they would not even relieve their fellow-citizens who worked the copper mines with loans, as had formerly been the practice.

The war with Russia, which broke out soon after, ripened these seeds of discord. The campaign was no sooner opened in Finland, than a great part of the officers refused to serve, under pretence that Sweden had not been attacked, and entered into a negotiation with the court of Russia. "The king, finding that he could not depend upon his troops, quitted Finland, and having traversed several of the northern and western provinces of Sweden, harangued the Dalecarlians on the same spot where Gustavus I. addressed them, when he had recourse to their valour to deliver his country from a foreign yoke. These brave mountaineers offered to raise, at their own expense, a body of troops whom his majesty might dispose of as he thought proper. Every heart was touched by the eloquence of the Swedish monarch; and the people every where declared in his favour. Setting out for Gottenburg, he arrived there when the Danes were about to besiege it; but his presence revived the courage of the inhabitants, and the project of the enemy miscarried. In the mean while, the troops who remained at Stockholm, had orders to march towards Gottenburg; and the defence of the capital, the castle, and the royal family was entrusted to the care of the citizens." A truce, and a final peace in the next spring was effected with Denmark by the mediation of the Prussian and British ministers.

The diet met on the 26th of January, 1789. The three orders manifested a warm attachment to the king, but a great majority of the nobles behaved with insolent obstinacy. On the 17th of February, the four orders were convoked in the hall of the states, and the king delivered a discourse full of energy: he lamented that a tyrannic aristocracy, which he had crushed in 1772, should again threaten destruction to Sweden; drew a lively contrast between the fidelity of the inferior orders, who supported him with their lives and fortunes, and the treacherous ingratitude of those nobles, who, forgetful of their country's kindness, and his peculiar favours, basely endeavoured to humble the monarch by ruining the nation; he knew those who wished to see a Russian envoy dictating the terms of peace in Stockholm; but was determined rather to perish than sign one article offensive to Swedish honour; he vowed that those rash hands which attempted his father's crown, should never wrest from him that sceptre which he had inherited from Gustavus Adolphus, and which he would transmit, if not equally splendid, yet pure to his successor on the Swedish throne; finally, he warned them of that punishment from God and their country, which a wicked perseverance would provoke. The nobles persisting in their opposition, and the other orders having, by a formal deputation, petitioned the king to take effectual measures for the public safety, orders were given on the

20th, to arrest fourteen of the principal nobles; among them count Perſen, who, before the revolution, had long been the chief of the Hats : they were confined in the palace of Frederickſhof till the cloſe of the diet next March, but well accommodated.

After this the act of union and ſafety was ratified by the king and the three orders ; but the houſe of nobles reſuſed their aſſent, pretending that it was a violation of the conſtitution, and of their privileges.

The war having now received the national ſanction, was carried on with vigour. Moſt of the officers returned to their duty ; patriotic aids were collected over the whole country, and reſpectable bodies of volunteers prepared for emergencies. The ſucceſs did not, however, correſpond with the ſanguine hopes of the Swedes, from the following cauſes. The Ruſſians, numerous, hardy, warlike, and well diſciplined, fought under ſkilful commanders : the Swedish ſtores of proviſion and ammunition were at firſt deficient by the neglect of thoſe concerned : great opportunities were loſt by the defection of the officers, and by the precarious dependence on ſome afterwards. The principal advantage was, a recovery of military reputation, which had ſuffered in the former war of 1742. A very ſevere action happened in the month of July, 1788, between the two grand fleets (in the gulph of Finland,) the Swedish commanded by the duke of Sudermania, and the Ruſſian by admiral Greig. Both admirals were applauded by their ſovereigns ; great ſlaughter took place on both ſides ; each took one ſhip from the other ; and the Ruſſians had one ſunk : night put an end to the battle. Of the engagements in 1789, the moſt remarkable was one in which the king defeated a large detachment of the Ruſſian army. In 1790, the duke attacked the ſtrong harbour of Revel in which were 9 or 10 Ruſſian men of war, but loſt two of his ſhips. He then joined the king, who had with the galley fleet gone up into the bay of Wiborg. The whole Ruſſian fleet came to lock them in ; the Swedes with great bravery forced their way back, but loſt 6 or 7 ſhips of the line, two by catching fire from the ketches ſent to burn the Ruſſian fleet, and the others by ſtranding on the ſandbanks in that narrow paſs. This critical miſfortune could not be repaired without a ſtroke of deciſive boldneſs. He therefore with his ſhore fleet attacked that of Ruſſia under count Naſſau : a dreadful battle enſued, and continued, with a ſhort pauſe at midnight, for twenty-four hours. The Swedes took or deſtroyed about forty veſſels, of galleys, xebecs, brigantines, and ſmall frigates, carrying among them 600 cannon ; and made ſix or ſeven thouſand priſoners. The king expoſed himſelf during the whole action with the greateſt intrepidity, going a conſtant round of the moſt dangerous ſcenes. This memorable victory was obtained on the firſt of Auguſt in Svenskund, and procured an immediate peace.

In the beginning of 1792, a diet was held at Geſle, of which the principal object was to reſtore the national finances, much deranged by the war. The three orders were, as uſual, complaiſant ; but a majority of the nobles diſplayed the old ſpirit.

After the diet, the king returned to Stockholm, and ſoon fell a victim to an atrocious conſpiracy, the extent, and whole deſign of which, is not known ; but ſeveral particulars are authenticated by the acts of the judicial proceſs. Fifteen or twenty perſons were convicted ; moſt of them noblemen : the principal actors were baron Bielke, who poiſoned himſelf ; the counts Horn and Ribbing, the lieutenant colonel Liljehorn, and captain Ankarſtrom, alſo nobles. This laſt was the aſſaſſin : he ſhot the king with a piſtol charged with ſlugs and nails, at a maſquerade, on the night of the ſixteenth of March.

Guſtavus bore this catastrophe with his uſual fortitude ; and under agonizing pains preſerved that ſerenity and ſtrength of mind neceſſary for making his laſt

dispositions. He also took a solemn promise from his brother, to treat his murderers with all possible lenity, and not by any means to give up more than one to capital justice. He expressed exemplary sentiments of devotion; comforted his disconsolate friends, and after the last valediction to the queen and prince, died on the 29th of the same month.

The talents and virtues of Gustavus are universally acknowledged. His political conduct can be fairly judged only by those who know the affairs of Sweden. It is certain, that his death caused a general grief; that the common people regard him as a martyr in vindication of their rights; that many distinguished noblemen were his confidential friends; and that several of that order, whose opposition was manly and spirited, would have defended him with their blood*.

Gustavus III. was born the 24th of Jan. 1746, succeeded his father in 1771, was married to Sophia Magdalena, princess of Denmark, the 4th of November 1766. Their only heir, Gustavus Adolphus, now minor king of Sweden, was born in November 1778. He received an excellent education under the king's direction; of which he gave early proofs on his examination before the states, at the diet of 1786: it will be completed under his uncle.

Charles, duke of Sudermania, appointed by the late king his brother, regent of Sweden, was born in 1748. His administration has been perfectly worthy of the high trust reposed in him. His military virtues were seen in the last war: an anecdote relating to this may be mentioned. In the action with admiral Greig, his ship was for some time surrounded by three of the largest Russian ships; some of his people making a motion to strike, he said, No; I had rather be blown up, than taken prisoner; and snatching the match from one of the gunners, took his station by the powder-magazine.

NAME, ARMS, AND KING'S TITLES.] The Swedish name of the country is *Sverige*, or *Swæa Rike*. "The arms of Sweden are a shield, divided into four compartments, and having a small shield over it. The first and second compartments contain three rivers, which a lion with a golden crown is endeavouring to pass; the other two compartments contain two gold crowns, which belong properly to Sweden: the lion belong to the kingdom of Gothland."

The king's titles are, king of Sweden, of the Goths and the Vandals, heir of Norway, &c.

Orders of knighthood are: that of Seraphim, confined to princes, and those who, by extraordinary services, rise to the first offices of the state; of the polar star, appropriated to civil merit; of the sword, for military; and of Vasa, instituted by the late king for the promotion of agriculture, mining, and commerce—its emblem is a sheaf.

* The title is now the only distinction between the nobles and commoners: all civil rights are common: the order of nobles have only one voice of the four in legislation.

MUSCOVY, OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

Situation and extent of the Russian empire in Europe.

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

DIVISIONS } ACCORDING to the most authentic accounts of this mighty em-
AND NAME. } pire, it consists of 42 provinces or governments, which are
comprehended again under 19 general governments*. Carelia, Estonia, Ingria,
Livonia, and part of Finland, were conquered from Sweden ; the Crimea, or Crim
Tartary, anciently the Taurica Cherfonefus, a peninsula in the Euxine sea, was
subject to the Turks formerly, but added, in the year 1783, to the Russian empire,
with the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban ; also the duchy of Courland, and a
great part of Lithuania in Poland.

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

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

Russian empire in Europe.		Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Greek church	Rus. or Musc.	784,650	1160	1050	Moscow.
	Belgorod,	72,900	375	285	Waronetz
	Don Cossacs,	57,000	400	280	Panchina.
	Uk. Cossacs,	45,000	330	205	Kiow.
Conquered from Sweden since 1700.	Lapland,	72,000	405	270	Kola.
	Rus. Finland,	41,320	320	180	Wyburg.
	Livonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga.
	Ingria,	9,100	175	90	Petersburg { N. Lat. 60. E. Long. 30-25.
		1,103,495			
Seized from the Turks in 1783. By the partition treaty between the emperor, Prussia & Russia.	Crim. Tartary.	8,200	160	115	Kaffa.
	Lithuania in Po- land - -	64,000	300	250	Grodno.
Rus. emp. in Asia.					
Christians and idolaters.	Muscovy, Tarta- ry, and Siberia,	2,200,000	3150	1500	Tobolsky.
	Kalm. Tartary.	850,000	2100	750	Astrachan.
Total		4,151,495			

Russia has also been divided into thirty-one provinces, viz.

Northern Provinces.	{	1. Lapland,	East. Prov.	{	17. Bulgar,
		2. Samoida,			18. Kafan,
		3. Bellamorenkey,			19. Tschheremissi,
		4. Meseen,			20. Little Novogrod,
		5. Dwina,			21. Don Cossacs.
		6. Syriances,	West. Prov.	{	22. Great Novogrod,
		7. Permia,			23. Russian Finland,
		8. Rubeninsky,			24. Kexholm,
		9. Blaesfeda,			25. Kaleria,
Middle Provin.	{	10. Rezan, or Pereslaf,	South. Prov.	{	26. Ingria.
		11. Belozero,			27. Livonia,
		12. Wologda,			28. Smolensko,
		13. Jeraslaf,			29. Zernigof,
		14. Tweer,			30. Seefik,
		15. Moscow,			31. Ukraine, or country of the
		16. Belgorod,			Old Cossacs.

Mr. Tooke, chaplain to the British factory at Petersburg, has enumerated the following nations, as comprehended in this great empire :

The Mongouls,	The Tschouwasches,	The Kurilians,
The Kalmucs,	The Mordvines,	The Kistim and Tulibert
The Tartars,	The Votiaks,	Tartars,
The Samoides,	The Terptyaireis,	The Vergho Tomskoi Tar-
The Ostiachs,	The Tartars of Kafan and	tars,
The Burattians,	Orenburg,	The Sayan Tartars,
The Jakuttians,	The Tartars of Tobolsk,	The Touralinzes,
The Tungusians,	The Tartars of Tomsk,	The Bougharians,
The Voguls,	The Nogayan Tartars,	The Baschkirians,
The Laplanders,	The Tartars of the Ob,	The Mestscheraiks,
The Finns,	The Tschoulym Tartars	The Barabinzes,
The Lettonians,	The Katschintz Tartars,	The Kirkguisians,
The Estonians,	The Teleutes,	The Beltirians,
The Lieffs,	The Abinzes,	The Yakoutes,
The Ingrians,	The Biryouffes,	The Kamtschatkadales.
The Tschheremisses,	The Cossacs,	

and various others ; but some of which must be considered rather as distinct tribes, than as distinct nations.

As to the names of Russia and Muscovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Russi, or Borussi, and the river Mosca, upon which the ancient capital Moscow was built.

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 great diversity of soil, as well as climate, and that the extremes of both are to be seen and felt in this vast empire.

The severity of the climate in Russia, properly so called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who resided eleven years in Russia, observes, that the cold in St. Petersburg, by Fahrenheit's scale, is, during the months of December, January, and

February, usually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0 ; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point ; though commonly, in the course of the winter, it is for a week or ten days some degrees lower. " It is difficult," says Dr. King, " for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold so intense : when a person walks out in that severe weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing hangs in little icicles on the eye-lashes. As the peasants usually wear their beards, you may see them hanging at the chin like a solid lump of ice ; but, even in that state, the beard is found very useful in protecting the glands of the throat : and the soldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to supply their place. All the parts of the face which are exposed, are liable to be frozen : though it has often been observed, that the person himself does not know when the freezing begins ; but is commonly told of it by those who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with snow, the usual way to thaw it. It is also remarked, that the part, which has once been frozen, is ever after most liable to be frozen again. In some very severe winters, sparrows, though a hardy species of birds, have been seen quite numbed by the intense cold, and unable to fly : and drivers, when sitting on their loaded carriages, have sometimes been found frozen to death in that posture. When the thermometer has stood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water, thrown up into the air by an engine, so as to spread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found frozen into a solid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of strong ale has also been found frozen in an hour and an half : but in this substance there was about a tea-cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as strong and inflammable as brandy or spirits of wine. But notwithstanding the severity of the cold in Russia, the inhabitants have such various means to guard against it, that they suffer much less than might be expected. The houses of persons in 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 common 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. 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 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 this means, they save the nourishment of the animal for several months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Petersburg, 830 miles, is esteemed the finest they have ; nor can it be distinguished at the table from what is fresh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Petersburg are thus supplied

in winter with all manner of provisions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwise be possible ; and it is curious to see the vast stacks of whole hogs, sheep, fish, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for sale. The method of thawing frozen provisions in Russia, is by immersing them in cold water : for when the operation of thawing 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 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 incredible numbers of mushrooms for their subsistence ; and in some places, besides oaks and firs, Russia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, pasture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink ; they likewise extract a spirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

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

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

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 reckoned the largest, and one of the most fertile rivers of Europe, produces many kinds of fish, and fertilizes the lands on each side with trees, fruits, and vegetables. In this long course, there is not one cataract to interrupt the navigation ; but the nearer it approaches to the mouth, the river multiplies its number of isles, and divides itself into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world : all these arms divide themselves into

others still less, which join and meet again ; so that the Wolga discharges itself into the Caspian sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moscow preserves a communication, not only with all the southern parts of Russia, but even with Persia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caspian sea. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the eastern part of Russia from Asia, in its course towards the east, comes so near the Wolga, that the late czar intended to have cut a communication between them by means of a canal : all this grand project was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, exclusive of its windings, discharges itself into the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Asoph, about four hundred miles from its rise. The Boristhenes, or Dnieper, which is likewise one of the largest rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Cossacs, and that of the Nagaisch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinbourn, near Oczakow ; it has thirteen cataracts within a small distance. To these may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itself, at Riga, into the Baltic ; the other has its source near Ustiaga, and, dividing itself into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White sea.

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

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, } These do not differ greatly from those de-
AND INSECTS. } scribed in the Scandinavian provinces. The
lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire : it is said to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree forests. The hyænas, 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 small, as are their cows and sheep.

We know of few birds in Russia, that have not been already described. The same may be said of fishes, 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 caviar, so much esteemed for richness and flavour, that it is often sent in presents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas, they often find what is called the beluga-stone, concealed in that mass of glandular flesh which covers the posterior part of the dorsal spine, supplying the place of a kidney in fish. When it is taken from the fish, it is soft and moist, but quickly hardens in the air. Its size is that of a hen's egg, the shape sometimes oval, and sometimes flatted, and commonly sells for a ruble. This stone is supposed by professor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fish : it holds a considerable rank, though with little merit, among the domestic remedies of the Russians, who scrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diseases of children, and other disorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Nothing can be more remote from truth, than the accounts we have from authors of the population of this vast empire, the whole of which, they think, does not exceed, at most, seven millions. It is surprising that such a mistake should have continued so long, when we consider the armies brought into the field by the sovereigns of Russia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Asia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire produced a list, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation, or poll-tax, and which amount to six

millions six hundred and forty-six thousand three hundred and ninety. In this number are included boys and old men ; but girls and women are not reckoned, or boys born between the making of one register of the lands and another. Now, if we only reckon triple the number of heads subject to be taxed, including women and girls, we shall find near twenty millions of souls. The new register in 1764 contains 8,500,000 subject to the poll-tax ; and a late ingenious writer, resident some time in Russia, gives the following estimate :

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

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

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

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

Before the days of Peter the great, the Russians were barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenness : no less than 4000 brandy shops have been reckoned in Moscow. Not only the common people, but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual state of idleness and intoxication ; and the most complete objects of misery and barbarity appeared in the streets, while the court of Moscow was the most splendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dressed after the 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 ; and his account is corroborated by travellers who have lately visited Russia. The manufactures, however, of those, and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter saw the bulk of his subjects, at his accession to the throne, treated little better than beasts of

burden, to support the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aside their long robes, and dress in the European manner ; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The Russians, before his time, had few ships upon their coasts. They had no conveniencies for travelling, no pavements in their streets, no places of public diversion ; and they entertained a contempt for all improvements of the mind. At present, a French or English gentleman may live as comfortably and sociably in Russia, as in most other parts of Europe. Their polite assemblies, since the accession of the present empress, have been put under proper regulations : and few of the ancient usages remain. However, drunkenness still continues among some ranks ; and the bulk of the people are uncivilized.

The Russians were noted for so strong an attachment to their native soil, that they seldom visited foreign parts. This was the consequence of their pride and ignorance ; for Russian nobility, besides those who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe. Her imperial majesty even interests herself in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world, and foreign services, particularly that of the British fleet.

It is said, that the Russian ladies were formerly as submissive to their husbands in their families, as the latter are to their superiors in the field ; and that they thought themselves ill treated, if they were not often reminded of their duty by the discipline of a whip, manufactured by themselves, which they presented to their husbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar 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 critically examined by a number of females, who are to correct, if possible, any defects they find in her person. On her wedding-day, she is crowned with a garland of wormwood ; and after the priest has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or sexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wishing that she may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarse, and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off, even among the lowest 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 particular stipulations in the marriage-contract.

FUNERALS.] The Russians entertain many fantastic notions with regard to the state of departed souls. After the dead body is dressed, a priest is hired to pray for the soul, to purify the corpse with incense, and to sprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better sort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many 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, among the better sort, with a few intervals, for forty days. During that time, a priest every day says prayers over the grave of the deceased ; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer in his long journey to the place of his destination after this life.

PUNISHMENTS.] The Russians were remarkable for the severity and variety of their punishments, which were both inflicted and endured with a wonderful insensibility. Peter the great used to suspend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themselves to death. The single and double knout have been inflicted

upon ladies*, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating; but in the double knout, the hands are bound behind the prisoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pulley, lifts him from the ground, with the dislocation of both his shoulders, and then his back is in a manner scarified by the executioner, with a hard thong, cut from a wild ass's skin. This punishment has been so often fatal, that a surgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it should cease. It is not always the number of the strokes, but the method of applying them, which occasions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by striking upon the ribs; though persons are sometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred strokes, moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out the tongue, are likewise practised in Russia; and even the late empress Elizabeth, though 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 there is much less humanity in it than has been supposed; for there are many felons who die under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journeys to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines: so that there is reason to believe, that not fewer criminals suffer death in Russia than in those countries wherein capital punishments are authorised by the laws. The prohibition of torture does honour to the humanity of the present empress.

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

* A particular account of the manner in which this punishment was inflicted upon a Russian lady, is given in *Monf. l'Abbe Chappe D'Auteroche's journey into Siberia*. "Mad. L'Apouchin was one of the finest women belonging to the court of the empress Elizabeth, and was intimately connected with a foreign ambassador, then engaged in a conspiracy. This lady, therefore, being suspected to be concerned in the conspiracy, was condemned, by the empress Elizabeth, to undergo the punishment of the knout. She appeared at the place of execution in a genteel undress, which contributed still to heighten her beauty. The sweetness of her countenance, and her vivacity, were such as might indicate indiscretion, but not even the shadow of guilt; although I have been assured by every person of whom I have made enquiry, that she was really guilty. Young, lovely, admired, and sought for at the court, of which she was the life and spirit; instead of the number of admirers her beauty usually drew after her, she then saw herself surrounded only by executioners. She looked on them with astonishment, seeming to doubt whether such preparations were intended for her. One of the executioners then pulled off a kind of cloke which covered her bosom; her modesty taking the alarm, made her start back a few steps; she also turned pale, and burst into tears. Her clothes were soon after stripped off, and in a few moments she was quite naked to the waist, exposed to the

eager looks of a vast concourse of people profoundly silent. One of the executioners then seized her by both hands, and turning half round, threw her on his back, bending forwards, so as to raise her a few inches from the ground: the other executioner then laid hold of her delicate limbs with his rough hands hardened at the plough, and, without any remorse, adjusted her on the back of his companion, in the properest posture for receiving the punishment. Sometimes he laid his large hand brutally upon her head, in order to make her keep it down; sometimes, like a butcher going to slay a lamb, he seemed to soothe her, as soon as he had fixed her in the most favourable attitude. This executioner then took a kind of whip called knout, made of a long strap of leather prepared for this purpose; he then retreated a few steps, measuring the requisite distance with a steady eye; and leaping backwards, gave a stroke with the end of the whip, so as to carry away a slip of skin from the neck to the bottom of the back; then striking his feet against the ground, he took his aim for applying a second blow parallel to the former; so that in a few moments all the skin of her back was cut away in small slips, most of which remained hanging to the shirt. Her tongue was cut out immediately after, and she was directly banished into Siberia. In 1762, she was recalled from banishment by Peter III."

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expense very trifling. Nothing strikes, either a reader or a stranger, more than the facility with which the Russians perform the longest and most uncomfortable journies. Like their Scandinavian neighbours, they 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 interior parts of Russia, horses draw their sledges; and the sledge-way, in 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 sleep and travel night and day, wrapped up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, such as that between Petersburg and Moscow, in three days and three nights. Her imperial majesty, in her journies, is drawn in a house which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniencies for four people, by 24 post-horses; and the house itself is fixed on a sledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS } As the present subjects of the Russian empire, in its
SUBJECT TO RUSSIA. } 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 reformation 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 they now make excellent soldiers. Other Russian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both sides of the Wolga are inhabited by the Tcheremisses and Morduars, a peaceable, industrious people. The Baskirs 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 Kalmucs occupy the rest of the tract to Astrachan and the frontiers of the Uzbeks; and, in consideration of certain presents they receive from her imperial majesty, they serve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends and foes.

The Cossacs, who lately made a figure in the military history of Europe, were originally Polish peasants, and served in the Ukraine as a militia against the Tartars. Being oppressed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them removed to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there established a colony. They were soon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced 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 that river, reached from Ribna to Asoph. They there lived in a fruitful country, which they took care to cultivate; and they were so wedded to their original customs, that they were little better than nominal subjects of 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 Mæotis.

The internal government of the Cossacs approaches very near to the idea we form of that of the ancient Germans, as described by Tacitus. The captains and officers of the nations choose a chief, whom they call hauptman, and he resides at Circaska; but this choice is confirmed by the czar; and the hauptman holds his authority during life. He acts as a superior over the other towns of the nation, each of which is formed into a separate commonwealth, governed by its own hetman, who is chosen annually. They serve in war, in consideration of their enjoying their laws and liberties. They indeed have several times rebelled, for which they suffered severely

under Peter the great. But the Russian yoke was so much easier than that of the Poles, that, in 1654, the Cossacs of the Ukraine put themselves likewise under the protection of Russia. They complained, however, that their liberties had been invaded; and in the war between Charles XII. and Peter, their hetman, Mazeppa, joined the former; but he found himself unable to fulfil the magnificent promises he had made to Charles. He brought over some of the Zaparovian Cossacs who were settled about the falls of the river Nieper, but most of them were cut in pieces.

The mien and character of the Tartars of Kasan, and of their descendants, are very uniform, and may serve for the characteristic marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well-made, have small faces with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, and 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 labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The Tartars of Kasan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to sobriety, and to a strict observance of the manners of their ancestors. They are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and school-master; 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 boors; and their merchants, besides what these 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 manufactures. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter: coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. Many of them carry on a great deal of business. At Kasan they prepare what is called in England, Morocco leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. These villages were at first composed of troops of wandering shepherds; but being drawn gradually closer together by successive population, they found themselves under the necessity of cultivating the earth, and erecting fixed habitations. They never leave their fields fallow; for which reason they use more manure than the Russians. They are much attached to the cultivation of bees; many of them are perfect masters of this part of rural economy, and reap great profit from it. Most of the villages also contain tanners, shoemakers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters. The laborious females spin, and make cloth from the fleece of their flocks, and thread from hemp of their own cultivation.

The moveables of these Tartars are, for the most part, only such as are necessary to the real wants of life. Their catalogue of kitchen and table furniture is very short; and they have but few utensils of agriculture and mechanics. A chest or two, some carpets and pieces of felt, mats made of the bark of trees, with which they cover broad benches, that they use instead of beds, with a few chairs and tables, are commonly all the furniture to be seen in their houses; though

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

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villages 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 Bougharians : and their manufactories of Morocco leather, cottons, camelots, and silks, are in a very thriving state.

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

The *Ostiaks*, 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. As these people divide themselves into different flocks, 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 with other Finnish nations. These people have a singular custom, that the daughter-in-law never uncovers her face in the presence of her father-in-law ; nor is the son-in-law allowed to appear before the mother-in-law till his wife has had a child. They are idolaters ; and one of their opinions is, that bears enjoy after

death a happiness at least equal to that which they expect for themselves. Whenever they kill one of these animals, they sing songs over him, in which they ask his pardon for the injury they have done him. They also hang up his skin, to which they show many civilities, and pay many compliments, to induce him not to take vengeance on them in the world of spirits. Indeed, it appears that bears are in great estimation among all the Pagan nations of the north, and north-east.

The *Vogouls* are rather below the middle stature, have generally black hair, and a scanty beard. They are of a gay disposition, honest, laborious, and acute ; but slovenly and fickle, and inclined to be extremely passionate. Their women are well made, robust, civil, and laborious. They are unacquainted with the use of letters, as well as some of their kindred nations : they do not reckon their time by years, though they mark the months, and name them after the various revolutions of nature, which they observe in their forests. They distinguish themselves into tribes or races ; and a Vogoul village is commonly composed only of one family, whose chief or elder performs the functions of staroste, or magistrate of the village : their principal occupation is 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, gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tschouwasches* dwell along the two sides of the Wolga, in the governments of Nischnei-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. A late writer says, " Among the Tschouwasches the husband is master of the house ; he orders every thing himself ; and it is the duty of the wife to obey without reply : a custom calculated to prevent domestic broils. Accordingly, quarrels are very uncommon in the families of the Tschouwasches."

The *Kirguisians* have a frank and prepossessing air, similar to that which characterizes the Tartars of Kasan. They have a sharp, but not a fierce look, and smaller eyes than those Tartars. They have good natural sense, are affable, and high-spirited ; but fond of their ease, and voluptuous. They dwell in portable huts, wandering about their deserts in search of pasturage for their flocks and herds, which constitute their principal occupation. As their courses are regulated by necessity, in summer they traverse the northern deserts, and in winter the southern parts. It is when they have nothing else to do, that they follow hunting and fishing, and agriculture is absolutely unknown to them. Their troops of cattle consist of horses, camels, cows, goats, and sheep, which supply them with food and raiment. Camels are of great service to them throughout their whole economy, carrying their huts and furniture at every change of station, which they do, to the weight of nine hundred pounds. The Kirguisians dress in the eastern manner ; but their clothes are for the most part better than those worn by the other Tartars. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons ; they having 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 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 Tungusians form one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle stature, and well made. Their sight and hearing are of a degree of

acuteness and delicacy that is almost incredible ; but their organs of smelling and feeling are inferior to ours. They are acquainted with almost every tree and stone within the circuit of their perambulations ; and they can even describe a course of some hundred miles by the configurations of the trees and stones they meet with, and can enable others to take the same route by such a description. 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.

The Kalmucs are a courageous tribe, and numerous ; for the most part raw-boned and stout. Their visage is so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuc may easily be known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose and a short chin, their complexion a reddish and yellowish brown. Their women are of a similar shape with the men, and their skin a wholesome white and red ; they are lively, agreeable, and industrious. The character of this tribe is, rough, but less dissolute than is commonly supposed. They are much attached to their chiefs or masters ; but their active spirit, and their improvidence or carelessness, make them thievish and dirty. In their robberies, they use more stratagem than violence ; and as they believe in the nocturnal wandering of dead men's spirits, are seldom guilty of murder. They are superstitious about good and bad days, and have written laws, which are founded on reason, custom, and the will of the prince. Their code is very favourable to females, and never looks upon a woman as the author of any crime. Rape and adultery are punished with a mulct of nine head of cattle. Their speech is a mongrel dialect, with many Tartarian words ; but their religious books are in the Tangut or Tibetan. The sole profession among them is the breeding of cattle ; they pursue the chase as an amusement : their dwelling is in tents, or yourts of felt, which they call *gar*, and the Russians *kibitka*, and much resemble the Kirguisians. Their clothing is oriental. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food consists of animals, tame and wild : even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper or age ; so that in every hord 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 winter to the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

The Kamtschatkadales 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 fables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. Their nets are made of the stamina of nettles. When they are not engaged in hunting and fishing, they sometimes employ themselves in building huts, forming different wooden utensils, cutting wood for fuel and building, and making bows and arrows : but much of their time is passed in absolute idleness ; for they are naturally extremely indolent. Poverty gives them no concern ; and nothing but the calls of hunger can drive them to the chase. They live in villages, consisting of a few small houses, and situated in general near some river. When a village becomes too populous, they separate, and form a new village. 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 Kamtschatkadalian equipage, dogs, harness, and all, costs in that country, 4l. 10s. sterl. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtschatkadales believed the immortality of the soul, before they embraced the christian religion.

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

RELIGION.] The established religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are too numerous and complicated to be discussed here. They deny the pope's supremacy, and disclaim image worship. Their churches are full of pictures of saints, whom they consider as mediators. They observe a number of fasts and lents, so that they live half the year very abstemiously; an institution which is extremely convenient for their soil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the sacraments and Trinity. They oblige their bishops and other ecclesiastics, but not their secular priests, to celibacy. Peter the Great declared himself the head of the church; and preserved the subordination 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 ceremonies; nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reserved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal catastrophe. Before his time an incredible number of both sexes were shut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to abolish those societies. This is now in a great measure removed; for no male can become a monk, till he is turned of thirty; and no female a nun, till she is fifty; and even then not without permission of their superiors. The present empress has annexed the church-lands to the crown, and in return grants pensions to the higher clergy and the monks.

The conquered provinces retain the exercise of their religion; but such is the extent of the Russian empire, that many of its subjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than pagans, in Siberia, and the 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 Sarepta; the beginning of the settlement was in 1765, with distinguished privileges from the imperial court.

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

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Russians hitherto have made but an inconsiderable appearance 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 astro-

nomny, the mathematics, and natural philosophy. The speeches pronounced by the bishop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice-chancellor, and the marshal, at the late opening of the commission for a new code of laws, are elegant and classical ; and the progress which learning has made in that empire, since the beginning of this century, with the specimens of literature published at Petersburg and Moscow, are an evidence, that the Russians are not unqualified to shine in the arts and sciences. Many of the Greek and Latin classics have been translated by natives into the Russian language. However, the efforts to civilize them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A small glimmering, like the first day-break, was seen under czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became more conspicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz : but under Peter, it burst forth with the splendor of a rising sun, and hath continued ever since, to ascend towards its meridian.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moscow ; one for classical learning and philosophy, the second for mathematics, and the third for navigation and astronomy. To these he added a dispensary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of some able German chemists and apothecaries, who furnish medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. And within these few years, mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empress Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an university in this city. The present empress has also founded an university at Petersburg, 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 is actually employed in founding a number of schools, for the education of the lower classes of her subjects, throughout the best inhabited parts of the empire ; an institution of the most benevolent tendency, which, if rightly executed, will entitle Catherine, as much as any of her predecessors, to the gratitude of the Russian nation.

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, } Petersburg naturally takes the lead in this divi-
AND OTHER BUILDINGS. } sion. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60 ; but the reader may have a better idea of its situation, by being informed, that it stands on both sides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city consisted of a few small fishing huts, on a spot so swampy, that the ground was formed into nine islands ; by which its principal quarters are still divided. Without entering into a minute description of this wonderful city, it is sufficient to say, that it extends about six miles every way ; and contains every structure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, and commerce, that 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 empress's expense ; 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 Petersburg is the emporium of Russia, the number of foreign ships trading to it in the summer-time is surprising. In winter, 3000 one-horse sledges are employed for passengers in the streets. It is supposed that there are above 130,000 in-

habitants 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. Petersburg is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conquests from the Swedes. In the neighbourhood of this city are many 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 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 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 near 26 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed, that Moscow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three places or squares. The merchants' exchange contains about 6000 fine shops, which display a vast parade of commerce, especially to and from China. No city exhibits a greater contrast than Moscow, of magnificence and meanness in building. The houses of the inhabitants in general are miserable timber booths ; but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices, are spacious and lofty. The Kremlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the most superb structures in the world : it stands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palaces, pleasure-houses, and stables, a victualling-house, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four parish churches, the arsenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches in the Kremlin have beautiful spires, most of them gilt, or covered with silver : the architecture is in the Gothic taste ; but the insides of the churches are richly ornamented ; and the pictures of the saints are decorated with gold, silver, and precious stones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a silver branch with forty-eight lights, said to weigh 2800 pounds. The sumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer and chancery, are noble structures. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in Kremlin church, and its other furniture, can only be equalled by what is seen at Loretto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire says, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moscow, at the time he was building Petersburg ; for he caused it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

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

Nothing can be said with certainty as to the population of Moscow. When lord Carlisle was ambassador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was 12 miles in compass, and the number of houses was computed at 40,000. When Voltaire wrote, Moscow was twenty miles in circumference, and its inhabitants said to amount to 500,000. Mr. Coxe confirms this account of the circumference of this city, but thinks the statement 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 souls, and in the adjacent villages 50,000.

CURIOSITIES.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Russia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civilized nations. She can, however, produce many stupendous monuments of the public spirit of her sovereigns : particularly the canals made by Peter the great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old sepulchres of an unknown nation, whose instruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural history at Petersburg is a rhinoceros dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his skin, and the hair upon it perfect. The Russians have a great passion for bell-ringing ; and we are told, that the great bell of Moscow, the largest in the world, 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 lately lay in a manner useless. Mr. Bruce in his late memoirs, mentions a bell at Moscow, founded in czar Boris’s time, 19 feet high, 23 in diameter, and two in thickness, that weighed 336,000 pounds. The building of Petersburg, and raising it from a few fishing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curiosity hardly to be paralleled since the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The same may be said of the fortress of Cronstadt, in the neighbourhood of Petersburg, which is almost impregnable. This fortress and city employed, for some years, 300,000 men, in laying its foundations, and driving piles, night and day ; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The plan, with a very little assistance from some German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raised to his people, at the time when they could hardly be said to have possessed a ship in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in person at all those amazing works, with the same assiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE, AND MA- } In treating of the Russian commerce, former accounts
RITIME FORCE. } are of little service, because of its great improvements
and variations. By the best and surest information, the annual exports of Russia at present amount to about 2,400,000*l.* and her imports do not exceed 1,600,000*l.* so that the balance of trade is yearly 800,000*l.* sterling in her favour*.

Russia’s productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz.

* See Coxe’s travels, vol. li. p. 247.

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

Russia carries on a commerce over land, by caravans to China, chiefly in furs; and they bring back from thence, tea, silk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bocharia, near the river Oxus, in Tartary, Russia sends her own merchandise, in return for Indian silks, curled lamb-skins, and ready money; and also to the annual fair at Samarcand: she likewise trades to Persia by Astrachan, cross the Caspian sea, for raw and wrought silk. The empress, in 1784, issued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by sea and land with the several countries bordering on the Euxine, which have lately been annexed to the empire. The same privileges, religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherfon, Sebastopolis, Theodosia (formerly Caffa), in the province of Taurica, as in Petersburg.

Before the time of Peter the great, Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Russia had with the rest of Europe; but it was subject to a long and tempestuous voyage. They have now 13 ports, Archangel, Petersburg, Riga, Revel, Pernau, Narva, Wibourg, Frederichsham, Astrachan, and Kola; and the three opened in their new conquests. Archangel is about three English miles in length, and one in breadth; built all of wood, excepting the exchange, which is of stone. Notwithstanding the decrease of its trade by the building of Petersburg, it still exports a considerable quantity of merchandise. Their masts and timber for the dock-yards come chiefly from the forests of Kasan, that border on the province of Astrachan.

The present state of their navy, according to a late list, is 36 men of war of the line, 25 frigates, 109 galleys, 10 proams, from 50 to 24 guns, two bombs, seven pinks, &c. 15,000 sailors are kept in constant pay and service, either on board the ships, or in the dock yards. The harbour is at Cronstadt, seven leagues from Petersburg, 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.

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

The system of civil laws at present established in Russia is very imperfect, and in many instances barbarous and unjust; being an assemblage of laws and regulations drawn from most of the states of Europe, ill digested, and in many respects not

adapted to the genius of the Russian nation. The courts of justice were in general very corrupt, and those by whom it was administered extremely ignorant; but the empresses have lately made some judicious regulations, and fixed a certain salary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients; and thus the poor were without hope or remedy. It is hoped that the new code of laws, for which she has given instructions, will soon be produced, to increase the people's liberty, security, and felicity.

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

REVENUE AND EXPENSES.] The revenues of this mighty empire are, at present, far superior to what they were, even under Peter the great. The vast exertions for promoting industry, made by his successors, especially her present imperial majesty, have greatly added to their income, which can scarcely be reckoned at less than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly six millions sterling, annually. Thus computed:

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

The deficiency of the sum total may be easily made up by the profit arising from stamp-paper, patents, post-office, and other articles omitted in the general calculation, besides *one* per cent. every Russian merchant is obliged to pay on his yearly capital.

When the reader considers this sum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, he will find it a very considerable revenue. That it is so, appears from the vast armies maintained and paid by the late and present empress, in Germany, Poland, and elsewhere, when no part of the money returned to Russia; nor do we find that they received any considerable subsidy from the houses of Bourbon and Austria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. The other expenses, besides the payment of the army and navy of her present majesty, the number and discipline of which are at least equal to those of her greatest predecessors, are very considerable. By the peace establishment in 1778, the regular troops amounted to about 130,000 effective men. The irregular troops are numerous, but consist of horse; and of this desultory body the corps of Cossacs are esteemed the most excellent. Her court is elegant and magnificent, her guards and attendants splendid, and the encouragement she gives to learning, the improvement of the arts, and useful discoveries, costs her vast sums, exclusive of her ordinary expenses of state.

Some of the Russian revenues arise from monopolies, which are often necessary

in the infancy of commerce. The most hazardous enterprise undertaken by Peter the great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry the VIIIth of England, in seizing the revenues of the church. He found, perhaps, that policy and necessity required the greatest part of them should be restored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his excessive power. The clergy are taxed in Russia: but the pecuniary revenues of the crown arise from taxes upon estates, bagnios, bees, mills, fisheries, and other particulars.

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

HISTORY.] It is evident, both from ancient history and modern discoveries, that some of the most neglected parts of the Russian empire at present, were formerly rich and populous. The reader, who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Asia, may see the advantages of their situation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richest provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In latter times, the Asiatic part of Russia bordered with Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital, under Jenghis Kan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and

* Alexander, son of the great-duke Yaroslav, was of distinguished abilities: he defeated the Tartars, Swedes, &c. and wounded the king of

Sweden with his own hand, on the bank of the Neva: from whence his appellation of Newski: he died in 1262.

powerful empire, than any mentioned in history ; and nothing is more certain, than that the conquest of Russia was among the last attempts made by the former of those princes. The chronicles of this empire reach no higher than the 9th century ; but they have a tradition current, that Kiovia and Novogorod were founded by Kii in the year 430. This Kii is by some considered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a simple boatman, who used to transport goods and passengers across the Neiper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand-duke of Kiow. We cannot, with the smallest degree of probability, carry our conjectures, with regard to the history of Russia, higher than the introduction of christianity, which happened about the tenth century ; when a princess of this country, called Olha, is said to have been baptized at Constantinople, and refused the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimisces, in marriage. This accounts for the Russians adopting the Greek religion, and part of their alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, sent priests to baptize the Russians, who were for some time subject to the see of Constantinople ; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards resigned all their authority over the Russian church ; and its bishops erected themselves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that, till the year 1450, the princes of Russia were but very little considered, being chiefly subject and tributary to the Tartars. It was about this time, that John, or Ivan Basilides, conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod, from whom he is said to have carried 300 cart loads of gold and silver. His prosperous reign, of above 40 years, gave a new aspect to Russia.

His grandson, the famous John Basilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, subdued the kingdoms of Kafan and Astrachan Tartary, in Asia, and annexed them to the Russian dominions. He gave to his subjects the first code of laws, introduced printing, and promoted commerce. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of some of his finest provinces, particularly Livonia and 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 Welike Knez, " great prince," great lord, or great chief ; which the christian nations afterwards rendered by that of great-duke. The title of tzar, or, as we call it, czar, (an expression which in the Sclavonian language, signifies *king*), was added to that of the Russian sovereigns. Upon the death of John Basilowitz, the Russian succession was filled up by a set of weak, cruel princes, and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, whose sister Irene was married to the czar Feodor, according to Voltaire, 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 impostor was discovered as soon as he came to the sovereignty, because the people were not pleased with him ; and he was murdered. If we except the unjustifiable means by which Boris raised himself to the throne, and his ambition and revenge, he must be esteemed an excellent sovereign, and his loss was sensibly felt : driven to despair, he swallowed poison in the ninth year of his reign, 1605. Mr. Coxe thinks that the person who styled himself Demetrius, was not an impostor, but the real son of Ivan II. preserved from the assassination intended for him, by his mother's substituting another child in his place, and sending him privately to a convent. The public neglect of the Russian customs and religious ceremonies after his succession, alienated the people's affections, and precipitated him from the throne as rapidly as he had ascended it. After a year's reign, he was murdered in an insurrection in his own palace, and the leader of it, Vassili Shuiski, was elected in his room.

Russia now 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, in the year 1613. The independency of Russia was then on the point of being extinguished. Uladislaus, son to 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 of the ancient sovereigns of Russia, had been sent ambassador to Poland, and there was detained prisoner by Sigismund III. 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 the castle of Marienburg, that they elected their son, Michael Fæderowitz, of the house of Romanoff, a youth of 16 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, and invested with the administration of affairs, he governed with great prudence and success. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladislaus upon the throne, and likewise the claims 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 breathing-time ; and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects. Soon after the election of Michael, James I. of England, sent, at his invitation, sir John Meyrick, as his ambassador to Russia, upon some commercial affairs, and to reclaim a certain sum of money which James had advanced to Michael or his predecessors. The English court, however, was so ignorant of the affairs of that country, though a Russian company had been established at London, that James was actually unacquainted with the czar's name and title, for he gave him no other denomination than that of great-duke and lord of Russia. Three years after, James and Michael became much better acquainted ; and the latter concluded a commercial treaty with England, which shows him to have been not only well acquainted with the interests of his own subjects, but the laws and usages of nations. He reigned thirty-three years ; and, by his wisdom, and the mildness of his character, restored ease and tranquillity to his subjects. He encouraged them to industry, and gave them the example of a very commendable behaviour in his own person. Before we take leave of Michael, it may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miscellaneous customs of their subjects, and which are as follow. His czarish majesty's intention to marry being known, the most celebrated beauties of his dominions were sent for to court, and there entertained. They were visited by the czar, and the most magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by sending her magnificent jewels, and a wedding robe. The rest of the candidates were then dismissed to their several homes, with suitable presents. The name of the lady's father, who pleased Michael, was Streschnen ; and he was ploughing his own farm when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius succeeded his father Michael, and was married in the same manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolensko, Kiow, and the Ukraine ; but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand signior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded some possessions from him in the Ukraine, his answer was, "that he scorned to submit to a Mahometan dog, and that his scymitar was as good as the grand signior's sabre." He promoted agriculture ; introduced into his empire, arts and sciences, of which he was himself a lover ; published a code of laws, some of which are still used in the administration of justice ; and greatly strengthened his army, by improving its discipline. This he

effected chiefly by the help of strangers, most of whom were Scotch. He cultivated a polite correspondence with the other powers of Europe ; and even with the court of Rome, though he ordered his ambassadors not to kiss the pope's toe. He subdued a chief of the Don Cossacs, named Stenko Rafin, who had endeavoured to make himself king of Astrachan ; 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 Wolga and the Kama. Theodore succeeded his father Alexius in 1667. He was of a gentle disposition, and weak constitution ; fond of pomp and magnificence ; and, in gratifying this propensity, contributed to polish his subjects, by the introduction of foreign manufactures, and articles of elegance, which they soon began to adopt and imitate. He delighted much in horses, and he rendered a real service to his country in the beginning and establishing very fine breeds of them in the Ukraine, and elsewhere. He reigned seven years, and having on his death-bed called his boyars round him, in the presence of his brother and sister, Ivan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards so celebrated, and who was his half-brother, according to Voltaire, he said to them : " Hear my last sentiments ; they are dictated by my love for the state, and by my affection for my people. The bodily infirmities of Ivan necessarily must affect his mental faculties ; he is incapable of ruling a dominion like that of Russia ; he cannot take it amiss, if I recommend to you to set him aside, and to let your approbation fall on Peter, who to a robust constitution joins great strength of mind, and marks of a superior understanding." From the most authentic records, it appears, that Peter did not owe his elevation to any declaration of Theodore in his favour, but merely to the suffrages of those persons who asserted the right of nominating the successor. Peter was chosen, and the government entrusted to Natalia, his mother. But the party in opposition was very powerful. The Strelitz, or Russian regiments of guards, possessed above 14000 armed votes, and not being satisfied with their colonels, or the exclusion of the elder brother from the throne, they surrounded the palace, and insisted on the execution of the Naraskins, the czarina's chief relations. Their excesses surpassed all description. The city of Moscow underwent a general pillage and massacre for three days. At last, by a compromise between the two parties, Ivan and Peter were declared joint-sovereigns, May 18, 1682 ; but as one was judged incapable of governing, and Peter was only ten years old, the administration was vested in their sister, who was of popular manners and great abilities. However Voltaire and other authors may have blackened Sophia's character, it is now evident, from Muller and other good authorities*, that she was a princess of great merit, and by no means deserving of the reproaches cast upon her : her administration was wise and vigilant, and much to the advantage of her country. She reposed great confidence in prince Basil Galitzin, a consummate politician. Peter, as he advanced in years, being encouraged by his mother and her adherents, claimed a share in the administration, and took his seat in the privy council, Jan. 25, 1688. From this period, dissensions arose between them, and the aspiring genius of Peter acquired the ascendancy. Under the pretence of a conspiracy against his life, he arrested his sister, and imprisoned her for life in the nunnery of Devitz : she died in 1704. 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, allows thee three pence per

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

day for thy subsistence." He died in prison at Poostork in 1713. 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 security by the execution of above 3000 Strelitz, and at the same time broke the whole body, and abolished their name.

It far exceeds the bounds prescribed to this work to give even a summary detail of this great prince's actions. All that is necessary in this place is to give a general view of his power, and the vast reformation he introduced into his dominions. Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated, associated himself with 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 Strelitz. Peter, after this, began his travels ; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He set out as an attendant upon his own ambassadors ; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous and too well known to be inserted here. By working as a common ship-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation ; and through the excellent discipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia ; and at last he exterminated, except two feeble regiments, the whole of the Strelitzes. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land ; and the many defeats which he received, especially that from Charles XII. at Narva, seemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he lost, rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, 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, in 1711, married Catharine, a young Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swedish dragoon at Marienburg. General Bauer, taking that place in 1701, was smitten with her, and took her to his house. She was soon removed into the family of the prince Menzikoff, with whom she lived till 1704, when in the 17th year of her age, she became the mistress of Peter, and afterwards his wife ; because, after a long cohabitation, he found her possessed of a soul formed to execute his plans, and to assist his councils. Catharine was so much a stranger to her own country, that her husband afterwards discovered her brother, who served as a common soldier in his armies. Military and naval triumphs, which succeeded one another after the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, with Charles XII. were not the chief glories of Peter's reign. He applied himself with equal assiduity to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and sciences ; and upon the whole, he made such acquisitions of dominion, even in Europe itself, that he may be said, at the time of his death, which happened in January 1725, to have been the most powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his subjects.

Peter the great was unfortunate in his eldest son, who was called the czarowitz, and who, marrying without his consent, entered, as his father alleged, into some dangerous practices against his person and government ; for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a sovereign so despotic as Peter was, we can say nothing as to the justice of the charge. He publicly treated him with inhuman ferocity ; and it was undoubtedly his will, that the young prince should be found guilty. It is said, that as soon as the sentence of death was pronounced upon the prince,

wherein were the following words, "The divine, ecclesiastical, civil, and military laws condemn 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 the greatest 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. But the most probable opinion is; that he was secretly executed in prison, and that 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 this was the principal cause of her subsequent elevation. For just before his death he discovered a secret connexion between her and her first chamberlain Mons. He surprised them together in an arbour of the garden, when striking her with his cane, as well as the page, who would have prevented him from entering the arbour, he retired without uttering a single word. But presently Mons was taken up, and being threatened with the torture, confessed, and was beheaded. The day after the execution, Peter conveyed Catharine in an open carriage under the gallows, to which the head of Mons was nailed. It is said, that the empress, without changing colour at this dreadful sight, exclaimed, "What a pity! that there is so much corruption among courtiers!" This event was soon followed by Peter's death, who probably had destined his eldest daughter Anne to be his successor; but the suddenness of his death prevented it; and some of the nobles and officers being gained by money, jewels, and promises, and the two regiments of guards by a largess, Catharine mounted the Russian throne. She was in her person under the middle size, and her abilities have been greatly exaggerated: she could neither read nor write: her daughter Elizabeth usually signed her name for her, and particularly to her last will and testament. During her short reign, of two years, which may rather be considered as the reign of Menzikoff, her life was very irregular. An intemperate use of tokay wine, joined to a cancer and dropsy, hastened her end on the 17th of May 1727. She was succeeded by Peter II. a minor, son to the czarowitz. Many domestic revolutions happened in Russia during the short reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the disgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and esteemed the richest subject in Europe, the original author of the good fortune of Catharine. Peter died of the small-pox, 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Peter and his wife, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to set aside the order of succession which they had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinguished; and the duke of Holstein, son to his eldest daughter, was, by the destination of the 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 Mecklenburgh, was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted of the crown under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet, by the assistance of the guards, she broke them all, asserted the prerogative of her ancestors, and punished the aspiring Dolgorucki family, who had imposed limitations upon her, with a view, as it is said, that they themselves might govern. She raised her favourite Biron to the duchy of Courland, and was obliged to give way to many sanguinary measures, and severe executions on his account. Upon her death, in 1740, John, the son of her niece, the princess of Mecklenburgh, by Anthony Ulric of Brunswic Wolfenbuttel, was, by her will, entitled to the succession: but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his nonage. This destination was disagreeable to the princess of Mecklenburgh and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburgh

to arrest Biron, who was tried and condemned to die, but was sent in exile to Siberia, where he continued till Peter III. recalled him, and Catharine restored him to the duchy of Courland.

The administration of the princess Anne of Mecklenburgh and her husband was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German connexions, 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 proclaimed empress of the Russias, and the princess of Mecklenburgh, her husband, and son, were made prisoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be said to have been more glorious than that 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 the counts Munich and Osterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late administration, with exile. Count Munich was confined at Pelin in Siberia, in a prison, which by his order was erected for Biron; he had a daily allowance of 12s. for himself, wife, and a few servants. After 21 years imprisonment, he was released, and restored to his ancient rank by Peter III. in 1762, and died in 1765, eighty-three years old. The chief disgrace of her reign, was the punishment of the countesses Bestucheff and Lapuchin; each received 50 strokes of the knout in the open square of Petersburg, their tongues were cut out, and they were banished into Siberia. The real crime of the last was her commenting too freely on the empress's amours. Having gloriously finished the war with Sweden, she replaced the natural order of succession in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holstein Gottorp, who was descended from her eldest sister, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Russia; and soon after her accession to the throne, she called him to her court, where he renounced the succession to the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst, by whom he had a son, who is now heir to the Russian empire. Few princes have had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the 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 Prussia in 1756. Her arms gave a turn to the success of the war, notwithstanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conquests were such as portended the entire destruction of the Prussian power, which was, perhaps, saved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1762.

Elizabeth was succeeded by Peter III. grand duke of Russia, and duke of Holstein, a prince whose conduct has been variously represented. He mounted the throne possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of his Prussian majesty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whose principles and practices he seemed to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. Several salutary regulations were made during its short continuance; and he abolished many prerogatives that were oppressive and tyrannical. But he soon incurred the general odium by his public contempt of the Russian manners and religion. He might have surmounted the effects of many peculiarities, unpopular as they were, but he aimed at ecclesiastical reformations in his dominions, which Peter the great durst not attempt; and he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is also alleged, that he had formed a resolution to destroy both his empress and her son; and the advocates of Peter the third acknowledge, that he had resolved to shut up his wife in a convent, or rather in the fortress of Schlusselfburg, and then to place his mistress, the countess of Vironzoff, up-

on the throne, if not to change the order of succession. However, the execution of his designs was prevented by a conspiracy being 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 latter he was deprived, while under an ignominious confinement at Robscha, in July, 1762. That his conduct, with regard to Prussia, was not the sole cause of his deposition, seems evident from the measures of his successor, who reigns by the title of Catharine II. That princess, with regard to Prussia, trod in her husband's steps.

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

While this event excited the attention of the Russian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland, which has generally been the case when the throne was vacant. And as this afforded a very favourable opportunity for Russian interference, the empress Catharine sent a body of troops into Poland, and by her influence count Poniatowski was raised to the throne. She also interposed in order to secure the rights which the treaty of 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 produced confederacies against all that had been done during the late election ; which rendered Poland a scene of blood and confusion. The conduct of Russia, with regard to Poland, gave so much offence to the Ottoman court, that the grand signior sent 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 Poland. Hostilities soon commenced between these rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March, 1769, Crim Gueray, khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, supported by 10,000 Spahis, having broken the Russian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off some thousand families 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 Neister, thought this a proper time to attempt something decisive, before the arrival of the great Turkish force in that quarter. He advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in sight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caraman Pacha, and intrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince attacked the Turks in

their entrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and notwithstanding an obstinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortrefs, at length beat them out of their trenches, followed them into the suburbs of Choczim, and the pursuit was only stopped by the pallisadoes of the fortrefs. Soon after, the town was set on fire by red-hot balls, and a great number of Jews and christians took refuge in the Russian camp. From these successes of the Russians, it might have been expected that Choczim would have immediately fallen; but prince Galitzin thought proper to retire, and to repass the Neister, not having sufficient artillery along with him. Indeed, it appears that the Turkish cavalry had over-run the neighbouring country, burnt some small towns, and destroyed some Russian magazines.

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

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

During these transactions, general Romanzow committed great devastations on the Turks on the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt several towns and villages, defeated a Turkish detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars also committed great ravages in Poland, where they almost destroyed the palatinate of Bracklaw, besides doing much mischief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Russian army was again posted on the banks of the Neister, and defended the passage of that river against the Turks, whose whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the opposite shore. Having laid three bridges over the Neister, the Turkish army, without any pretence of stratagem or deception, 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 totally defeat-

ed, and obliged to repass the river with great loss. It was computed that about 60,000 Turks crossed the river, before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Galitzin charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, who destroyed the flower of the Turkish cavalry. It is said, that the loss of the Turks, in this battle, amounted to 7000 men killed upon the spot, besides wounded and prisoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this capital misfortune, yet this did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the same nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to pass the whole army over. On the 17th of September, eight thousand janizaries and four thousand regular cavalry, the flower of the 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 Neister totally destroyed the bridge. The Russians lost no time in making use of this great and unexpected advantage. A most desperate engagement ensued; not only the field of battle, but the river, over which some few hundreds of Turks made their escape by swimming, was for several miles covered with dead bodies. The Russians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horse-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, abandoned the strong fortrefs of Choczim, with all its stores and numerous artillery, and retired towards the Danube. They were much exasperated at the ill conduct of the vizir; and it is computed that the Turks lost 28,000 of the bravest of their troops within little more than a fortnight; and that 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deserted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Galitzin placed a garrison of four regiments in the fortrefs of Choczim, soon after resigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Petersburg covered with laurels.

The Russians carried on the war with success; they over-ran the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmpt took possession of the capital, Jassy, without opposition. And 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 as their sovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkish army, near the river Larga, said to have amounted to 80,000 men, and commanded by the khan of the Crimea. But on the second of August, the same Russian general obtained a still greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is said that above 7000 Turks were killed on the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies; 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 Orlop, the Russians spread ruin and desolation through the open islands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceless coasts of Greece and Asia; the particulars of which will appear in the history of Turkey. It is observable, that in this attempt of the Russians to act as a maritime power, they were greatly assisted by England; but whether in this the English government was influenced by principles of sound policy, may very reasonably be questioned.

The war between the Russians and the Turks still continued to be carried on by land, as well as by sea, to the advantage of the former ; but at length some attempts were made to negotiate a peace between these great contending powers ; hostilities were repeatedly suspended, and afterwards renewed ; but a peace was concluded on the 21st of July 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Russians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all parts of the Ottoman empire.

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

The ambitious empress of Russia, in the midst of a profound peace with Turkey, and immediately after the conclusion of a treaty of commerce with that nation, in 1783 seized on Crim Tartary, the khan of which had resigned his authority. The Turkish government, enfeebled and degenerate, was afraid of contending against this unjust usurpation, and acquiesced in the Russian claims. After this seizure, a convention was held in the same year, between the two powers, in which the Crimea, Cuban Tartary, and the island of Taman, were ceded to Russia.

In the year 1787, about the middle of August, the Turks, still indignant at the usurpation of the Crimea by Russia, and influenced, it is said, by the intrigues of the British ambassador, very imprudently declared war against the Russians. The folly of this measure was increased by their being wholly unprepared for a state of hostility : and the success of the war was such as might be reasonably expected from these impolitic proceedings. The Turks were repeatedly defeated with great loss by the Russians, who took by storm the very important fortresses of Choczim and Oczakow.

In this war, the empress was joined by the capricious prince Joseph II. and the avowed object of these two imperial allies, was to drive the Turks wholly out of Europe, and make a partition of their country. The Austrians were not, however, so successful in their attacks on the Turks as the Russians, for notwithstanding the relaxed state of the Turkish discipline, the emperor's forces were worsted in several engagements and finally compelled to make a disgraceful retreat, not, however, without taking Belgrade and Bender, two important frontier posts, the first the capital of Servia.

The progress of the Russians in this war was marked with horrors and devastation. But the most frightful scene of the whole was at the capture of Ismail, an important fortress, belonging to the Turks. The garrison defended themselves for a long time with the greatest bravery. But at length, on the 22d of December, 1790, the place was taken by storm—the garrison, consisting of 30,000 men, inhumanly butchered in cold blood—and the place delivered to the rage and rapacity

* Here ends the Russian history in the London edition of 1792. The continuation of it is by the editor of the present one.

of a brutal soldiery, who perpetrated the most horrible cruelties on the wretched inhabitants.

The 12th of April 1791, prince Galitzin had a severe engagement with the Turks in the neighbourhood of Brailow, in which he defeated them, and cut off 4,000 of their foldiers, with 100 officers. The Turks, to the number of 15,000, were again defeated by the Russians, under general Kutusow. But the most signal and decisive victory during the war, was obtained the 9th of July, by prince Repnin, near Maczin, over an army of 70,000 men, the flower of the Turkish forces. The Russians had only four or 500 men killed and wounded, and the Turks left upwards of 4000 dead on the field of battle, and lost their entire camp equipage, and thirty pieces of cannon.

The British court, which was still inflamed with resentment against the empress of Russia, as the leader in the famous armed neutrality, looked on her successes in this war with a very jealous eye. They would not allow English seamen to enter into the Russian service, nor the Russians to hire any transports in England—And finally, in conjunction with the court of Berlin, they interfered between the belligerent powers, holding a decisive tone to the empress, and offering their mediation to effect a peace. The British minister, Pitt, threatened to join the Turks, if the empress did not restore the important fortrefs of Oczakow to them, and actually made great preparations for war. But the empress continued firm; and mr. Pitt declined involving the nation in war. Peace was finally concluded August 11th, by which the possession of Oczakow, with the district extending from the Bog to the Neister, were confirmed to Russia.

We have already had occasion to reprobate the ambitious and aspiring views of Catharine. But a circumstance, which has lately occurred, will, more than any other event of her reign, consign her memory to the execration of posterity, in spite of the many salutary plans she has devised and carried into execution in her own dominions. The unhappy Polanders, harrassed by their internal disorders, and tired of being the tools of the neighbouring powers, whose ministers had always a venal part of the diet in pay, and subservient to their views, effected, in May 1791, a total revolution in their form of government, and adopted a new constitution, calculated to remove the inveterate evils they laboured under. Excellent as was this constitution, there were some of the nobles disaffected towards it, on account of its lessening many of their privileges in favour of the people. Catharine, afraid that the Poles would escape from the ignominious yoke she had imposed on them, overran the country with her armies, under pretence of assisting these malcontents to restore the old constitution. In effect, though the Polanders at first made some show of resistance, yet the numerous armies that invaded their country, and the others that were preparing to follow them, obliged them to acquiesce in the imperious commands of this haughty and domineering despot. The new constitution was abolished—the triumph of the Polish traitors, who had solicited Russian aid to subjugate their country, was complete—and the Russian ambassador at Warsaw has now effectually more real authority in Poland, than the patriotic Stanislaus.

But even this is not enough to satisfy the boundless rapacity of this scourge of nations. For we learn by the last advices from Europe, that with her worthy associates, the king of Prussia, and the emperor of Germany, she meditates a final dismemberment of Poland, the whole of which is to be parcelled out among this band of crowned robbers.—

To draw the character of Catharine, is a matter of some difficulty. When we consider her within her own dominions, we meet with ample matter of praise and admiration. She has been an uniform patroness of literature and the fine arts. Men of abilities and genius, of various nations, have experienced her liberality. The barbarous code of laws existing in her empire at her accession, claimed her early

attention—and she appointed commissioners to improve them. What has been the result of their deliberations, we have not yet learned. She has been industrious in the promotion of trade and commerce—and in holding out every encouragement to active industry. In a word, considered relatively to Russia alone, she has proved herself a great princess, equal, if not superior, to any of her contemporaries. But when we regard her in relation to other nations, “how lost, how fallen!” If we except the wise and exalted policy of the very formidable armed neutrality*, by which, in conjunction with the other northern powers, she rescued the neutral nations from the tyranny of those at war, we shall hardly see a single measure not fraught with injustice. One of the earliest projects of her reign was the infamous dismemberment of Poland. Her intrigues and corrupting gold for a long time involved the kingdom of Sweden in feuds and distraction. Her boundless ambition aimed at nothing less than a coronation in Constantinople. And her late proceedings, with respect to Poland, which we have just mentioned, sink her into the depths of inexpiable infamy. “She is seized with the frenzy of conquest; while her ancient dominions, considerably more extensive than the empire of ancient Rome, afford scope for the activity of the wisest politician. She is ever employed in warlike preparations, or in war; though her territories, without this preternatural exhaustion, are little better than an uninhabited desert. She surveys with scientific accuracy, the extremities of her empire, while its centre and its heart are totally neglected.”

“Catharine II. empress of all the Russias, princess of Anhalt Zerbst, was born in 1729, and ascended the throne in 1762, upon the deposition and death of her husband. She was married to that prince whilst duke of Holstein Gottorp, in 1745, by whom she has issue Paul Petrowitz, great duke of Russia, born in 1754, who has been twice married, and by his present duchess, the princess of Wirtemberg, has had two sons, Alexander and Constantine, and a daughter, Alexandrina-Pawleona.”

* “One of the most remarkable transactions of her reign, is her establishment of an armed neutrality, for the protection of the commerce of nations not at war, from any attacks or insults from belligerent powers; and all effects belonging to the subjects of such powers are looked upon as free, on board such neutral ships, except the goods stipulated contraband in her treaty of commerce with Great-Britain.

“It was in 1780, that her imperial majesty invited the powers that were not at war to accede to this armed neutrality. Those who engaged were to make a common cause at sea against any of the powers who should violate, with respect to neutral nations, those principles of maritime law. The armed neutrality was acceded to, the same year, by the kings of Sweden and Denmark, and by the states-general.”

SCOTLAND, AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

ACCORDING to the general plan I have laid down, I shall treat of the islands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the description of that kingdom ; and, to avoid prolixity, shall comprehend, under one head, those of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Western isles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The isles of Shetland lie north-east of the Orkades, or Orkney-islands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude ; and form part of the shire of Orkney.

The Orkades lie north of Dungsby head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude ; divided from the continent by a tempestuous strait, called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long and 12 broad.

The Hebrides, or Western isles, are numerous, and some of them large ; situated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] In all these islands, the air is keen, piercing, and salubrious ; and many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney isles, they see to read at midnight in June and July ; and during four of the summer months, they have frequent communications, both for business and curiosity, with each other, and with the continent : the rest of the year, they are almost inaccessible, through fogs, darkness, and storms. It is a certain fact, 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.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largest of the Shetland islands, which are forty-six in number, (though many of them are uninhabited) is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length and 20 in breadth. Its principal town is Larwick, which contains 300 families ; the whole number of families in the island not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a castle are still to be seen, and it is the seat of a presbytery. On this island the Dutch begin to fish for herrings at midsummer, and their fishing-season lasts six months.

The largest of the Orkney islands, which are about thirty in number (though several of them are unpeopled) is called Pomona. Its length is thirty-three miles, and its breadth, in some places, nine. It contains nine parish churches, and four excellent harbours.

The isle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and in some places, almost as broad. It contains two parishes, and a castle, called Duart, which is the chief place in the island. The other principal western islands are, Lewis or Herries (for they both form but one island), which belongs to the shire of Ross, and is about 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth ; its chief town is Stornvay. Sky, belonging to the shire of Inverness, is 40 miles long, and, in some places, 30 broad ; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the castle of Rothsay, which gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland ; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothsay is likewise a royal burgh ; and the islands of Bute and Arran form the shire of Bute. The isles of Ila and Jura are part of Argyleshire, and contain together about 370 square miles ; but they have no towns worthy notice. North Uist contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, fa-

mous for herring-fishing. We shall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides, which are at present of small importance, either to the public or the proprietors, though, probably, they may hereafter be of great consequence to both, by the very improveable fisheries upon their coast. We cannot, however, avoid mentioning the famous island of Iona, once the seat and sanctuary of western learning, and the burying place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland, and Norway. It is still famous for its relics of revered antiquity. Some authors have been at great pains to describe the island of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reason, that we can discover, but because it is the remotest of all the north-west islands, and very difficult of access; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are protestant, and know very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION. } The islands of Shetland and Orkney were formerly subject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England, under William the conqueror. In the year 1263, they were in possession of Magnus of Norway, who sold them to Alexander king of Scotland, and he gave them as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speier. After this they became subject to the crown of Denmark: Christian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretensions were entirely ceded, on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland, with Anne of Denmark. The isles of Shetland and Orkney form a stewartry, or shire, which sends a member to parliament. At present the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; except that their manners are more simple and their minds less cultivated. Men of fortune have improved their estates wonderfully of late years; and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries: they build their dwellings and other houses in a modern taste; and are remarkable for the fineness of their linen. As to the common people, they live upon butter, cheese, fish, sea, and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geese; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art of fermenting, so as to give it a vinous quality. In some of the northern islands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norse language, is still spoken; their intercourse with the Dutch, during the fishing season, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney islands. The people are as expert as the Norwegians in seizing the nests of sea fowls, which build in the most frightful precipices and rocks. Their temperance preserves them from the diseases incident to luxury. They cure the scurvy and the jaundice, to which they are subject, with the powder of snail-shells and scurvy-grass, of which they have plenty. Their religion is protestant, according to the discipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil institutions are the same with those of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned as to the population of these three divisions of islands. We have the most undoubted evidences of history, that about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now; for the Hebrides themselves were often known to send 10,000 fighting men into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At present their numbers are said not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed, and live, like the Scotch Highlanders. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; with this difference, that the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands; perhaps the descendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebrides.

Those islands alone retain the ancient usages of the Celts, as described by the oldest and best authors; with a strong tincture of the feudal constitution. Their thanachies or story-tellers supply the place of the ancient bards, so famous in history; and are the historians, or rather the 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, but, as it is said, more sumptuously than the English minstrels of former times*. Notwithstanding the contempt into which that music is fallen, it is almost incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among these islanders, even at the beginning of the present century. They had regular colleges and professors; and the students took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, some of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now abolished. The inhabitants, however, still preserve the most profound respect and affection for their several chieftains, notwithstanding all the pains that have been taken by the British legislature to break those connexions. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders; though they certainly fare better, for they have oatmeal, plenty of fish and fowl, cheese, butter-milk, and whey, and also mutton, beef, goat, kid, and venison. They indulge themselves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn; and the agility of both sexes, in the exercise of the field, and in dancing to their favourite music, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon us, if we should omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which distinguishes the inhabitants of the Hebrides, under the name of the *second sight*. It would be equally absurd to attempt to disprove the reality of some instances of this kind that have been brought by reputable authors, and to admit all that has been said upon the subject. The adepts of the second sight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations, either really or typically, which swim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compass of twenty-four or forty-eight hours. But, from the best information, no two of those adepts agree as to the manner and forms of these revelations, nor have they any fixed method of 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 phantasms, which they mistake for fatidical or prophetic manifestations. They instantly begin to prophesy; and as is the case with respect to dreams, it would be absurd to suppose, that amidst many thousands of predictions, some did not happen to be fulfilled; and these, being well attested, give a sanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides, being the most westerly islands planted by the Celts, their language must remain there in its greatest purity. This opinion, though plausible, is not justified by experience. Many Celtic words, as well as customs, are there found; but the intercourse which the Hebrides had with the Danes, Norwegians, and other northern nations, whose language is mixed with the Slavonian and Teutonic, which last has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; so that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which was spoken by their neighbours in Lochaber, and on the coasts of Scotland, the undoubted descendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion professed in the Hebrides is chiefly presbyterian, as established in the church of Scotland; but the Roman catholic religion still prevails among some of the islanders. Many superstitious practices and customs are to be met with.

SOIL, MINES, AND QUARRIES.] The surface of these islands has undergone great alterations. Many of them were habitations of the druids, whose temples are still visible; and those temples were surrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The stumps of former trees are discernable, as are many vestiges of buildings erected since the introduction of christianity, which prove the decrease of the riches, power, and population of the inhabitants. Expe-

* See Percy's Reliques of Ancient English Poetry.

rience daily shows, that if the soil of the northern and western islands was till of late barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to the want of culture; for such spots as are now cultivated, produce corn and vegetables more than sufficient for the inhabitants; and fruit trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and silver mines—marl, slate, free-stone, and even quarries of marble—have been found upon these islands. They are not destitute of fine fresh water; nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the same time, it must be owned, that the present face of the soil is still bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

TRADE AND MANUFACTORIES.] These are all in their infancy in those islands. Their staple commodities consist of fish, especially herrings, which, when properly cured, are equal to those of the Dutch. They carry on, likewise, a considerable trade in down and feathers; their sheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarse cloths; and the linen manufactures begin to make some progress among them. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are disposed of in sale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they salt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and industry, with some portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render these islands, not only comfortable for their inhabitants, but ornamental and beneficial to their mother-country.

BEASTS, BIRDS, AND FISHES.] In the neighbouring countries, already described, mention has been made of most of the birds and fishes that have been discovered here; only it is thought that they contain a species of falcon or hawk, of a more noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elsewhere. The Shetland isles are famous for a small breed of horses, which are incredibly active, strong, and hardy, are frequently seen in the streets of London, yoked to the splendid carriages of the curious or wealthy. The coasts of those islands, till within these twenty years, seemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for strangers. The latter furnish the former with wines, strong liquors, spice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above one hundred per cent. But this pernicious traffic appears now to draw to an end. Three thousand buffes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fishery, besides those fitted out at Hamburgh, Bremen, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. } These islands exhibit many proofs, in their churches, the vestiges of old forts, and other buildings, both sacred and civil, that they were anciently more populous than they are now. The use and construction of some of those works are not easily accounted for. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the western islands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a stone called a dwarf-stone, thirty-six 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, big 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. It would be endless to recount the various vestiges of druidical temples, some of which must have required equal labour with the famous Stonehenge, near Salisbury. Others seem to be memorials of particular persons, or actions, consisting of one large stone, standing upright: some have been sculptured, and others have served as sepulchres, and are composed of stones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in these islands; and the monuments of Danish and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to describe them. The gigantic bones found in many burial-places here give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of larger size than the present. It is likewise probable, from some ancient remains, particularly catacombs,

and nine silver fibulæ or clasps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with these parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by fourteen pillars on each side, and its steeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stones, embossed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are still more distinguished than the Orkney or Shetland isles, for their remains of antiquity; and it would exceed the bounds allotted to this head, to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purposes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated isle of Iona, called St. Columb-kill. Not to enter into the history or origin of the religious edifices upon this island, it is sufficient to say, that it seems to have served as a sanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy persons, while Ireland, England and Scotland, were desolated by barbarism. It appears that the northern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the sanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of some Scotch, Irish, and Norwegian kings, with some Gaelic inscriptions. The tomb of St. Columba, who lies buried here, is uninscribed. The steeple is large, the cupola twenty-one feet square, the doors and windows curiously carved, and the altar of the finest marble. Innumerable inscriptions, referring to ancient customs and ceremonies, are discernable in this island; 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.

The islands belonging to Scotland contain likewise some natural curiosities peculiar to themselves: the phaeoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as is supposed, from the West Indies, by the westerly winds, which often force ashore many curious shells and marine productions, highly esteemed by naturalists. In the parish of Harn, a large piece of stag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by some persons, who were digging for marl; and certain bituminous effluvia produce surprising phenomena, which the natives believe to be supernatural. But some of the most astonishing appearances in nature have remained undescribed, and, till lately, unobserved, even by the natives. A discovery reserved for the inquisitive genius of sir Joseph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno 1772, says, "We were no sooner arrived, than we were struck with a scene of magnificence, which exceeded our expectations, the whole of that end of the island (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above fifty feet high, standing in colonnades upon a firm basis of rock; above these the stratum which reaches to the soil or surface of the island, varied in thickness as the island itself formed into hills or vallies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, composed an ample pediment; sometimes sixty feet in thickness from the base to the point, and formed, by the sloping of the hill on each side, almost into the shape of those used in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by man? mere models or play-things. Imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to those of nature. Where is now the boast of the architect? regularity, the only part in which he fancied himself to exceed his mistress, Nature, is here found in perfection; though undescribed. Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the highest ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which surpasses description: here they are bare to their very bases, and the stratum below them is also visible."—Sir Joseph Banks particularises fundry

other appearances in this, and a neighbouring island, which is wholly composed of pillars without any stratum. In some parts of Staffa, instead of being placed upright, the pillars were observed to lie on their sides, each forming a segment of a circle; but the most striking object in this picturesque scene is Fingal's cave, which he describes in the following manner:—"With our minds full of such reflexions, we proceeded along the shore, treading upon another *Giant's causeway*, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers*. 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 by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound."

Mr. Pennant, who also made a voyage to these islands in the same year, had a glance of Staffa, in his passage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by stormy weather from approaching it. "On the west," says he, "appears the beautiful groupe of the Treashunish isles. Nearest lies Staffa, a new *Giant's causeway*, rising amidst the way, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; glossy and resplendent, from the beams of the eastern sun." And in the isle of Sky, a considerable way northward, he resumes the subject: "We had in view a fine series of genuine basaltic columns, resembling the *Giant's causeway*, the pillars were above twenty feet high, consisting of four, five, and six angles, but mostly of five. At a small distance from these, on the slope of a hill, is a tract of some roads entirely formed of the tops of several series of columns, even and close set, forming a reticulated surface of amazing beauty and curiosity. This is the most northern basaltes I am acquainted with; the last of four in the British dominions, all running from south to north, nearly in a meridian; the *Giant's causeway* appears first: Staffa, &c. succeeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther, and finally, those columns of Sky: the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vast links of this chain."

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY.] See Scotland.

* The dimensions of the cave are thus given by sir J. Banks.

	Feet		Feet
Length of the cave from the arch without	371	At the end	70
From the pitch of the arch	250	Height of an outside pillar	39
Breadth of ditto at the mouth	53	Of one the N. W. corner	54
At the farther end	20	Depth of water at the mouth	18
Height of the arch at the mouth	117	At the bottom	9

S C O T L A N D.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles. Degrees.
 Length 300 } between { 54 and 59 North latitude.
 Breadth 190 } { 1 and 6 West longitude.

NAME.] **T**HE Celtæ or Gauls are supposed to have been the original inhabitants of this country. The Scots, a Scythian tribe, invaded it about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland. The word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scyth or Scythian. It is termed by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Escotia; by the French, Ecoffe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and English.

BOUNDARIES.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 square miles, is bounded on the south by England; and on the north, east, and west, by the Deucalionian, German, and Irish seas, or more properly the Atlantic ocean.

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

Eighteen counties, or shires, are allotted to the southern 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.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh (429*)	{ Mid-Lothian }	{ Edinburgh, W. long. 3. N. lat. 56. Musselburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington (121)	{ East-Lothian }	{ Dunbar, Haddington, and North-Berwick.
3. Merse, anciently Berwick (114)	{ The Merches, and Lauderdale }	{ Dunfermline, and Lauder.
4. Roxborough (195)	{ Tiviotdale, Liddesdale, Eskdale and Eufdale }	{ Jedburgh, Kelso, and Melrose.
5. Selkirk (19)	{ Ettrick Forest }	{ Selkirk }
6. Peebles (42)	{ Tweeddale }	{ Peebles.
7. Lanark (388)	{ Clydesdale }	{ Glasgow, W. long. 4.5 N. lat. 55-52. Hamilton, Lanark, & Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries (188)	{ Nithsdale, Annandale }	{ Dumfries, Annan.

* The numbers show the proportion of militia as proposed to be raised in each shire, when that scheme was laid before parliament in 1775.

|| Berwick, on the north side of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a

county in that kingdom; but it is now formed into a town and county of itself, in a political sense distinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
9. Wigtown (190)	{ Galloway, West Part }	{ Wigtown, Stranraer, and Whitehorn.
10. Kircudbright (100)	{ Galloway, East Part }	{ Kircudbright.
11. Air (280)	{ Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham }	{ Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybold, Stewarton, and Saltcots.
12. Dumbarton (66)	{ Lenox }	{ Dumbarton.
13. Bute (34) and	{ Bute, Arran, and Caithness }	{ Rothfay.
14. Caithness, (105)	{ }	{ Wick, N. lat. 58-40. and Thurso.
15. Renfrew (126)	{ Renfrew }	{ Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, and Port-Glasgow
16. Stirling (76)	{ Stirling }	{ Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow (80)	{ West Lothian }	{ Linlithgow, Burroughstonness, & Queensferry.
18. Argyle (314)	{ Argyle, Cowal, Knapdale, Kintire, and Lorn, with part of the Western Isles, particularly Isla, Jura, Mull, Wist, Ter-rif, Col, and Lismore }	{ Inverary, Dunstaffnage, Killonmer, and Campbeltown,
19. Perth, (570)	{ Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormount, Glenfield, & Raynork }	{ Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20. Kincardine (109)	{ Merns }	{ Bervie, Stonhive and Kincardine.
21. Aberdeen (551)	{ Mar, Buchan, Garioch, and Strathbogie }	{ Old Aberdeen, W. long. 1-40. N. lat. 57-22. New Aberdeen, Frasersburg, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22. Inverness (282)	{ Aird, Strathglass, Sky, Harris, Badenoch, Lochaber, and Glenmorison }	{ Inverness, Inverlochy, Fort Augustus, Boileau.
23. Nairne (27) and	{ Western Part of Murray }	{ Nairne, Cromartie.
24. Cromartie (24)	{ and Cromartie }	{ St. Andrews, Cowper, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Island, Dumferline, Dyfart, Anstruther and Aberdour.
25. Fife (387)	{ Fife }	{ Montrose, Forfar, Dundee, Aberbroth & Brechin.
26. Forfar (326)	{ Forfar, Angus }	{ }
27. Bamff (182)	{ Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan }	{ Bamff and Cullen.

Shires.	Sheriffdoms and other subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
28. Sutherland (100)	{ Strathnaver and Sutherland }	{ Strathly and Dornoch.
29. Clackmannan (31)	{ Fife part }	{ Culrofs, Clackmannan, Alloa and Kinrofs.
30. Kinrofs (23)		
31. Roſs (201)	{ Eaſter and Weſter Roſs, Ile of Lewis, Lochbroom, Lochcarren, Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald }	{ Tayne, Dingwall, Fortroſe, Roſamarkie, and New Kelſo.
32. Elgin (145)	{ Murray and Strathſpey }	{ Elgin and Forres, Kirkwall, W. lon. 3. N. lat. 59-45.
33. Orkney (183)	{ Iſles of Orkney and Shetland }	{ Skalloway, near the Meridian of London, N. lat. 61.

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

The royal boroughs, which chooſe representatives, are ;

Edinburgh,	-	-	1	Innerkythen, Dumfermlin, Queens-	
Kirkwall, Wick, Dornock, Dingwall,				ferry, Culrofs, and Stirling,	1
and Tayne,	-	-	1	Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and	
Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne, and For-				Dumbarton,	1
res,	-	-	1	Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick,	
Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, and				Lauder, and Jedburgh,	1
Kintore,	-	-	1	Selkirk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and	
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Aber-				Lanerk,	1
broth, and Brechin,	-	-	1	Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, Loch-	
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowper, and				maban, and Kircudbright,	1
St. Andrews,	-	-	1	Wigtown, New Galloway, Stranraer,	
Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther Eaſt and				and Whitehorn,	1
Weſt, and Pittenweem,	-	-	1	Air, Irwin, Rothſay, Campbel-town,	
Dyfert, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and				and Inverary,	1
Burnt Iſland,	-	-	1		

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] In the northern parts, day-light, at Midſummer, laſts eighteen hours and five minutes ; which proportion of day to night is reverſed in winter. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. This ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, 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. Yet, there are particular plains and vallies of the most luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, incessantly washed down from the mountains, and repositied in these vallies, afford them a strong vegetative nourishment: though experience has proved that garden productions do not come so soon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed, a great variety of soils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diversified by an intermixture of natural objects. The inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to a traveller, and afford delightful situations for country-houses, of which many of the Scottish nobility and gentry have availed themselves. It is their situation as much as their magnificence, that occasions the seats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopetoun, and many others, to fix the attention of every traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where else, depends on the qualities of the soil. Water passing through a heavy soil, is turbid and noxious, but filtrating through sand or gravel, is clear, light, and salutary to the stomach. This last is commonly the case in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more southern climates, in proportion as the land is worse.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from east to west, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian and joins those of Tweeddale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward through the Merse. Besides those continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot-Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, sometimes of great height, which, from their conical figure, have been distinguished by the Celtic appellation of *laws*.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largest river in Scotland is the Forth, which rises in Monteith near Callendar, and passing Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, discharges itself, near Edinburgh, into that arm of the German sea, to which it gives the name of Firth of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which issues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and, running south-east, passes the town of Perth, and falls into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, the most rapid river in Scotland, issues from a lake of the same name in Badenoch, and running from south-west to north-east, falls into the sea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from west to east, and disembogue themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed rises on the borders of Lanerkshire, and, after many serpentine turnings, discharges itself into the sea at Berwick, where it serves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eastern side. The Clyde is a large river on the west of Scotland, has its rise in Annandale, runs north-west through the valley of that name, and, after passing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Firth of Clyde, opposite to the isle of Bute. Besides those capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior degree, well provided with salmon, trout, and other fish, 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 greatest improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in this part of Great Britain, was undertaken at a very considerable expence by a society of public-spirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde; by which a communication has been opened between the east and west seas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *lochs*) are too many to be particularly described. Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Lochness, Loch Au, and some others, present us with such picturesque scenes as are scarcely equalled in any other coun-

try of Europe. Several of these lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of fresh-water fish. The Scots sometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the sea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its herrings. The Loch of Spinic, near Elgin, is remarkable for swans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as some think, to the plant *olorina*, which grows in its waters, with a straight stalk and a cluster of seeds at the top. Near Lochness is a hill almost two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold fresh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes: whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine descendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preserve themselves independent of and unmixed with the Lowlanders. Besides these rivers and lochs, the coasts of Scotland are indented with large, bold, and 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.

The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having been formerly over-run with timber. The deepest 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 now thought to be Ettrick 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. Several woods, however, still remain; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the use of furnaces and founderies; but lying at great distance from water-carriage, though the work succeeded in the execution, there was little encouragement to continue it. 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 inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

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

Several landholders in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead mines, which are 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 northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported. Lime-stone is here in great plenty, as is free-stone; so that the houses of the

better fort are constructed of good materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places in Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from supplying that defect by plantations of wood ; and the peat-mosses being in many parts, of the north especially, almost exhausted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulty for fuel ; however, the taste for plantations, of all kinds, that now prevails, will soon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is said to be dug up in Lanerkshire ; alum mines have been found in Bamffshire ; 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, potters' clay, and fullers' earth. The stones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they assign a supernatural origin and use, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made use of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron-ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland ; of which the proprietors now begin to reap the advantage, in their founderies, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } The soil of Scotland may be rendered, in
DUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } 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 far less exhausted than those of the southern parts of the island ; and agriculture is now perhaps as well understood, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers, as in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very considerable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants and manufacturers of Glasgow, who are the life and soul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing new branches of industry, are no less attentive to the progress of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole island in general, the most essential service. The active genius of these people extends even to moors, rocks and marshes, which being hitherto reckoned useless, were consequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain species of grain or timber, for which the soil is best adapted. The fruits of skill and industry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, where, as well as in Angus, the farmers, who generally rent from three to 500*l.* per annum, are well fed, well clothed, and comfortably lodged. The reverse, however, may be observed of a very considerable part of Scotland, which still remains 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 the farm. In such places, the husbandman barely exists upon the gleanings of a scanty farm, seldom exceeding 20 or 30*l.* per ann. The cattle are lean and small, the houses mean, and the face of the country exhibits the most deplorable marks of poverty and oppression. 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 are common in England. They consider hedges as useless and cumbersome, occupying more room than stone-inclosures, which, except in the Lothians, are generally low paltry walls, huddled up of loose stones, without lime or mortar, and have 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 are said to fall little short of those in England ; and the same may be said of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of salubrious and pleasant-tasted berries ; while many extensive tracts are covered with a strong heath.

The sea-coast produces the *alga-marina*, dulce or dulish, in great quantities, and other marine plants which are eaten for nourishment or pleasure.

The fisheries on the coast of Scotland are much the same with those of the islands and countries already described; but the Scotch have improved in their fisheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture; for societies have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country; and the bill, passed in 1786, bids fair to enable them to emulate the Dutch, in curing, as well as catching, their fish. In former times, the Scotch seldom ventured to fish above a league's distance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly as any of their neighbours. Their salmon, which they can send more early, when prepared, to the Levant and southern markets, than the English or Irish, are of great service to the nation, as the returns are generally made in specie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds, either of wild or domestic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares, and other animals for game, are here plentiful; also the grouse and heath-cock: the capperkail, and the ptarmacan, birds of an exquisite flavour, are scarce even in the Highlands, and, when discovered, are very shy. The numbers of black cattle upon the hills of Scotland towards the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the mountains of Tweedale, 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. This trade is now on its decline, by the increase of manufacturers, whose demand for butcher's meat must lessen the exportation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a sufficient stock, by proper methods, may be raised to supply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

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

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The population of Scotland is generally fixed
MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } at about a million and a half of souls. This calculation rests merely upon vague conjectures, as no attempt has been made to support even its probability. If we form an estimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that some public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their several parishes. The only records at present that can be appealed to, are those of the army; and by the best information, they make the number of soldiers, furnished by Scotland in the war in 1755, amount to 80,000 men. We are to observe, that above 60,000 of these were raised in the islands and Highlands, which form by far the least populous part of Scotland. It belongs, therefore, to political calculation to compute whether the population of Scotland does not exceed two millions, as no country in the world, exclusive of the army, sends abroad more of its inhabitants. If we consult the most ancient and credible histories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, must have been excessive, as it afforded so many thousands to fall by the swords of the English, without any very sensible decrease of the inhabitants.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned ; 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 the head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a scanty portion for the other sons. This obliged the latter to seek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native soil. It is true, this disparity of fortune among the sons of one family prevails in England likewise ; but the resources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to those of a country so narrow, and so little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may easily perceive, that family pride, which is not yet entirely extinguished in Scotland, was owing to the feudal institutions which prevailed there in all their horrors of barbarity. Their family differences, especially the Highlanders, familiarized 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, but 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, except some who were endowed with extraordinary virtues, were considered in no other light than commanders of their army in time of war : for in peace their civil authority was so little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the most civilized part of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as the sovereign. These 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 their hasty sentences in four and twenty hours after the parties were apprehended. The pride which those chieftains had of outvying each other in the numbers 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. The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the first chieftain who had the patriotism to attempt to reform his dependants, and to banish those barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others ; and there can scarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of society.

Scotch gentlemen, who formerly piqued themselves upon their family, or the antiquity of their descent, were very disagreeable members of society ; because, forgetting all the virtues of their ancestors, they imitated them only in their capricious vanity and revenge. Those who go abroad, and endeavour by industry to rise from their low circumstances, excel in the civil, commercial, and military duties. There is a similarity in their personal characters ; and by seeing one Scotchman who acquires a fortune abroad, you see a tolerable picture of the whole. They are in general hospitable, open, communicative, and charitable. They assimilate to the manners of the people with whom they live, with more ease and freedom than the natives of most other countries ; and they have a surprising facility in acquiring languages, particularly the French.

It remains perhaps a question, whether the lettered education, for which the Scots were noted by the neighbouring nations, was not of prejudice to their country, while it was of the utmost service to many of its natives. Their literature, however slight, rendered them acceptable and agreeable among foreigners ; but at the same time it drained the nation of that order of men, who are the best fitted for forming and executing the great plans of commerce and agriculture for the public emolument.

From what has been said, it appears that the ancient modes of living among the
Vol. I.

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 Roman conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent so quick and so sudden a transition of manners.

With regard to gentlemen who live at home, upon estates of 300l. a year and upwards, they differ little or nothing in their manners and stile of living, from their English neighbours of the like fortunes. The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can conform their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their superiors, and live within the bounds of the most rigid economy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions: and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at present in Scotland. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprise; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity, and resolution with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies; witness that which put Porteous to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people; and, though the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 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 Culloden, could scarcely be believed, were it not well attested, and has never been exceeded by any nation in the world.

The lower class are not so much accustomed as the English, to convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, they seem, for that very reason, to enjoy them more completely. One testimony there is, at once social and charitable, and that is, the contributions 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 the low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. The guests pay according to their inclination or ability, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be servants in respectable families, the contributions are so liberal that they often establish the young couple in the world.

The inhabitants of those parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by pasture, have a natural vein of poetry; and the beautiful simplicity of the Scotch tunes is relished by all true judges of music. Love is generally the subject; and many of the airs have been brought upon the English stage with variations, under new names, but with this disadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of art, they are mostly altered for the worse, being stripped of that original simplicity, which, however irregular, is their most essential characteristic, so agreeable to the ear, and possessing such powers over the human breast. Those of a more lively strain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dress by the 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 countrymen, in envy to the Scots. Their finest tunes existed in the 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 evidence to confute this report, the original character of the music is sufficient.

The common people retain the solemn decent manner of their ancestors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the parish beadle is sent round with a passing bell;

but he stops at certain places, and with a slow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceased, and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his 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 ; and the deceased is carried in his coffin, covered with a velvet pall, with chairpoles, to the grave, where it is interred without 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 burial service. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called *coronachs*, and were accompanied by the voices of both sexes.

Dancing is a favourite amusement in this country ; but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness : the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactness. One of the peculiar diversions practised by the gentlemen is the Golf, which requires an equal degree of art and strength : it is played with a bat and a ball ; the latter is smaller and harder than a cricket ball ; the bat is of a taper construction, till it terminates in the part which strikes the ball, which is 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, perhaps, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat stones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common stand to a mark at a certain distance ; and whoever is nearest the mark, is the victor. These two may be called the standing summer and winter diversions of Scotland. The natives are expert at all the diversions common in England, cricket excepted, which the gentlemen consider as too athletic and mechanical.

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 stuff is 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*, 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, 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 strait sleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer ; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held close under their chins with the hand, or fastened with a buckle of a particular fashion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen, of different forms. The woman's plaid has been but lately disused in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoso may find a strong resemblance between the plaids and the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, especially the Tuscans, who were probably of Celtic original.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dress rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to government. Many efforts were made by the legislature, after the rebellion in 1715, to disarm, 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. Its conveniency, however, for the purposes of the field, is so great, that the Highland regiments still retain it. Even the common people have of late resumed the use of it ; and many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the summer time. The dress of the higher and middling ranks in the Low-country, differs little from the English ; but many of the peasantry still retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear. The dress of the women of all ranks is much the same in both kingdoms, but not so as to their neatness, and the cleanliness of the female servants.

The language of the Highlanders, especially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, is 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. The pronunciation of a Scotchman is now improving, and with some does not differ from the pronunciation of a Londoner more than a Londoner's does from that of an inhabitant of Somersetshire, and some other counties.

PUNISHMENTS.] These are much the same in Scotland as in England, only that of beheading is performed by an instrument called the Maiden : the model of which was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland by the regent earl of Morton, 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 corner to avoid the persecution of Domitian the Roman emperor ; though it was not publicly professed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scottish historians call Donald the first, his queen, and several of his nobles, were solemnly baptized. It was farther confirmed by emigration from South Britain, during the persecutions of Aurelius and Dioclesian, 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 their own body, and who had no pre-eminence over their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, christianity seems to have been taught, planted, and confirmed in Scotland, where it flourished in its native simplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a priest sent by the bishop of Rome, in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the authority of the Roman church, which at last prevailed in Scotland, though its dependance upon the pope was very slender, when compared to the subjection of other countries.

The Culdees long retained their original manners, and remained a distinct order, so late as the age of Robert Bruce, in the fourteenth century, when they disappeared. The opposition to the Roman catholic religion, though it ceased in Scotland, upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the same age revived in England, by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner in the work of reformation to John Hufs and Jerome of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers in the sixteenth century, and the age seemed strongly disposed to receive them, affairs were not fully ripe for this great revolution ; and the completion of the business in England was reserved for the age of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and sciences began to revive in Europe, the reformation in Scotland began in the reign of James V. made great progress under his daughter Mary, and was completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and was the chief reformer of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that upon the abolition of the Roman catholic religion, they were to succeed to the revenues of its clergy. The great nobility, whose imaginations had already engrossed these possessions, did not at first discourage this notion ; but no sooner had Knox succeeded in his designs, which, through the fury of the mob, destroyed some of the finest ecclesiastical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolized all the church-livings, and most scandalously left the reformed clergy to live almost in a state of beggary ; nor could all their efforts produce any great alteration in their favour.

The great landholders left the doctrine and discipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding events rendered the presbyterian clergy of great importance to the state ; and their revenues have been so much mended, that though no stipend there exceeds 150l. a year, few fall short of 60l. and none of 50l. If the present expensive mode of living continues in Scotland, the established clergy will have many unanswerable reasons to urge for the increase of their revenues.

The bounds of this work admit not of entering upon the doctrinal and economical part of the church of Scotland. It is sufficient to say, that its first principle is a parity of ecclesiastical authority among all its presbyters ; that it agrees in its censures with the reformed churches abroad, and in the chief heads of opposition to the Roman catholics ; but that it is modelled principally after the Calvinistical plan established at Geneva. This establishment at various periods proved so tyrannical, by having the power of the greater 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 their dangerous powers over the laity. 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 Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greatest infanticides in the world. The power of the Scotch clergy is at present very moderate, or at least very moderately exercised ; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predecessors. They have been, ever since the revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the house of Hanover ; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dress without clerical robes : but some of them appear in the pulpit in gowns and bands, after the Geneva form. They make no use of set forms in worship, but they freely use the Lord's prayer. The rents of the bishops, since the abolition of episcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purposes. A thousand pounds a year is always sent by his majesty for the use of the protestant schools erected by act of parliament in North-Britain and the Western isles : and the Scotch

clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the support of their widows and orphans. The number of parishes in Scotland is eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty-one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is served by more than one minister.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is the general assembly, which may be called 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 under twelve ministers sends two ministers and one ruling elder : if it contains between twelve and eighteen ministers, it sends three, and one ruling elder : if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four ministers, it sends four ministers and two ruling elders : but if the presbytery has twenty-four ministers, it sends five ministers and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh sends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two ; whose election must be attested by the respective kirk-sessions of their own burghs. Every university sends one commissioner. The commissioners are chosen yearly, six weeks before the meeting of the assembly. The ruling elders are often persons of the first quality of the country. The king presides by his commissioner (who is always a nobleman) in this assembly, which meets annually, in May : but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a confusion, which the moderator, who is chosen by them to be speaker, has not sufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland, to the general assembly ; and no appeal lies from its determinations in religious matters.

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

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

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

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

The established religion in Scotland was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the austerities of Calvinism : 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. It is to be wished, however,

that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticism not only of lay seceders, but of regular ministers. These are industrious to fix upon the absurdities of former divines and visionaries, and ecclesiastical ordinances and discipline, which were supposed to be incompatible with the nature of government. They maintain their own preachers ; though scarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice.

A different set of dissenters in Scotland consists of the episcopalians, a few quakers, many Roman Catholics, and other sectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the time of the restoration, in 1660, to that of the revolution, in 1688, was the established church of Scotland ; and would probably have continued so, had not the bishops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refused to recognise king William's title. A Scotch episcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received some checks after the rebellion in 1715 ; but 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 decline of the nonjurors is far from having suppressed episcopacy in Scotland : the English bishops supply them with clergy qualified according to law, whose chapels are chiefly filled by the English, and such Scotch hearers of that persuasion as have places under the government. The defection of some great families from the Roman Catholics, and the extinction of others, have rendered their numbers inconsiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the islands : and though a violent opposition has lately been raised against them, they appear to be as quiet and inoffensive as protestant subjects.

Scotland, during the time of episcopacy, contained two archbishoprics, St. Andrew's and Glasgow ; and twelve bishoprics, which are Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Ross, Caithness, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the isles.

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

The discovery of the logarithms, a discovery, which, in point of ingenuity and utility, may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston ; and, since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness of his reasoning has added the colouring of a poet, which

is the more remarkable, not only as the subject is little susceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. 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 account of the most refined and subtle speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometrician no less famous distinguished himself in the almost deserted track of antiquity. This was the late dr. Simson, well known for his illustration of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, and his conic sections, are sufficient to establish the scientific reputation of his native country. This, however, does not rest on the character of mathematicians and astronomers. The fine arts have been called sisters, to denote their affinity. There is the same connexion between the sciences, particularly those which depend on observation. Mathematics and physics, properly so called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of study to which they are allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Whytt, Cullen, Brown, &c. hold a distinguished place. In political economy, or the grand art of promoting the happiness of mankind, by a wise administration of government, Scotland can boast of some celebrated writers, Smith, Anderson, and Stewart, whose works should be the statesman's and legislator's constant study, and who merit the warmest thanks from society, for the pains they have taken to advance its dearest interests.

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. But of all literary pursuits, that of rendering mankind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and respect. The philosophy of dr. Hutcheson, not to mention other works more subtle and elegant, but less convincing and less instructive, deserves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wish to practise it. Among those modern philosophers whose writings have done honour to North Britain, we readily distinguish dr. James Beattie of Aberdeen, dr. Thomas Reid of Glasgow, and mr. Dugald Stewart, professor of moral philosophy in the university of Edinburgh. The abilities and various works of dr. Beattie and dr. Reid are long since known to the literary world. Upon a subject of a nature so abstracted as metaphysics, it requires peculiar felicity of genius to become extremely interesting; yet the elements of the philosophy of the human mind by mr. Stewart, is one of the most pleasing and instructive works, which we remember to have perused. It would be endless to mention all the individuals who have distinguished themselves in the various branches of literature; particularly as those who are alive (some of them in high esteem for historical composition) dispute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels. However, it would be improper to pass over the names of Hume and Robertson, which stand eminently conspicuous, and will not shrink from a comparison with those of the most celebrated historians of ancient or modern times.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrew's*,

* St. Andrew's has a chancellor, two principals, and eleven professors in

Greek,
Humanity,
Hebrew,

Logic,
Moral philosophy,
Natural philosophy,

Mathematics,
Civil history,
Church history,

Divinity,
Medicine.

founded in 1411;—Glasgow†, 1454;—Aberdeen||, 1477; and Edinburgh‡, 1582.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND EDIFICES, } Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland,
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } naturally claims our first attention in
this division. Its castle before the use of artillery, was deemed impregnable; and was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whose territories reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh; as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle, and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived; the High-street, which is on the ridge of a hill, lying east and west; and the lanes running down its sides, north and south. In former times, the town was furrounded by water, except towards the east; so that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of L'Islesburg. This situation suggested the idea of building very lofty houses, divided into stories, each of which contains a suit 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 the city. The inconveniences arising from this crowded population being so very apparant, the modern houses are generally built in the English taste, of a moderate height, and accommodated to the use of a single family. This improvement particularly prevails in the new town. The castle not only over-looks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a rich neighbouring country, but commands a most extensive prospect of the river Forth, the shipping, the opposite coast of Fife, and even some hills, at the distance of forty or fifty miles, which border upon the Highlands. The castle has some good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, a large magazine of arms and ammunition, and contains the regalia, which were deposited here under the most solemn legal instruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at present of those regalia, is contained in the instrument which was taken at the time of their being deposited, where they are fully described.

Opposite to the castle, at a mile's distance, stands the abbey, or rather palace of Holyrood-house. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finished by Charles I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan,

† Glasgow has a chancellor, rector, dean of faculty, principal, and fourteen professors in

Greek,	Logic,	Practical astronomy,	Medicine,
Humanity,	Moral philosophy,	History,	Anatomy.
Hebrew,	Natural philosophy,	Divinity,	
Oriental languages,	Mathematics,	Civil and Scotch law.	

|| Aberdeen has properly two colleges, viz. King's college, and Marischal college; King's college has a chancellor, rector, principal, and seven professors in

Greek,	Oriental languages,	Divinity,	Medicine.
Humanity,	Philosophy,	Civil law,	

Marischal college has a chancellor, rector, principal, and seven professors in

Greek,	Moral philosophy and logic,	Natural philosophy,	Divinity,
Oriental languages,		Mathematics,	Medicine.

‡ Edinburgh has a patron, principal, and professors in

Divinity,	Natural philosophy,	Law of nature and nations,	Institutes of physic and medicine,
Church history,	Mathematics,	Rhetoric and belles lettres,	Practice of medicine,
Greek,	Civil history,		Chemistry,
Humanity,	Natural history,		Anatomy,
Hebrew,	Scotch law,	Botany,	Midwifery.
Logic,	Civil law,	Materia Medica,	
Moral philosophy,			

and under the direction of sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greatest architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters ; and the inside contains good apartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland, down to the time of the revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have adorned the neighbourhood of this palace, which is situate at the bottom of bleak crags and bare mountains. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it stood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a most elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of stone galleries, supported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inside was demolished and rifled of all its rich ornaments, through the fury of the mob at the revolution, who even broke into the repositories of the dead, and discovered a vault till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his first queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel fell down on the second and third of December, 1768, occasioned by the enormous weight of a new stone roof, laid over it some years ago, which they were unable to support.

The hospital founded by George Herriot, goldsmith to James VI. stands to the south-west of the castle, in a good situation. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of King James VI.) has left of his Gothic manner, and is 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 of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

Among the public edifices of Edinburgh is the college, which claims the privileges of an university, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be said of its buildings, which were calculated for the sober literary manners of those days. What is of more importance, it is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning ; and its schools, for every part of the medical art, are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by Clement Little, which is said to have been of late greatly augmented ; and a museum belonging to it was given by sir Andrew Balfour, a physician. It contains several natural, and some literary curiosities. The magistrates of Edinburgh intend to erect a new and elegant structure upon the present situation, as soon as a fund can be formed adequate to the expence.

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

dark and dismal. It is said that preparations are now carrying on for lodging the books and papers in rooms better suited to their importance and value.

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 churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to such buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deserves particular attention. This pavement has been lately much improved.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the exchange, public offices, its hospitals, bridges, and the like, demonstrate the improvement of the taste of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have almost completed a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the present age. The streets and squares are laid out with regularity, and the houses are built of stone, in an elegant taste, with all the conveniences that render those of England so delightful and commodious. The fronts of some are superbly finished, displaying at the same time the judgment of the builder, and the public spirit of the proprietors.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeably to the original plan, was to have been formed into a sheet of water, bordered by a terrace walk, and the ascent towards the new town covered with pleasure gardens, shrubberies, &c. But this elegant design has not yet taken place. At the west, or upper end of this vale, the castle, a solid rock, not less than twenty stories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eastern extremity is bounded by a striking object of art, a lofty bridge*, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. We are the more particular in describing this place, that the reader may form some idea of its pleasant situation, standing on an eminence, with a gentle declivity on each side, in the heart of a rich country; the view southward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic castle, and distant hills rising to an amazing height; while the prospect northward gives full scope to the eye, pleases the imagination, and fills the mind with such ideas as the works of nature alone can inspire.

This city may be considered, notwithstanding its castle, and a wall of a very modern fabric, but in the Roman manner, which encloses it on the south side, as an open town; so that it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it against the rebels who took possession of it in 1745. Edinburgh contains a play-house, which has now the sanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, assemblies, balls, music-meetings, and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of the British 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. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooses its own deacon, and there are fourteen; viz. surgeons, goldsmiths, skinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, masons, tailors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provost is

* A bridge has been lately erected towards the south, which not only connects the buildings in that quarter with the old and new towns, but admits of an easy access to the country. This south bridge forms a most elegant street, with

magnificent buildings on each side, and is directly opposite to that over the North Loch: It will be productive of many advantages, and afford a great increase of revenue to the city of Edinburgh.

colonel of the town guard, a military institution to be found in no other part of the British dominions: they serve for the city watch, and patrol the streets, are useful in suppressing small commotions, and attend the execution of sentences upon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, wear an uniform, and are commanded by three officers, under the name of captains. Besides this guard, Edinburgh raises sixteen companies of trained bands, which serve as militia. The revenues of the city consist chiefly of that tax which is now common in most of the bodies corporate of Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two-thirds of a farthing, laid upon every Scotch pint of ale (containing two English quarts) consumed within the precincts of the city. This is a judicious impost, as it renders the poorest people insensible of the burden. Its product has been sufficient to defray the expense of supplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the distance of four miles; of erecting reservoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, and completing other public works, of great expense and utility.

Leith, though nearly two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. It contains the remains of two citadels, which were fortified and bravely defended by the French under Mary of Guise, against the English, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, which are increasing; particularly the earl of Abercorn's, a short way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's house at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at Newbottle, and Hopetoun-house, so called from the earl, its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothic chapel, 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 Lanerk, situated on a gentle declivity sloping towards the river Clyde, forty-four miles west of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce, and riches, the second city of Scotland, and considering its size, the first, perhaps, in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, 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 a good style of architecture; and the cathedral is a Gothic building. It contains three churches, one of which stands above another, and is furnished with a fine spire springing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a masterly fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who was bishop of Glasgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of six hundred years old, and was preserved from the fury of the rigid reformers, by the resolution of the citizens. The town house is a lofty building, and has noble apartments for the magistrates. The university, esteemed the best building of any in Scotland, is at present in a thriving state, and its buildings will be much improved and extended in consequence of the liberal donations bequeathed by the late dr. Hunter. In this city are several well-endowed hospitals; it is well supplied with inns; and, near the most populous part of the town, where the traders assemble, is a hotel, tavern, and spacious coffee-house, named the *Tontine*, supported by subscription. It is, perhaps, equal to any thing of the kind, and well calculated for the accommodation of strangers and the inhabitants of this commercial city. They have lately built a handsome bridge across the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow us to particularize that and the other public-spirited undertakings of this city, carrying on by the inhabitants, which do honour to the benefits arising from their commerce, both foreign and internal, which they carry on with amazing success. In Glasgow are seven

churches and eight or ten meeting-houses for sectaries of various denominations. Its inhabitants have been estimated at 50,000.

Aberdeen is the third town in Scotland for improvement and population. It is the capital of a shire, to which it gives name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen ; the former is the shire-town, and evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It is a large well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide-harbour : in it are three churches, and several episcopal meeting-houses, a considerable degree of foreign commerce and much shipping, a well-frequented university, and above 25,000 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 moderately large market town, but has no haven. In each of these places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the university of Aberdeen, tho' independent of each other. There is, at present, a prospect of their being united.

Perth, the capital town of Perthshire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic ; is finely situated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the most fertile spots in Great Britain, called the Carse of Gowry. Dundee, by the general computation, contains about 20,000 inhabitants : it lies near the mouth of the river Tay ; is a town of considerable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to foreign parts ; and has three churches. Montrose, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the same county of Angus : the trade of the first has declined ; but the manufactures of the other two are in an improving state.

It may be necessary again to mention, that I write with great uncertainty with regard to the population of Scotland. Edinburgh certainly contains more than 60,000 souls, which is the common computation, to which I all along conform myself : but the influx of people, and the increase of matrimony in proportion to that of property, must create great alterations for the better, and few for the worse, because the inhabitants, who are disposed to industry, may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reason why a particular description of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paisley, Stirling, and about fifty other burghs and towns of very considerable trade in Scotland, is omitted.

The ancient Scots valued themselves upon trusting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This was a maxim more heroical, perhaps, than prudent, as they have often experienced. The castles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great strength, could not hold out forty-eight hours, if besieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William, which lies in the West Highlands, is sufficient to bridle the inhabitants of the neighbourhood ; as are Fort George and Fort Augustus, in the north and north-west ; but none of them can be considered as defences against a foreign enemy.

It is needless to give a description of the edifices, that within the course of this and the last century have been erected by private persons in Scotland, because they are so numerous. It is sufficient to say, that many of them are equal to some of the most superb buildings in England and foreign countries ; and the reader's surprise at this will cease, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture, than that of the nobility and gentry of Scotland ; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapness of materials, where it can be gratified at so moderate an expense. This may likewise account for the stupendous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices which anciently abounded in Scotland ; but at the time of the reformation they were mostly demolished, by a furious and tumultuous mob, who, in these practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exasperated at the long suffering they had endured from the Roman Catholic party.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The Roman and other antiquities found
 NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } in Scotland, have furnished matter for large
 volumes. The stations of the Roman legions, their castella, their pretentures or
 walls, reaching across the island, have been traced with great precision by antiqua-
 ries and historians ; so that without some fresh discoveries, an account of them could
 afford no instruction to the learned, and but little amusement to the ignorant ; be-
 cause 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 cal-
 led 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 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 battle, so well recorded by Tacitus, with the Caledonian king,
 Galgacus, whom he 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. It 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 prætorial, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman temple, or building in the form of the pantheon at Rome, or the
 dome of St. Paul's at London, stood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Stir-
 lingshire, but has lately been barbarously demolished by a neighbouring Goth, for
 the purpose of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its ex-
 ternal circumference at the base was eighty-eight feet ; so that upon the whole, it
 was one of the most complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to
 have been built by Agricola, or some of his successors, as a temple to the god
 Terminus, as it stood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in
 Britain to the north. Near it are some artificial conical mounts of earth, which
 still retain the name of Duni-pace, or Duni-pacis : which serve to evince that
 there was a kind of compromise between the Romans and Caledonians, that the
 former should not extend their empire farther to the northwards. Innumerable are
 the coins, urns, utensils, inscriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have
 been found in different parts of Scotland ; some of them to the north of the wall,
 where, however, it does not appear that they made any establishment. By the in-
 scriptions found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far
 they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of the Roman highways are fre-
 quent in the southern parts.

Danish camps and fortifications are discernible in several northern counties, and
 are known by their square figures and difficult situations. Some houses of stupend-
 ous fabrics remain in Ross-shire, but whether they are Danish, Pictish, or Scottish,
 does not appear. The elevations of two of them are to be seen in Gordon's Iti-

* Near the western extremity of this wall, at
 Duntocher, in Dumbartonshire, a countryman in
 digging a trench upon the declivity of a hill, upon
 which are seen the remains of a Roman fort, turned
 up several uncommon tiles, which exciting the cu-
 riosity of the peasantry in that neighbourhood, it
 was not long before they broke in upon an entire
 subterraneous building, from which they dug out a
 cart load of these materials. A gentleman found
 means, upon the second day, to stop all farther pro-
 ceedings, in hopes that some public-spirited persons
 would, by taking off the surface, explore the whole

without demolishing it. The tiles are of seven
 different sizes ; the smallest being seven, and the
 largest twenty-one inches square. They are from
 two to three inches in thickness, of a reddish co-
 lour, and in a perfectly sound condition. The les-
 ser ones compose several rows of pillars, which
 form a labyrinth of passages about eighteen inches
 square : and the larger tiles being laid over the
 whole, serve as a roof to support the earth above,
 which is found to be two feet in depth. The build-
 ing is surrounded by a subterraneous wall of hewn
 stone.

nerarium Septentrionale. I am of opinion, that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian structures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the descents of that people upon those coasts. Two Pictish monuments, 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 a stair-case; that of Brechin is the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it consists of sixty regular courses of hewn freestone, laid circularly and regularly, and tapering towards the top*.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient Scots are not only curious but instructive, as they regard many important events of their history. That people had a rude notion of sculpture, in which they transmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obelisks are still to be seen, called the Danish stones of Aberlemno. They were erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adored with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, now inexplicable. Many other historical monuments of the Scots have been discovered; and the obscurity of their sculptures has encouraged a field of boundless and frivolous conjectures. It would be unpardonable, not to mention the stone near the town of Forres, or Fortrose, in Murray, which far surpasses all the others in magnitude, "and is," says Mr. Gordon, "perhaps one of the most stately monuments of that kind in Europe. It rises about 23 feet in height, above ground, and is, 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 thereon, and some of them still distinct and visible; but the injury of the weather has obscured those towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Danish, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulsion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their last settlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invasion.

At Sandwick, in Ross-shire, is a splendid ancient obelisk, surrounded at the base with large, well-cut flag-stones, formed like steps. Both sides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well-finished carved work. The one face presents a sumptuous cross, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and some uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central division, on the reverse, exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals. The remains of the cathedral of Elgin display much grandeur and dignity. The west door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings; and the whole edifice exhibits very elaborate workmanship.

Among the remains of ancient castles may be mentioned Kildrummy castle, in the north of Scotland, formerly a place of great strength and magnificence, and often used as an asylum to noble families, in periods of civil war. Inverurie castle, the ancient seat of the earl-mareschals of Scotland, is also a large and lofty pile, situated on the steep bank of the river; two high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying state, give the castle an air of grandeur and antiquity. Rows of venerable trees, inclosing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntley, are the ruins of Huntley 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 great part of it is demolished; but there is a

* If these columns, which stand in the ancient dominions of the Picts, be really the work of that nation, their architects must have been equal to any at that time in Europe.

massy building of a more modern date, in which some of the apartments, and their curious ceilings, are still in tolerable preservation. They are painted with a great variety of subjects, in small divisions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Besides these remains of Roman, Pictish, Danish and Scotch 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 equally regular, yet none of them are so stupendous as the druidical monuments in South Britain. There is in Perthshire, a barrow, which seems to be British ; it exactly resembles the figure of a ship, with the keel uppermost. The common people call it Ternay, which some interpret to be *terra navis*, the ship of earth. It appears to be of the most remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of some British prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans ; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles distant from the great scene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finhaven is one instance ; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunstaffage castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumice or scoria of different kinds, many of which are of the same species with those of the volcanic Iceland. Among other natural curiosities, mention is made of a heap of white stones, most of them clear like crystal, together with great plenty of oyster and other sea shells, that are found on the top of a mountain called Skorna Lappich, in Ross-shire, twenty miles distant from the sea. Slains, in Aberdeenshire, is said to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping-cave, where water oozing through a spongy porous rock at the top, quickly consolidates after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curiosities belonging to Scotland have their descriptions and histories ; but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar. Some caverns in Fifeshire are probably natural, and of extraordinary dimensions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In these respects, Scotland has, for some years past, been in a very improving state. Without entering into the disputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take possession of Darien, and to carry on an East and West India trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (so far as it went) executed with a noble spirit of enterprise. The miscarriage of that scheme, after receiving the highest and most solemn sanctions, is a disgrace to the annals of William III. in whose reign it happened. The disgust conceived by the nation on that account, made commerce languish, until Mr. Pelham, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, discovered the true value of Scotland. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragement granted by the Scots for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his administration, made them sensible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a succeeding minister, pursued Mr. Pelham's wise plan ; and justly boasted in parliament, that he availed himself of the courage, good sense, and spirit of the Scots, in carrying on the most extensive war that Great Britain was ever engaged in. Let it be remarked, to the honour of the British government, that the Scots have been suffered to avail themselves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or posterior acts of parliament. This is manifest from the extensive trade they lately carried on with the British settlements in America and the West Indies, and with all the nations to which the English themselves trade ; so that the increase of their shipping within these forty years past has been very considerable. The exports of these ships are composed chiefly of Scotch

manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the soil, and the industry of its inhabitants. In exchange they import rice, cotton, sugar, and rum, from the British plantations; and from other countries their products, to the immense gain of their nation. The prosperity of Glasgow and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connexion and trade with Virginia and the West Indies. The fisheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coasts; for they have a trifling concern in the whale fishery carried on upon the coast of Spitsbergen. Their other fisheries are increasing, their cured fish being preferred by foreigners, and the English planters in America, to those of Newfoundland.

The busses or vessels employed in the great herring fishery on the western coasts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of Clyde and the neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbeltown, a commodious port in Argyleshire, facing the north of Ireland, where sometimes 300 vessels have been assembled. They clear out the 12th of September, and must return to their different ports by the 13th of January. They are also under certain regulations respecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being calculated to promote the best of national purposes, its strength and its commerce. Though the political existence of Britain depends upon the number and bravery of her seamen, this noble institution still labours under many difficulties, from the caprice and ignorance of the legislature.

To encourage this fishery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament: but whether from the insufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpose, or any other cause, the bounty was withheld from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only sinking their fortunes, but also borrowing to the utmost limits of their credit. The bounty has since been reduced from 50 to 30s. with the strongest assurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the strength of these promises, they have again embarked in the fishery; and it is to be wished, that no consideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement so requisite to place this fishery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of these fisheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, in Stirlingshire. Their linen manufactory is in a flourishing state. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal to any in the world; it has been said, some years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the British plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks, Osnaburgs, inkle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000*l.* exclusive of their home consumption: and there is reason to believe that the sum is considerably larger at present. The Scots are making very promising efforts for establishing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, stockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very considerable. It is true, that they cannot pretend to rival the English in their finer cloths; but they make some broad cloth proper for the wear of people of fashion in an undress, and in quality and fineness equal to what is commonly called Yorkshire cloth. Among their late improvements we are not to forget the progress they have made in working the mines, and smelting the ores of their country. The coal trade to England is well known; and of late they have turned even their stones to account, by their contract for paving the streets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the English, is now diminished, it is owing to the best of national causes, that of an increase of home consumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eastern ports of the nation; but Glasgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the late war. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade mutual to both parts of Scotland. In short, the more that the seas, the situation, the soil, harbours, and

rivers of this country are known, the better adapted it appears for all the purposes of commerce. With regard to other manufactures, some of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paisley employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and striped lawns, which are a cheap and elegant wear. Sugar-houses, glass-works of every kind, delft-houses, and paper-mills, are erected every where. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and lasting furniture; and some essays have been lately made, with no inconsiderable degree of success, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as in any part of Europe. There are undoubtedly some disadvantages under which both the commercial and landed interest of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great landholders having too fond an attachment for England and foreign countries, where they spend their ready money. This is one of the evils arising to Scotland from the union, which removed the seat of her legislature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the resort of volunteer absentees to that capital. While this partiality subsists, the Scots will probably continue to be distressed for a currency of specie. How far paper can supply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade; and the evil is infinitely augmented by the immense sums annually transmitted to England for manufactures, and as the balance of customs and excise, after defraying the whole expenses of government. The gentlemen who reside in Scotland, have, in some measure, abandoned the use of French brandy and claret, for port, and rum produced in the British plantations; their own malt-liquors are now come nearly to as great perfection as those in England; but this manufacture lies under excessive oppression from the invidious policy of that country.

REVENUE.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the same in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch shilling answered to about an English six-pence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an English groat. It continued diminishing in this manner, till after the union of the two crowns under her son James VI. when the resort of the Scotch nobility and gentry to the English court, occasioned such a drain of specie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch shilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an English shilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were succeeded by bodles, which were double the value of a Scotch penny, and are long since laid aside. A Scotch halfpenny was called a *babee*; some say, because it was first stamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words *bas piece*, signifying a low piece of money. The same observation made of the Scotch shilling holds of their pounds or marks; which are not coins, but money of account. In all other respects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the same; as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order, instituted, as some Scotch writers assert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making a league with Charlemagne, king of France. It has been frequently neglected, and as often resumed. It consists of the sovereign and 12 companions, who are called knights of the thistle, and have on their ensign this significant motto, *Nemo me impune lacessit*. "Nobody provokes me unpunished."

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient constitution of government in Scotland has been applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the constitution which were well calculated to prevent his assuming or exercising a despotic authority; but the Scottish constitution of government was too much of the aristocratic kind, to afford the common people 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 altogether in their power to 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 clement and merciful God may show mercy unto me and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land, however small, of the crown; by military service. This parliament appointed the times of its own meeting and adjournment, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament ; it had a controuling 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-counsellors ; it annexed and alienated the revenues of the crown, and restrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament ; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was so bounded, that he was not even entrusted with the executive power. And so late as the minority of James IV. who was cotemporary 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 acts still extant : in short, the constitution was rather aristocratical than monarchical. The abuse of these aristocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king a very considerable interest among the lower ranks ; and a prince, who had sense and address to retain 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. showed a disrespect to his parliament, the event was commonly 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 their clergy, whose revenues were immense, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. They were chosen from the clergy, nobility, knights, and burghesses. The bishops, for instance, chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops ; and these sixteen chose eight barons (or knights of the shire) and eight commissioners for burghs ; to whom were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole.

Their business was to prepare all questions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament ; so that, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to bestow, always sure of the lords of the articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It must be acknowledged, that this institution seems to have prevailed by stealth ; nor was it ever brought into any regular system ; even its modes varied ; and the greatest lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never lost sight of their original principles : and though Charles I. endeavoured 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 conferred on 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 had 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, marquesses, 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 a 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 assizers 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 the execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch history, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes: a convention, or meeting of the states, assembled for the purposes of taxation only. Before the union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four lesser officers of state; the great were, the lord high-chancellor, high-treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary: the four lesser were, the lords register, advocate, treasurer-deputy, and justice-clerk. The officers of privy-seal, register, advocate, and justice-clerk still continue; a third secretary of state has occasionally been nominated by the king for Scottish affairs, but under the same denomination as the other two secretaries. The above officers of state sat officially in the Scotch parliament.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal. The offices of constable and marshal were hereditary. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral; and the office of marshal is exercised by a knight marshal. The office of chancellor in Scotland differed little from that in England; the same may be said of the lords treasurer, privy-seal, and secretary. The lord-register was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treasury, exchequer, and session, and keeper of all public records. Though his office was only during the king's pleasure, yet it was very lucrative, by disposing of his deputation which lasted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament; and it was dangerous for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon a division. The lord-advocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are 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. One solicitor is named by his majesty, by way of assistant to the lord-advocate. The office of justice-clerk entitles the possessor to preside in the criminal court of justice, when the justice-general 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. That of Lyon king at arms, or the *rex-facialium*, or grand herald of Scotland, is still in being; and it was formerly a place of great splendor and importance, inasmuch that the science of heraldry was preserved there in a greater

purity than in any other country, except Germany. He was even crowned solemnly in parliament with a golden circle ; and his authority in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

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

The first is that of the college of justice, which was instituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to supply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who took the names of the lords of council and session, which the present members of the college of justice still retain. This court consists of a president and fourteen ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a standing jury in all questions of property that lie before them. The civil law is their directory in all subjects that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It can be no matter of surprise, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the union. This may be easily accounted for, because those laws and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. The lords of council and session act likewise as a court of equity ; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the subject) reversible by the British house of lords, to which an appeal lies. The supreme criminal judge was named the justiciar, and the court of justiciary succeeded to his power.

The justiciary court is the highest tribunal in Scotland : but in its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord justice general, removeable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility ; but the ordinary members of the court, are the justice-clerk and four other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. The verdict of a jury condemns or acquits, but without the necessity of their being unanimous. Twice in the year, during the spring and harvest vacations, the judges of this court hold circuits in certain boroughs appointed by statute.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the same power, authority, and jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchequer in England has over the revenues there ; and all matters cognizable by the court of exchequer of England, are likewise cognizable by the exchequer of Scotland. The judges of the exchequer in Scotland exercise certain powers which formerly belonged to the treasury, and are still vested in that of England.

The court of admiralty in Scotland was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament declared to be a supreme court, in all causes competent to its own jurisdiction ; and the lord high-admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and justice-general upon the seas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the same ; and upon fresh waters and navigable rivers, below the first bridge, or within flood-mark ; so that nothing competent to his jurisdiction can be meddled with, in the first instance, but by the lord high-admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences passed in all inferior courts of admiralty, may be brought again before this 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 nothing more than nominal ; but the salary is reckoned worth 1000*l.* a year ; and the judge of the admiralty is

commonly a lawyer of distinction, with considerable perquisites pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which answers to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scotch lawyers. They are an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination to qualify its candidates for admission. Subordinate to them is a body of inferior lawyers, or attornies, who are named writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a bye government for their own regulation.

The government of the counties of Scotland was formerly vested in sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commissaries, justices of the peace, and coroners. Formerly sheriffdoms were generally hereditary; but, by a late act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being enacted, that all high-sheriffs, or stewards, shall, in future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs and successors. In regard to the sheriff-deputes and steward-deputes, it is enacted, that there shall only be one in each county, or stewartry, who must be an advocate, of three years' standing at least. For the space of seven years, these deputies are to be nominated by the king, with such continuance as his majesty shall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their offices for life, unless guilty of some offence. 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 causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery; but the punishment is not to exceed twenty shillings sterling, or setting the delinquent in the stocks for three hours, in the day-time. These courts were, in former days, invested with the power of life and death, which they have now lost. The courts of commissaries in Scotland answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and testaments; the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tythes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in other parts of the kingdom, there sits but one judge on these causes.

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

The institution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legislator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invasion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to register the depositions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office hath long since been laid aside.

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*, the oldest law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. The Scots, on the other hand, say, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majestatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exist in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which

meets once a year, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are extensive ; and, before the union, they made laws relating to shipping, to masters and owners of ships, to mariners and merchants by whom they were freighted ; to manufactures ; to the curing of salmon and herrings ; and to the importing and exporting several commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is subject to their regulation : they fix the staple-port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conservator is nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his salary. This is a very singular institution, and proves the attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its present form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent consequences for the benefit of commerce ; but it hath now shrunk into perfect insignificance.

Such are the laws and constitution of Scotland, as they exist at present, in their general view. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The English law reports are of the same nature with the Scotch practices ; and their acts of *federunt* answer to the English rules of court ; the Scottish wadsets and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeasances ; their poinding of goods, after letters of horning, is much the same as the English executions upon outlawries ; and an appeal against the king's pardon, in cases of murder, by the next of kin to the deceased, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other usages are the same in both kingdoms. One observation prove the similarity between the English and Scotch constitutions, which, I believe, has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in presence of the king, who was seated on the top of a hillock, which, in the old Scotch constitutions is called the Moot or Mutehill : here all national affairs were transacted, judgments given, and differences ended. This moot-hill I apprehend to be of the same nature as the Saxon Folc mote, and to signify no more than the hill of meeting.

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

It is unnecessary to investigate the constitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is sufficient to observe, 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 valour of both nations ; and the sentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of his country, appear to have warmed the noble historian with the same generous passion.

It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola, to conceal some part of this war ; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned southward to the province of the Horesti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

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

Christianity was introduced into Scotland about the beginning of the second century. The Picts, who were the descendants of the ancient Britons, had at that time gained a footing in Scotland ; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined with the Romans against the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and considered themselves as one people ; so that the Scotch monarchy suffered a short eclipse : but it broke out with more lustre than ever, under Fergus II. who recovered his crown ; and his successors gave many severe 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 have no choice left, but that of being swallowed up by the sea, or of perishing by the swords of the barbarians ; for so all nations were called, who were not Roman, or under the Roman protection.

About the year 786, the Scots were governed by Achais, a prince so much respected, that his friendship was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which long continued inviolate. No fact of equal antiquity is better attested than this league, together with the great service performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the dominions of that great conqueror. The Picts still remained in Scotland, as a separate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots ; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally subdued them ; but not in the savage manner mentioned by some historians, by extermination : for he obliged them to incorporate themselves with their conquerors, by taking their name, and adopting their laws. The successors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almost perpetual wars with the Saxons on the southward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the east ; who, being masters of the sea, harassed the Scots by powerful invasions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the English ; for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland, and at last driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Danish monarchs, who then governed England, were not more successful against the Scots, who asserted their freedom and independency against foreign invaders and domestic usurpers. The feudal law was introduced among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Canmore, from two Gaelic words, which signify a *large head*, 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-seventh from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Any reader, acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the in-

imitable 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 1057. He was a wise and magnanimous prince, not inferior to his cotemporary, the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, surnamed the Outlaw, son to Edmund Ironside, king of England. By the death of her brother, Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the posterity of that prince's, who was one of the wisest and worthiest women of the age; and her daughter Maud was married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his son, treacherously, it is said, at the siege of Alnwick, by the besieged.

Malcolm III. was succeeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whose legitimacy was disputed. Edgar, the son of Malcolm III. a wise and valiant prince, assumed the government; 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, viz. the glories of this reign, it appears, that David was one of the greatest princes of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. The actions he performed in the service of his niece, the empress Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the English crown, give us the highest idea of his virtues, as they could be the result only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightiest prince of his age, owed his crown; and his possessions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to that island. His actions and the resources which he found in his own courage, prove him to have been a real hero. If he appeared to be too lavish to churchmen, we are to consider, that by them only he could hope to civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws drawn up by him does 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. a good king. He married, first, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flanders' daughter; David; and Margaret, who married 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 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 entered into this detail, because it is connected with great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandson to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his elder daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce, grandson to the same earl of Huntingdon, by his younger daughter Isabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not then so well established in Europe as they are at present, rendered the case very difficult. Both parties were almost equally-matched in interest; but after a confused interregnum of some years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned, and treated him as a slave, without Baliol's resenting it.

After this, Edward used many bloody endeavours to annex the crown of Scotland to his own; but though they were often defeated, and he for a short time made him-

self master of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt on every favourable opportunity. Those who were so zealously attached to the independence of their country, as to be resolved to hazard every thing, were but few, compared to those in the interest of Edward and Baliol, 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 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 fatidical or prophetic stone, which is still to be seen in Westminster-abbey.

These severe proceedings, while they rendered the Scots sensible of their slavery, revived the desire of freedom; and Edward, finding that their spirits were not to be subdued, affected to treat them on the 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 entitle him to eternal renown, in executing this scheme. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increasing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the son of the first competitor, began to suspect that he aimed at the crown, especially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garrisons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the states of Scotland their protector. Their jealousy 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, attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. These, besides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irresistible body: Edward was obliged to divide his army, 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 great loss, but made an orderly retreat. Wallace still continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions against the English, but he was betrayed, and ungenerously put to death at London as a traitor. Edward died himself, as he was preparing to renew his invasion of Scotland with a still more desolating spirit of ambition, after having destroyed, according to the best historians, 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died soon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inspired his son, who was a prisoner at large about the English court, with the glorious resolution of vindicating his 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 four brothers, he assumed the crown; but was defeated by the English (who had a great army in Scotland) at the battle of Methven. After this defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Western Isles of Scotland, where his fatigues and sufferings were as inexpressible, as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them was incredible. Though his wife and daughter were sent prisoners to England, where his best friends, and two of his brothers, were put to death; yet such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, except the castle of Stirling, and im-

proved every advantage that was given him by the dissipated conduct of Edward II. who at last raised an army more numerous and better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conquest of Scotland. It is said that it consisted of 100,000 men, though this has been supposed an exaggeration : however, it is admitted that the army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000 ; but all veterans, bred up in a detestation of tyranny. Edward led his host towards Stirling, then besieged by Bruce ; who had chosen, with the greatest judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, Pembroke, and sir Giles Argenton ; those under Bruce were, his own brother, sir Edward, who, next to himself, was reckoned the best knight in Scotland ; his nephew Randolph, earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-steward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmness of Bruce and his friends to resist it, which they did so effectually, that they gained one of the most complete victories recorded in history. The Scotch writers make the loss of the English to amount to 50,000 men, while their own exceeded not 4000. The flower of the English nobility were killed or taken prisoners. Their camp, immensely rich, and calculated for the purpose rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots : and Edward himself, with a few followers, were pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he escaped in a fishing-boat. This great and decisive battle happened in the year 1314.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a series of glorious successes ; and so well did his nobility understand the principles of civil liberty, and so unfettered were they by religious considerations, that, in a letter they sent the pope, they acknowledged that they had set aside Baliol for debasing the crown by holding it of England ; and that they would do the same by Robert, if he should make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, sent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greatest part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king ; but by exposing himself too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, made an advantageous peace with England ; and died, in 1328, with the reputation of being the greatest hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be said to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was succeeded by his son David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipsed by his brother-in-law and enemy, Edward III. of England, whose sister he married. Edward, who was as ambitious as any of his predecessors, of making the conquest of Scotland, espoused the cause of Baliol, son to Baliol, the original competitor. His progress was at first amazingly rapid ; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles ; but Baliol was at last driven out of his usurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David, however, had the misfortune to be taken prisoner by the English at the battle of Durham : and after continuing above eleven years in captivity, 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 married 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 intention to seize the crown. Robert, on this, attempted to send his second son to France ; but he was ungenerously intercepted by Henry IV. of England ; and, after suffering a long captivity, 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. promised to equal the greatest of his ancestors in warlike and civil virtues, when he was killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English. Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects, during which he was slain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

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

The minority of his son, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married a daughter of the king of France; and after her death, a lady of the house of Guise. He instituted the court of session, enacted many salutary laws, and greatly promoted the industry of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendship was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all of whom he received magnificent presents. But James took little share in foreign affairs: he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the doctrines of the reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the instigation of the clergy, to a religious persecution, though it is generally believed, that, had he lived longer, he would have seized all the church-revenues, in imitation of Henry. Having slighted some friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this short expedition, the English army retired to Berwick. Upon its retreat, James sent ten thousand men to the western borders, who entered England at Solway Frith; and he followed at a small distance, ready to join them. Soon after, he gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commission, and conferring the command on his favourite, Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman. The army were so much disgusted at this alteration, that they were ready to disband, when a small body of English appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic seized the Scots, who immediately took flight, supposing themselves to be attacked by the whole English army. Hatred to the king, and contempt of their general produced an effect, to which there is no parallel in history. They overcame the fear of death,

and the love of liberty ; and ten thousand men surrendered to a number so far inferior, without striking a blow. The English had their choice of prisoners ; and seven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred soldiers were taken, with twenty four pieces of ordnance. This disaster so much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illness, of which he died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her talents, her imprudence, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the reformation advanced in Scotland ; that being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her cousin-german, lord Darnley, whose untimely death hath given rise to much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was detained a prisoner for eighteen years ; and, afterwards, beheaded by queen Elizabeth, in 1587, in the forty-sixth year of her age. This murder was perpetrated without even a pretence of justice. The beauty, the magnanimity and the sufferings of this unfortunate woman excited universal compassion : and the unaffected agonies of remorse and terror displayed by the *maiden queen*, ascertain, were other evidence wanting, the innocence and popularity of her defenceless victim.

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 showing some abilities in the government to Scotland. This union of the two crowns impoverished the people of Scotland, and destroyed their independency. 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 pacific and not unprosperous reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1635, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his despotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottish and his 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 unsuccessful attempts to restore his son, Charles II. That prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester, 1651, after which, to the time of his restoration, the commonwealth of England, and the protector, gave law to Scotland*.

The storms, which had discomposed the ancient constitution of England, had fallen with still greater violence on Scotland. The indignity of a foreign yoke had been added to the other misfortunes of the Scottish nation ; and their spirit seemed to have vanished with their independence. The flattering circumstance of giving a king to their ancient enemies had greatly diminished the martial ardour, which their ancestors derived from a state of almost continual hostilities ; while the weight which England threw into the scale of the crown, enabled the sovereign to extend to a kind of tyranny what formerly was a very limited power. The enthusiasm which Calvinism introduced among the vulgar, raised their confidence without preserving their intrepidity. They lost their reverence for authority in spiritual pride ; and the nobles, finding themselves no longer followed or obeyed, sunk into the superstition of the mob, to recover a part of their power. The whole series of public

* Here ends the Scotch history in the London edition of 1792. The remainder has been compiled by the American editor, principally from Macpherson's history.

events in the reign of Charles the second, forms a melancholy attestation of the justice of these remarks. On the restoration of monarchy, it was a debate in the court of London, whether the Scots should be restored to their independence, or retained under the yoke imposed by Cromwell. Charles inclined to the ancient constitution of government, and a parliament assembled at Edinburgh in the end of the year 1660. Their proceedings may be cited as an example of the vilest dregs of despotism. The authority of the crown was restored in its utmost extent. An additional revenue of forty thousand pounds was granted to the king for life. All the acts which limited the prerogative were repealed. All acts of parliament passed since the year 1633, were rescinded. The presbyterian system of church government was virtually dissolved by this act; and the fabric of despotism was cemented with blood. The earl of Argyle was condemned and executed, as was likewise Guthrie, a preacher of uncommon petulance. The civil affairs of Scotland were managed with precision. Disorder and oppression prevailed in her religious concerns. The fanaticism of the vulgar induced vast numbers of them to adhere to the covenant, and the persecutions and insurrections which followed, compose almost the only materials for a history of this miserable reign. Charles, whose indolence has been strangely mistaken for humanity, was himself one of the most unprincipled and unfeeling of mankind. His Scottish ministry were altogether worthy of such a sovereign. A high commission was instituted for enforcing the rigorous laws against dissenters. The civil power enforced by its authority the decrees of this court of inquisition. The people, inflamed by oppression, rose in the western counties. Ill armed and worse conducted, they advanced to Edinburgh; and in a tumultuary skirmish, were defeated at Pentland-hills, on the 28th of November, 1666. Uncommon severities followed. Ruinous fines were imposed on those presbyterians, who met to worship in private houses; but field preachers and their hearers were declared to be punishable with death. Political misery was seen in every form. The year 1676 added the infamy of burning old women for witchcraft, to other acts of barbarous despotism.

In 1679, archbishop Sharpe, one of the leaders of the persecution against the presbyterians, was murdered. He had formerly been a presbyterian, but had first betrayed, and then deserted his party. An insurrection in the month of June of this year, was suppressed by the duke of Monmouth, who defeated the malecontents at Bothwell bridge. In 1681, a new test was passed by the Scottish parliament, which all persons in the service of government were compelled to take. This test being ill conceived, and worse expressed, contained many glaring contradictions, and gross absurdities. The earl of Argyle was at this time tried and condemned for high treason under the auspices of the duke of York, who resided in Scotland. The accusation was founded on the most frivolous pretences. The earl escaped into Holland. His estate was forfeited; the whole nation was divided into two religious parties. The high-churchmen possessed the whole power of government, and levelled its whole force against persons whose desperate zeal ought to have been the object of pity rather than of punishment. Charles died of an apoplexy on the 6th of February 1685, and the earl of Argyle soon after landed in Scotland. A feeble and ill-managed insurrection conducted him to the block. Such of his adherents as fell into the hands of government were pardoned and dismissed, an act of mercy which exhibits a striking contrast to the treatment of the rebels in England, who were defeated a few weeks after under the duke of Monmouth.

In April 1686, James called a parliament, and under pretence of unlimited toleration, wanted to secure to the Roman Catholics an undisturbed exercise of their religion. The idea was too liberal and philosophical for the seventeenth century. This proposal was rejected in the same spirit of bigotry with which it was demanded. A profusion of promises were made by the earl of Moray, his majesty's commis-

sioner, as to the security of political freedom, and commercial advantages ; but no temporal motive could induce these zealots to suffer any degree of indulgence to the Roman Catholics. The impatience of James to patronise his favourite religion, overleaped this feeble barrier. On the 18th of February 1687, a proclamation was issued at Edinburgh, granting a general toleration to all religious sects, suspending all penal and disabling laws, annulling and discharging all oaths by way of test, and breaking down all distinctions between subject and subject. This measure was not acceptable even to the persecuted presbyterians. James had, since his accession to the crown, relaxed in a great degree the severity of his government. But he employed Roman Catholics, as his principal agents in the administration of the kingdom. This weakness afforded universal offence. The prince of Orange had emissaries in the country, who were forward in exciting discontent ; and the injuries which the presbyterians, who composed the great body of the nation, had received in a series of twenty four years, were too numerous and too atrocious to be forgotten or pardoned. When the stadtholder, therefore, landed in England, his arrival was announced in the western counties of Scotland with a transport of joy. The indignant voice of the people, like the thunder of omnipotence, was heard with awe from one end of the kingdom to the other. A convention parliament assembled ; and after a farce of opposition, too trivial to deserve a more distinct notice here, the members declared that James had *forefaulted* his right to the crown. The adoption of this word, peculiar to the Scottish idiom, implied that he had forfeited for himself and his posterity, all title to the throne. It is almost needless to add that his daughter Mary, and her husband, the prince of Orange, were declared his successors. There has been much wrangling among the lawyers to determine whether this step was or was not an election.

The Scots had but small reason to rejoice in their change of a master. William was just as fond of power as his predecessor. The lords of the articles had long been deemed, what they plainly were, a nuisance destructive to the first principles of a free parliament ; yet the abolition of that institution could not be obtained from the king. If the nation had acted with any degree of common sense, they would have adopted this, and every other regulation which they regarded as proper, without enquiring for his majesty's opinion.

Graham, viscount of Dundee, determined to oppose the elevation of William. He collected about three thousand Highlanders, and, on the 17th of July 1689, gave battle, at Killcranky, to five thousand of the royal forces. At eight of the clock in the evening, he began the attack at the head of his cavalry. He had no cannon, and only forty pounds weight of powder. But his infantry rushed on the enemy with their broad swords, and their usual intrepidity was attended with their usual success. Two thousand of the regulars were cut to pieces. But Dundee himself was mortally wounded, and he expired next morning. Before his death, he wrote a letter to James, announcing his victory. The prediction of William, who knew his talents, was quickly verified. " The war is at an end," said he, " for Dundee is dead."

Some cabals in favour of the exiled monarch soon after took place, but ended in nothing. On the 13th of February 1692, the memorable massacre of Glenco called forth the astonishment and the horror of Europe. In the preceding August, a proclamation of indemnity had been issued, to such of the adherents of James in Scotland, as should take the oaths to William and Mary before the last day of December. Macdonald of Glenco was prevented by a deep fall of snow from reaching Inverary on that day, to make his submission in a legal manner before the sheriff depute of the county of Argyle. His oath of allegiance was nevertheless accepted : and a captain of Argyle's regiment, with two subalterns, and an hundred and twenty soldiers, were received some time after as guests in the village of Glenco, with all

that hospitality for which the Scotch highlanders have long been celebrated. What follows is a picture in miniature of the massacre of Paris ; and William is distinguished from Charles the ninth rather by the extent than the humanity of his operations. The officers, on the very night of the massacre, passed the evening at cards, in Macdonald's house. In the night, a party of soldiers called in a friendly manner at his door. They were instantly admitted. Macdonald, as he was rising from his bed to receive his guests, was shot through the back. His wife was stript naked by the soldiers, who tore the rings off her fingers with their teeth. Neither age nor infirmity was spared. Some women, in defending their children, were killed. Boys, imploring mercy, were shot by officers on whose knees they hung. In one place, nine persons, as they sat enjoying themselves at table, were shot dead by the assassins. Several who fled to the mountains, perished of cold and hunger. Four hundred men, who had been detached to intercept such fugitives as might escape immediate slaughter, entered the valley next day. They carried off the cattle and other spoil, and reduced the houses to ashes. It is to be observed, that the orders for this massacre were signed, above and below, with the hand of William *of glorious memory*.

The memory of this catastrophe was, however, in some part obliterated by another of a more extensive kind. One Paterfon, who had been the chief instrument in establishing the bank of England, had framed a mercantile project on a more comprehensive scale for Scotland. Such English merchants, as had been hitherto disappointed in their schemes of forming a new East India company, gave their consent to his plan. The scheme was to establish one settlement at Darien on the east side of the isthmus of America, and another on the opposite side, toward the South sea. This plan was laid before the king, and instructions were prepared and signed, empowering his majesty's commissioner to the Scottish parliament, to give his assent to any bill for the encouragement of trade. The bait was greedily seized. The bill was the price of the blood shed at Glenco, and tended in some measure to soothe the discontents of the people. On the 14th of December 1695, the English house of peers sent down to the commons an address to the king against this act passed in favour of the Scots. The commons concurred with the peers. The two houses attended the king with their address. His answer was, " that he had been ill served in Scotland ; but that he hoped some remedy might be found to the evil, of which they complained." The commons, in the full spirit of usurpation, voted that the directors of the Scottish company should be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors. What right had they to interfere in the commercial concerns of an independent nation, or what would they have said, had the Scottish parliament impeached the directors of the bank of England ? On the continent of Europe, and, in particular, at Hamburgh and in Holland, the most perfidious artifices were employed to blast the credit of the Scottish company ; the most villainous falsehoods were propagated by his majesty's envoys with impunity and with triumph. They even disowned the authority of the acts of parliament and the letters patent, upon which the company was founded.

On the 17th of July 1698, a body of colonists sailed from the Frith of Forth, and arrived at the isthmus of America. They purchased from the natives a right of settlement, and disembarked on the 4th of November. They were, however, proscribed by the king and his English parliament. The governors of English colonies in North America, and the West Indies, were prohibited from giving them the least assistance, upon any account whatever. It is hardly possible for the human mind to conceive a more infamous transaction. The company had been constituted by a royal charter ; and a society of men acting under the sanction of royal authority, were treated as exiles and criminals by the public officers of that very government. The adventurers were attacked by the Spaniards in their new settlement, and were almost extirpated by the sword, by want, and by the diseases of the

climate. The treachery of their Dutch deliverer excited in Scotland an excess of indignation, but the storm fell by degrees. Five hundred thousand pounds were squandered on this romantic and disastrous expedition.

This tragical scene, however, is trifling when compared with another, which has been recorded with less clamorous lamentation. During the war with France, a famine broke out in Britain, which lasted for four years. Provisions were in England double, and in Scotland, quadruple their common price. In one year, eighty thousand Scots perished of hunger. A tenth part of the expense of one of the campaigns would have saved that island from so dreadful a curse. In Aberdeenshire, the consequences of this famine may still be traced. Whole families expired together, and the boundaries of deserted farms were forgotten. To ascertain them is at this day sometimes an object of dispute. The land bears the marks of the plough ; but, having been so long neglected, has relapsed into its original state of barrenness ; and is now covered with heath, among which may be discovered the remains of the dwelling houses of the exterminated inhabitants. These extraordinary circumstances, unobserved by any former writer, we give on the information of dr. Anderson, a gentleman long and justly respected in the literary world.

The next remarkable event in the history of Scotland is the union of the two kingdoms. This project was, by a very singular fatality, extremely unpopular in both nations. To enter into a detail of the obliquities of this business, would extend the present article beyond its proper limits. It was found requisite for the convenience of a few political leaders, and was accomplished by a scene of corruption, which would not have disgraced the experience or abilities of a Walpole.

The whole negotiation bears on its very face the stamp of iniquity. The utmost care was employed to conceal its infant progress from the Scottish nation, and the bargain was at last patched up with the utmost precipitation and secrecy in the Scottish parliament. The public were inflamed into a transport of fury, but as nothing less than a revolt could dissolve it, the Scots wisely chose to shun the horrors of a civil war. It is plain, however, that the treaty was in itself altogether illegal. It exactly resembles the sale of an estate without the consent or knowledge of its owner. The Scotch members of parliament had been authorised by their constituents to assemble for the common business of the nation ; instead of which, they clandestinely transferred its independence to the best bidder. Some of those who had been the most forward in promoting the union, were, not long after, equally solicitous to dissolve it ; but this idea was attended with numerous difficulties, and was therefore laid aside. It would be rash to affirm, that the union was, upon the whole, unfortunate for Scotland ; and it is equally absurd, to ascribe to this event, as some writers do, every subsequent advance which that country has made with regard to its internal prosperity.

From the union downwards, the history of Scotland becomes so intimately blended with that of England, that they can hardly be distinctly treated with propriety. In 1715, a rebellion was excited by the despotic insolence of the whig ministers of George the first. On his majesty's accession, a loyal address of congratulation to the throne, was drawn up and signed by above an hundred Highland chieftains. This piece had been intercepted and suppressed in its way to the king, who was taught to consider the enemies of his ministers, as his own. The pride of the addressers was offended at the supposed neglect of their sovereign, and a civil war ensued. Even the earl of Mar had made the most humiliating advances to George the first ; but meeting with a repulse, he was driven by despair, to the wretched expedient of taking arms. The address of the Highland gentlemen lay concealed from, and unknown to, the world for many years, but has lately been published by the present earl of Buchan, to whom the republic of letters is under considerable obligations.

The next event in the history of Scotland, which claims our notice, is the mob, or rather conspiracy, which ended in hanging John Porteous, one of the captains of the city guard of Edinburgh. In 1736, at the execution of a smuggler, this ruffian had been pelted by the rabble, to whom he was odious. Without farther ceremony, he instantly returned this mark of distinction by a volley of musket balls. His soldiers, unwilling to embroil their hands in the blood of their fellow citizens, raised the muzzles of their pieces, and fired over the heads of the croud. But unhappily a number of people were killed or wounded, who had been looking from their windows at the execution. Porteous was immediately arrested, tried, convicted, and condemned to be hanged. George the second was on one of his trips to Hanover; but a reprieve was obtained from queen Caroline. The inhabitants of Edinburgh were determined, however, not to be disappointed of their vengeance by such a questionable act of clemency. At ten o'clock in the evening, they assembled in large numbers, and with great deliberation seized and shut the city gates, to prevent interruption from some troops which were quartered in the suburbs. At the same time they surrounded and disarmed the city guard, which probably required no violent exertion. They next broke open the doors of the prison, dragged the prisoner to the common place of execution, and hanged him. This affair, in itself of little consequence, becomes more so, because it served to show the Scottish nation the insignificance or rather meanness of their condition. A reward of two hundred pounds was offered for the discovery of any one of the offenders, and every minister was enjoined to read a proclamation to this purpose on Sunday after sermon, to his parishioners, for a whole year. This command was evidently a wanton act of despotism, and was very badly observed. Porteous, himself, had deserved a gibbet by almost every action of his life; and his destiny was at worst an irregular, but striking act of justice. No discovery could be made, concerning the affair; and this additional mark of the sentiments of the public still farther exasperated the forebodings of female pride, and the malevolence of national antipathy. Lord Carteret, in the house of peers, proposed, to forfeit the charter of Edinburgh. And a bill passed both houses, and received the royal assent, for inflicting an exemplary vengeance on that city. But as the measure had been opposed with uncommon spirit, the business was suffered to fall to the ground.

In 1745, a second rebellion was excited by the grandson of James the second. At the head of three or four thousand half-armed mountaineers, he advanced as far as Derby, and even defeated the royal forces in several engagements. His military career was terminated by the battle, or rather, the massacre, of Culloden. Almost the whole of the rebels were exterminated, and among other stupendous acts of atrocity, between thirty and forty of these miserable wretches, who escaped the carnage of the field, and had been admitted as prisoners, were some days after put to the bayonet in a barn, when their wounds had received a second dressing. A detail of enormities of this kind is to be found in Smollet's history of England, and Arnet's history of Edinburgh; to these writers we must refer the reader for farther particulars on this shocking subject.

From sir John Sinclair's history of the public revenue it appears, that considerably more than a million sterling is annually produced by the taxes of all kinds; and that of this sum, after deducting the total expense of the civil and military establishments, about seven hundred thousand pounds are annually sent to England. Prodigious sums are also constantly transmitted to that country, for manufactures of every kind, and the residence of great numbers of the nobility and gentry of Scotland at London, is another drawback on its wealth and prosperity.

Some recent attempts have been made in Scotland to excite in the people a spirit for reformation. Political topics have been treated with much boldness and ingenuity in a variety of newspapers and pamphlets; and on the other hand, numer-

ous prosecutions have been commenced against the authors, printers, and book-sellers. Mr. Sheridan lately observed, in a speech in the house of commons, that the people of Scotland had about as much influence in the government of Britain, as the miners of Siberia had in the government of Russia. The parallel is perfectly just ; but what is to be the sequel of the present discontents, time only can determine.

E N G L A N D.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 380 }	between	{ 50 and 56 North latitude.
Breadth 300 }		{ 2 East and 6-20 West longitude.

CLIMATE AND } **T**HE longest day, in the northern parts, contains 17 hours
BOUNDARIES. } 30 minutes ; and the shortest, in the southern, near 8 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. It contains 49,450 square miles.

This situation, by the sea washing it on three sides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather ; so that the inhabitants on part of the sea-coasts are often visited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the same degree of latitude, are subject : and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, especially those who live on a dry soil. 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, } Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology
ANCIENT AND MODERN. } of the word *England* : some derive it from a Celtic word, signifying a level country ; but I prefer the common etymology, of its being derived from Anglen, a province now subject to his Danish majesty, which poured a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into the 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 to 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*, and was inhabited by the old natives of England, who were driven thither by the Romans.

When these conquerors provinciated England, they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the southern parts of the kingdom ;
2. Britannia Secunda, containing the western parts, Wales included ; and,
3. Maxima Cæsariensis, 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 Cæsariensis, which they suppose to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England, about the year 450, and established themselves there, in the year 532, their leaders, after the manner of the other northern

conquerors, appropriated the countries which each had been the most active in acquiring; and the whole formed a heptarchy, consisting of seven kingdoms.

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

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Kent founded by Hengist in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent	Canterbury.
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suffex Surry	Chichester Southwark.
3. East Angles, founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk Suffolk Cambridge The Isle of Ely	Norwich Bury St. Edmund's Cambridge Ely.
4. West-Saxons, founded by Cerdic in 512, and ended in 1060.	Cornwall Devon Dorset Somerſet Wilts Hants Berks Lancaster York Durham Cumberland Westmoreland Northumberland, and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh	Launceſton Exeter Dorcheſter Bath Salisbury Wincheſter Abingdon. Lancaster York Durham Carlisle Appleby
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792.		Newcastle.
6. East-Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746.	Effex Middleſex, and part of Hertford The other part of Hertford	London.
	Glouceſter Hereford Worceſter Warwick Leiceſter Rutland Northampton Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Buckingham Oxford Stafford Derby Salop Nottingham Cheſter	Hertford Glouceſter Hereford Worceſter Warwick Leiceſter Oakham Northampton Lincoln Huntingdon Bedford Ayleſbury Oxford Stafford Derby Shrewſbury Nottingham Cheſter.
7. Mercia, founded by Crida in 582, and ended in 874.		

I have been the more solicitous to preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and many very essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from different Saxon institutions. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, except Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital. These circuits are :

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit.	Essex	Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford	Hertford, St. Alban's, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Bishop's-Stortford, Berkhamsted, Hemsted, and Barnet.
	Kent	Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feverham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerness, Tunbridge, Margate, Gravesend, and Milton.
	Surry	Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, Richmond, Wandsworth, Battersea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagshot, Egham, and Dorking.
	Suffex	Chichester, Lewes, Rye, East-Grinstead, Hastings, Horsham, Midhurst, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelsea, Battel, Brighthelmstone, and Petworth.
2. Norfolk circuit.	Bucks	Aylesbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great Marlow, Stoney Stratford, and Newport Pagnel.
	Bedford	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunstable, Luton, Biggleswade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmanchester, St. Neot's, Ramsey, and Yaxley.
	Cambridge	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royston, and Wisbech.
	Suffolk	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leostoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Haleworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Easterbergholt.
3. Oxford circuit.	Norfolk	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, and Yarmouth.
	Oxon	Oxford, Banbury, Chipping-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorchester, Woodstock, and Tame.
	Berks	Abingdon, Windsor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Gloucester	Gloucester, Tewkesbury, Cirencester, part of Bristol, Campden, Stow, Berkeley, Dursley, Leechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, and Marshfield.
	Worcester	Worcester, Evesham, Droitwich, Bewdley, Stourbridge, Kidderminster, and Pershore.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
3. Oxford Circuit continued.	Monmouth	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford	Hereford, Lemster, Weobley, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Ross.
	Salop	Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Bishop's Castle, Whitchurch, Oswestry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcastle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Uttoxeter, and Stone.
	Warwick	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulcester, Nuneaton, and Atherton.
	Leicester	Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, Ashby-de-la-Zouch, Bosworth, and Harborough.
	Derby	Derby, Chesterfield, Wirksworth, Ashbourne, Bakewell, Balsover, and Buxton.
4. Midland Circuit.	Nottingham	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, East and West Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Worktop, and Blithe.
	Lincoln	Lincoln, Stamford, Boston, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimsby, Gainfborough, Louth, and Horncastle.
	Rutland	Oakham and Uppingham.
	Northampton	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapston, Towcester, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
	Hants	Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumsey, Arlesford, and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the isle of Wight.
	Wilts	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminster.
	Dorset	Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftsbury, Poole, Blandford, Bridgeport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
5. Western Circuit.	Somerset	Bath, Wells, Bristol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilchester, Minehead, Milbourn port, Glastonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunster, Wacket, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Croscomb, and Froome.
	Devon	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstable, Biddeford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, Topsham, Okehampton, Ashburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totness, Axminster, Plympton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall	Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Saltash, Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padstow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leskard, Lestwithiel, Helston, Penzance, and Redruth.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
6. Northern circuit.	York	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, Burlington, Knaresborough, Barnsley, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaster, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirke, Gifborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
	Durham	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard-castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Auckland.
	Northumb.	Newcastle, Tinmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaster	Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkhead, and Newton.
	Westmorel.	Appleby, Kendal, Lonsdale, Kirkby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, and Milthorpe.
	Cumberland	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglass, Egremont, Kefwick, Workington, and Jerby.

Middlesex is not comprehended ; and Cheshire, being a county palatine, enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Counties not included in the circuits.	Middlesex	LONDON, first meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton-Court.
	Chester	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandach, Congleton, Knotford, Frodisham, and Haulton.

C I R C U I T S O F W A L E S.

Circuits.		Chief Towns.
North-east circuit.	Flint	Flint, St. Asaph, and Holywell.
	Denbigh	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgomery	Montgomery, Llanvyllyn, and Welchpool.
North-west circuit.	Anglesey	Beaumaris, Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullilly.
	Merioneth	Dolgelly, Bala, and Harlegh.
South-east circuit.	Radnor	Radnor, Prestean, and Knighton.
	Brecon	Brecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swansea.
South-west circuit.	Pembroke	St. David's, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Tenby, Fiscard, and Milfordhaven.

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
South-west circuit continued.	{ Cardigan Caermarth. }	{ Cardigan, Aberistwith, and Llanbadarn-vawer. Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanidmoverly, Llandilobawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy.

In E N G L A N D.

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

W A L E S.

12 Counties	12 knights.
12 Boroughs (Pembroke two, Merioneth none),	12 burgeses.

S C O T L A N D.

33 Shires	30 knights.
67 Cities and boroughs	15 burgeses.

Total 558

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, Norwich, Worcester, and the towns of Kingston upon Hull, and Newcastle upon Tyne, are counties of themselves, distinct from those in which they lie. The same may be said of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and hath within its jurisdiction a small territory of two miles on the north side of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained: for every borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is so called, because it sends up burgeses 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 absolutely annihilated, like Old Sarum, which does not contain even a single house, they send burgeses to parliament. In other words, they are sent by the proprietor of the estate, in which those nominal boroughs are situated; so that in fact, such members represent nobody. This abuse has, of late, begun to excite universal attention in England. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at present hath, a bishop; for if the bishopric be dissolved, yet the city remains.

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 their respective inhabitants have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marshes, and many other local improvements, which are there carried to a

much greater degree of perfection than they are in most other parts of the world, if we except China. We cannot enter upon particular proofs of these improvements. All that can be said, is in general, that if no unkindly seasons happen, England produces corn, not only sufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring in large sums of ready money for her exports. The benefits from these exports have sometimes tempted the inhabitants to carry out of the kingdom more grain than could be conveniently spared; for which reason exportations have been regulated; but whether the bounty on exportation is advantageous, has been violently contested. No nation exceeds England in the productions of the garden, which have come to such perfection, that the rarest of foreign fruits have been cultivated there with success. If any farther proof of this should be required, let it be remembered, that London and its neighbourhood, though peopled by 1,000,000 of inhabitants, are plentifully supplied with all kinds of fruits and vegetables from grounds within a few miles distance.

As to air, little can be added to what has been already said concerning the climate. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours, wafted from the Atlantic ocean; but these are ventilated by winds and storms, so that in this respect England is, to foreigners, and people of delicate constitutions, rather disagreeable than unhealthy. The weather is excessively capricious, and so unfavourable to certain constitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to repair to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

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

The champaign parts of England are generally supplied with excellent springs and fountains; though a distinguishing 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 Cheltenham, Tunbridge, Epsom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea water is used as commonly as any other, for medicinal purposes.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY } The industry of the English supplies the absence of
AND MOUNTAINS. } those favours which nature has so lavishly bestowed
upon some foreign climates, and in many respects even exceeds them. No country

in the world can exceed the cultivated parts of England in beautiful scenes. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently swelling, and both forming prospects surpassing the pictures of fancy ; the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of enclosures and plantations, the noble seats, cheerful villages, and well-stocked farms, often rising in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the most vivid colours of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by description. The most barren spots are not without their verdure ; but nothing can better prove the extent of English industry, than observing that some of the pleasanter counties in the kingdom are naturally the most barren, but rendered fruitful by labour.

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

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty, as well as its opulence. The Thames rises on the confines of Gloucestershire, a little S. W. of Cirencester, and after receiving many streams of other rivers, it passes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Marlow, and Windsor ; from thence to Kingston, where it formerly met the tide, which, since the building of Westminster-bridge, is said to flow no higher than Richmond ; then 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. It was formerly a reproach to England, among foreigners, that so capital a river should have so few bridges ; those of London and Kingston being the only two it had, from the Nore to the last mentioned place. This inconveniency was in some measure owing to the dearth of materials for building stone bridges ; but perhaps more to the fondness which the English, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increase of riches, commerce, and inland trade, is now multiplying bridges, and the world cannot surpass, for commodiousness, architecture, and workmanship, those lately erected at Westminster and Black Friars. Battersea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton and Hampton-court have now bridges likewise over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-spirited proprietors of the grounds on both sides. The river Medway, which rises near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable for the largest ships as far as Chatham.

The Severn, reckoned the second river for importance in England, and the first for rapidity, rises at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales, becomes navigable at Welch-Pool, runs east to Shrewsbury, then, turning south, visits Bridgenorth, Worcester, and Tewkesbury, where it receives the Upper Avon ; after having passed Gloucester, it takes a south-west direction, is, near its mouth, increased by the Wye and Ustre, and discharges itself into the Bristol-channel, near King-road ; 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, first, the Ouse, which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouse rises in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tine runs from west to

east through Northumberland, and falls into the German sea at Tinmouth, below Newcastle. The Tees runs from west to east, dividing Durham from Yorkshire, and falls into the German sea below Stockton. The Eden runs from south to north through Westmoreland and Cumberland, and passing by Carlisle, falls into Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs west through Wiltshire to Bath, and then dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, runs to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent runs from east to west through Cumberland, and, passing by Cockermouth, falls into the Irish sea a little below. The Ribble runs from east to west through Lancashire, and, passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish sea; the Mersey 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. 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 were, in former ages, frequent in England. The chief lakes remaining are Soham mere, Wittlesea mere, and Ramsay mere, in the isle of Ely, in Cambridgeshire. These meres in a rainy season unite, and form a lake of forty or fifty miles in circumference. The northern counties of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire, contain several small lakes, which are remarkable for their beauty. The various disposition of their banks, sometimes cultivated, often covered with wood, or enlivened by herds, the intermixture of hill and dale, rude rocks and green mountains, render the scenery of this part of England scarcely inferior to that of Switzerland or Italy.

FORESTS.] The first Norman kings of England converted immense tracts of grounds into forests, for the amusement 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 a 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 tracts were disforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than sixty-nine, are those of Windsor, New Forest, Dean, and Sherwood. These forests produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash, and beech, besides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times, England contained large forests of chesnut trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber for the purposes of building, as appears from many great houses still standing, in which the chesnut beams and roofs remain fresh and undecayed, though some of them are above 600 years old.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall are the principal. They were known to the Greeks and Phœnicians, the latter especially, some ages before the christian æra; and since the English have manufactured their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immense benefit to the nation. An ore, called mundic, is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded till about eighty years ago. Sir Gilbert Clark discovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is said now to bring in 150,000*l.* a year, and to equal in goodness the best Spanish copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calimmaris for making brass. Those tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the stan-nary laws; and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The Cornish miners have been reported to amount to the incredible number of 100,000. Some gold has likewise been discovered in Cornwall, and the lead is impregnated with silver. The English coined silver is particularly known by roses, and that of Wales, by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonshire, and other counties of England produce marble; but the best kind which resembles Egyptian granite, is excessively hard to work. Quarries of free-stone are found in many

places. Northumberland and Cheshire yield alum and salt. The English fuller's earth is of such consequence to the clothing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under severe penalties. Pit or sea-coal is found in many counties of England : but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the bishopric of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coal to other countries is very considerable. It is affirmed that they might be found in the vicinity of the metropolis.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRO- } Nothing can be said with any certainty concern-
DUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } ing the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, pease,
beans, vetches, oats, and other grains growing in the kingdom. Institutions for the improvement of agriculture are now common in England, and their members commonly print periodical accounts of their discoveries and experiments, which serve to show that agriculture and gardening may be carried to a much higher state of perfection. Honey and saffron are natives of England. Apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulan productions, grow there, and large quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in some counties. The cyder of Devon and Herefordshire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is by many preferred to French white wine. The English have made the different fruits of the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, but often by hot beds and other artificial means. The English pine apples are delicious. The same may be said of other natives of the East and West Indies, Persia, and Turkey. English grapes are pleasing to the taste, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making wine ; and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raised there. The kitchen gardens abound with all sorts of greens, roots, and salads.

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

With regard to ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, 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 Welch cattle, after grazing in English pastures. The English horses are the best in the world. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the success has been answerable ; for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Persian, Arabian, Spanish, and other foreign horses. The irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry render them formidable in war : and an English hunter will make incredible exertions in a fox or stag-chace. Those which draw equipages in the streets of London are often particularly beautiful. The exportation of horses has become a considerable article of commerce. The breed of asses and mules begins likewise to be improved and encouraged in England.

The English sheep are generally divided into two kinds ; those that are valuable for their fleece, and those that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces constitute the original staple commodity of England. In some counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in those of their horses and dogs ; and in Lincolnshire particularly, it is not uncommon for one of those animals to sell for 50*l*. It is thought that in England, twelve millions of fleeces are shorn annually, which at a medium of 2*s*. a fleece, makes 1,200,000*l*. The other kind of sheep which are fed upon the Downs, where they have what the farmers call a short bite, is little inferior in flavour and sweetness to venison.

English mastiffs and bull-dogs are said to be the strongest and fiercest of the canine species ; but, either from the change of soil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two English bull-dogs upon one of the fiercest lions in the tower, and they soon conquered him. The mastiff has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly distinguished for his fidelity and docility. All the different species of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domestic uses, are to be found in England. What is observed of the degeneracy of the English dogs in foreign countries is applicable to the English game cocks, which afford much barbarous diversion to sportsmen. The courage of these birds is astonishing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive, without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this animal are extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are much the same in England as in other countries ; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, such as cocks, pullets and capons, geese, swans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild sort are bustards, wild geese, wild ducks, teal, widgeon, plover, pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, grouse, quail, landrail, 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 salmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, smelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and crawfish, besides a delicate lake-fish, called char, which is found in some fresh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and, as some say, no where else. The sea-fish are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, skate, soles. The John Dory, found towards the western coast, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fish are found on the same coasts. As to shell-fish, they are chiefly oysters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobsters, crabs, shrimps, and escallops, one of the most delicious of shell fishes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muscles, with many other 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. The English have been, perhaps, with great justice, accused of not paying proper attention to their fisheries. The best fish that comes to the tables of the great in London is sold by the Dutch to the English boats, and that industrious people even take them upon the English coasts. Great attention, it is true, has been paid within these forty years past to this important concern. Many public-spirited noblemen and gentlemen formed themselves into a company for carrying on a British fishery. Large sums were subscribed, and paid with unbounded generosity. Busses and other vessels were built, and the most pleasing prospects of success presented themselves to the public. But they were disappointed.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MAN- } With regard to political calculations,
NERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } they must be very fallible when applied to
England. The prodigious influx of foreigners, the emigrations of natives to the colonies, their return from thence, and the great number of hands employed in shipping, are circumstances which render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, I am apt to think that England is more populous than the estimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain, before the last, annually employed about two hundred thousand Englishmen, exclusive of Scots and Irish, by sea and land ; and its progress carried off, by various means, very

near that number. The decay of population was, indeed, sensibly felt, but not so much as during the wars in queen Anne's reign ; though not half of the numbers were then employed in the sea and land service. At the same time, I am not of opinion, that England is at present naturally more populous than she was in the reign of Charles I. though she is accidentally so. The English of former ages were strangers to the excessive use of spiritous liquors, and other modes of living destructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vast quantities of cultivated lands in England, since those times, it might reasonably be presumed, would be favourable to mankind ; but this advantage has been said to be more than counterbalanced by the practice of engrossing farms. That the population of England has for a long time past been increasing with rapidity is now ascertained beyond all contradiction. Decisive evidences are collected by George Chalmers, esq. in his Comparative Estimate. The increase of people by emigration is evident from the numerous foreign names upon the parish books, and public lists, compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

The number of inhabitants in England and Wales must exceed seven millions. Some may suppose this to be too large a calculation ; and it must be admitted, that England has been exceedingly drained by the late war. From the continual accession of strangers, and other obvious causes, it is impossible to estimate the population of London by rules derived from the proportions of births and burials. Besides, at the very gates of that metropolis, 100,000 inhabitants are not included in the bills of mortality.

Englishmen, in their persons, are generally well sized, regularly featured, and most commonly fair and florid in their complexions. The women, in their shapes, features, and complexions, appear so graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. Of all European nations, next to the Swiss and the Dutch, 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 ; hence before the practice of inoculation for the small pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathsome disease by its true name in any polite company. This over-sensibility has been considered as one of the sources of those singularities, which so strongly characterise the English nation. They sometimes magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves ; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution or constancy of mind. In short, many of the English feel, as if it really existed, every evil in mind, body, and estate, which they form in their imagination. At particular intervals, they are sensible of this absurdity, and run into a contrary extreme, striving to banish it by dissipation, riot, intemperance, and diversions. They are fond, for the same reason, of convivial associations ; and when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cures for the mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

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. 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 which they visit, but sometimes also for the purposes of society, and at more advanced periods 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 visit them ; and the effects of this intercourse become daily more visible, especially since it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex.

English noblemen and gentlemen, who do not strike into high walks of life, affect rather what is called a snug way of living. They understand, as well as any people in the world, conveniency in their houses, gardens, equipages, and estates, which they spare no cost to purchase; it has, however, been observed, that this turn renders them less communicative than they ought to be; but, on the other hand, the few connexions which they form, are often sincere, cheerful, and indissoluble. The like habits descend into the lower ranks, and are discernible among tradesmen. A good economist, with a brisk run of trade, is frequently, when turned of fifty, 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, for the most part, suited to his circumstances.

Few people know better than tradesmen, and men of business in England, how to pay court to their customers and employers. Those arts they consider only as the means of acquiring that independence, the pride of which too often leads them into a contrary extreme. This carries them to that petulance, which is so offensive to strangers, and which, though encouraged, through the want of education, has its root in noble principles, badly understood, and in that right which the laws of England give to every man over his own property.

The humanity of the English is discovered in nothing more than in the subscriptions for public charities. An Englishman is susceptible of all the pains which a fellow-creature suffers, and poor and miserable objects are relieved in England with a liberality, that often proves 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 institutions of extra-parochial infirmaries, hospitals, and the like, are in some cases reprehensible. The sums bestowed on building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of physicians, who thereby acquire credit, which is the same as profit, beget heat and cabals, very different from the purposes of disinterested charity, owing to the attachments and prepossessions of friends, and even to party considerations. Notwithstanding those 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 punishable.

From an exact statement published by sir John Sinclair, it appears, that in England the poor rates extend to more than two millions sterling per annum. It is not likely, that one half of this sum has at any time been honestly applied to charitable purposes. The managers of the poor's box differ but in the magnitude of their depredations, from the managers of the national exchequer. In that country the vestry of a parish are, in the most alarming sense of the word, "the sons of public rapine;" and a people, in some other respects so jealous of their liberty, submit themselves to be plundered at the discretion of a band of puny despots, who professedly fatten on their spoils. It is hard to say whether the poor rates are most exceptionable in a moral, or in a political point of view. They deserve chiefly to be regarded as a fund for the support of the idle, at the expense of the industrious. The prospect of this resource in old age or sickness, presents to the labouring classes, an irresistible temptation to extravagance and debauchery. Their hopes are frequently disappointed. It is common to entrust the work-houses of a parish to persons, who engage to support the paupers at a certain price, and whose interest, therefore, lies in providing for them as cheaply as possible. A more successful plan could not have been devised for the utter extinction of virtuous sensibility. Neither of the contracting parties can be supposed to give themselves much concern for objects from whom the one reaps nothing but expense and vexation, and whom

the other regards as a branch of merchandise. The situation of the poor under such patronage is often so wretched that they choose to prefer begging in the streets. It sometimes happens that men in decent circumstances are not ashamed to tell their aged or infirm parents, that they must apply to the parish vestry for subsistence, because already paying poor rates, they cannot be expected to maintain double burdens. Such language seldom excites either surprise or compassion. The levying of this strange tax is a source of incessant complaint, and obstinate litigation. The inhabitants of a parish are always anxious to diminish their share of it, by denying that the pauper has obtained a settlement, or, in other words, that he is legally entitled to demand their charity. Millions of lawsuits are engendered to determine to what parish persons of this kind belong; and it is not unusual for two contending vestries to squander upon such a question, ten, fifty, or an hundred times more than the beggar himself could ever have cost either party. A reader who is conversant with English newspapers, must have met with an account of cases, where a wretched victim has been dragged in the depth of winter, upon a cart or wheelbarrow, through perhaps a dozen parishes in succession, without obtaining admittance under a single roof, and who has at last expired of cold and hunger, before the point could be decided, what vestry was obliged by law to relieve him! As the regulations respecting the poor exhibit an abyss of oppression, much has been written to expose their abuses. Lord Kaimes, dr. Davenant, dr. Adam Smith, dr. Wendeborn, dr. Anderson, sir John Sinclair, and a multitude of other intelligent authors, have united to condemn them in the severest style of reprobation. Dr. Franklin, that memorable master of the science of human life, gave it as his opinion that the extravagant sums annually collected in England for the poor, increased at once, their numbers and their misery, and that it might be for the benefit of the nation, if poor rates were forever abolished, and the distribution of charities left entirely to every man's discretion.

In Scotland, poor rates are absolutely unknown, unless in Edinburgh, and perhaps two or three others of the larger towns; and even in these the tax is extremely moderate. Yet itinerant beggars are perhaps less numerous, and certainly for the most part far less clamorous and worthless, than the same class frequently are in England, where a million of poor people are supported at the public expense.* "The lower classes have no anxiety to be frugal or provident; so that when trade becomes dull or scanty, those who maintained themselves by their labour, must either beg, or obtain subsistence for themselves and their families from the parish. The watermen of the Thames, whose gains are very sufficient for their livelihood, when the river is frozen, or covered with shoals of ice, are often seen dragging a boat or little ship, through the streets of London, and soliciting alms of the public."§ The same spirit pervades the whole body of manufacturers in every county of the kingdom. In Scotland, on the contrary, the poorest workman considers it as a kind of disgrace to accept of charity, and he therefore strains every nerve to escape the painful necessity of asking it. This is one of the principal reasons why the labouring part of the poor in North Britain, are remarkably superior in sobriety, docility, and economy, to the same rank on the south of Tweed. A tradesman in any tolerable circumstances, who should suffer his parents to linger in an alms-house, or accept the pittance of an insolent overseer, would himself be avoided and marked out as a monster. Though Scotland is, upon the whole, infinitely less opulent than her southern rival, yet the former country contains much less of what may be strictly termed the last extremity of want and wretchedness. This advantage must, in a great measure, be ascribed to the excellent constitution

* Wendeborn's view of England, vol. I. page 120, 3vo. editio.
Ibid. p. 114,

of the national church, which is founded on the most genuine republican principles. A clergyman there, always finds that his duty and his interest are inseparably connected. He visits in turn every family in his district. He is intimately acquainted with its character, its resources, and its wants. Assisted by a small number of his most respectable parishioners, who are called a synod, he raises, with facility, and by a voluntary contribution, whatever sum is requisite for the relief of the distressed; nor is there a farthing embezzled or misapplied. It is the opinion of many very respectable characters on the north of Tweed, that a greater injury can hardly be done to a country parish, than that of establishing a fund of money for the maintenance of the poor. They assign as a reason, that such a fund holds up a constant object of solicitation, of envy, and of quarrels; and, in those parishes which enjoy it, never fails to multiply mendicant claims in a tenfold proportion to what it is capable of supplying. Let any body compare this picture with an English vestry, its pampered pride, its litigations, its enormous embezzlement and waste of public money, its rapacious exactions from the rich, and its insolence to the poor. Compulsive charity is in all respects totally inferior to the voluntary effusions of human benevolence. A Scottish parochial synod differs from an English vestry, as the frugal and patriotic administrations of Pennsylvania and of Berne, from the job governments of Ireland and of Turkey. The magistrates of a borough in Scotland applied some years ago to the British house of peers for a bill to raise a poor tax. In answer, the lord chancellor Thurlow enquired, whether the people of that country had lost their senses? It is to be hoped that the united states of America will take warning from the example of England; and extirpate this nuisance in the bud; nor, with their eyes open, walk into such a gulph.

The unsuspecting nature of the English, and their blunt manners, especially of those in the mercantile way, often render them dupes. The lowest of the people are capable of generous actions; but they frequently make an ostentatious display of their own merits, which diminishes their value. There is, among persons of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above most other considerations. This offensive habit 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.

The same attention to property operates in many other ways among the lower classes, who think it gives them a right to be rude and disregardful of all about them; nor are the higher orders exempt from the same folly. The same principle often influences their exterior appearances. Noblemen of the first rank have been seen laying bets with butchers and cobblers at horse-races and boxing-matches. Gentlemen and merchants of great property are sometimes not to be distinguished, either by their dress or conversation, even from their servants; and a wager offered to be staked in ready money against a penniless antagonist, has been frequently thought a decisive argument in public company.

An Englishman of education and reading, is often so shy and reserved in his communications, that a person may be in company with him for months, without discovering that he knows any thing beyond the verge of a farm-yard, or above the capacity of a horse-jockey. This coldness is far from being affected, for it is a part of their natural constitution. Learning and genius very seldom find 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 unacquainted 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 to them were but very moderate, and the few who met with preferments in the state

might have earned them by a competent knowledge of business, and that flexibility which the dependents in office generally possess. We scarcely have an instance, even in the 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 300*l.* a year of the public money, to assist him in his travels. 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 Roman catholic. In the war about the Spanish succession, England was indebted for saving her from the ruinous expense of at least one additional campaign, to the pamphlets and diurnal essays of Dr. Swift. From his pen the tory ministry of queen Anne derived the prolongation of their existence. Yet while dunces were preferred over his head, on the negative merit of orthodoxy, this incomparable writer was consigned to an insignificant living. Indeed, a few men of distinguished literary abilities, as well as others without them, have of late received pensions from the crown; but, from the conduct of some of these, 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 in the extreme. In many of their convivial meetings they are noisy, and their wit is often offensive, while the loudest are most applauded. This is particularly the case in large companies; but in smaller and more select parties, all the pleasures of rational conversation, and agreeable society, are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that seems to be congenial to the nation. Boys, before they can speak, discover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fists; a quality that is perhaps peculiar to the English, and is seconded by a strength of arm which few other people can exert. This gives their soldiers an advantage in battles which are to be decided by the bayonet. Their passive courage is not less conspicuous than their active. The English are not remarkable for invention, but for improving the inventions of others; and in the mechanical arts, they excel most other nations. The intense application which they give to a favourite study is incredible, and absorbs all their other ideas. This creates the numerous instances of mental absences that are to be found in the nation.

What I have said concerning the English is to be understood of them in general; for every day produces alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immense acquisitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and, above all, the amazing increase of territory as well as commercial property in the East Indies, have introduced a species of people, who have become rich without industry, and who, by diminishing the value of gold and silver, have created a new system of finances. Hitherto the consequences have been unfavourable, and are likely to be still more so; producing a spirit of luxury and gaming, attended with the most fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders 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 in dress and equipage, and the most expensive amusements and diversions, not only in the capital, but in the trading towns all over the kingdom.

The customs of the English have, since the beginning of this century, undergone a considerable change. Many of their favourite diversions are now disused. Those remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, *ridottos*, and sometimes masquerades in or near London; 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 Englishmen are distractedly fond. 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. Next to horse-racing and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diversion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both classes assemble round the pit at one of those matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of the ferocious animal, every spectator being concerned in a bet, sometimes of high sums. The athletic diversion of cricket is still kept up in many parts of England, and is sometimes practised by people of the highest rank. Many other pastimes are common, and some of a very robust nature, such as cud-gelling, 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 of having carried to what they call perfection. The barbarous diversion of prize-fighting, which was once as frequent in England as the shows of gladiators in Rome, is now prohibited, though often practised; and all places of public diversions, except the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Various diversions, which are common to other countries, such as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, swimming, angling, fowling, coursing, and the like, are familiar to the English. Two kinds are perhaps peculiar to them, and these are rowing and sailing. The latter was patronized and encouraged by his present majesty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be considered as a national improvement. The dreadful game acts have torn from the common people a great fund of diversion, though without answering the purposes of the rich; for the farmers and country labourers very properly destroy the birds in their nests, which they dare not kill with the gun. This despotic monopoly has been often attacked, and as often defended.

The disgraceful practice of boxing continues to be highly popular in England. Thirty, forty, or fifty thousand pounds are sometimes betted among the spectators on the prowess of a favourite champion. Ten thousand persons have been known to travel fifty miles to attend a match of this kind, which is always accompanied by a variety of inferior battles amongst the mob. The price for tickets of admission within the palisadoes is commonly half a guinea, but they are very frequently overturned, in the course of the combat, by the impetuous curiosity of the rabble. The high roads from London to the scene of action are, on such occasions, crowded with carriages and horsemen; and the inns and ale-houses, for a considerable distance round the country, are sure of being overwhelmed with customers. It is usual for the partisans of each combatant to bring cockades in their pockets, which, if he gains the victory, are transferred to their hats. The first nobility and gentry make no scruple to officiate on the stage as umpires, bottle-holders, and seconds. They commence pupils to the "professors of the science of pugilism," and are ambitious of being consulted in settling the terms of a match. One of the various treatises on this *noble* subject has been dedicated to lord Barrymore, with rapturous encomiums on his lordship's proficiency in the art. The antagonists are usually knocked down ten, fifteen, or twenty times before the contest comes to an end; and the present heir to the crown was not long since a by-stander, when a shoemaker was struck dead, at the second round. The printers of the newspapers dispatch emissaries to the spot, and fortunate is he who can obtain by express the most early detail of the particulars of the engagement, which are transferred into the monthly magazines for the edification of the next age.

There is one remarkable difference between the characters of the French and English nations. In the history of the former, the fair sex make a busy and important figure, and have indeed very frequently conducted the van of political transactions.

In the latter country, such influence is seldom or never heard of. In Scotland or Ireland, an Englishman, who behaves properly, may reside to the end of his life without hearing a single national reproach. But one half of the inhabitants of England display the most illiberal contempt for the rest of mankind, that ever distinguished a civilized people. "Some years ago," says dr. Wendeborn, "scarcely any body durst speak French in the streets of London, or in public places, without running the risk of being insulted by the populace, who took any foreign language to be French, and frequently saluted him, who spoke what they did not understand, with the appellation of *French dog*." This practice becomes highly ridiculous, when we reflect that London affords a hospitable rendezvous to half the swindlers, quacks, and adventurers in Europe; nor is there any other nation which, both abroad and at home, affords such numerous and egregious bubbles. On the continent, an English traveller is constantly marked out by landlords, tradesmen, connoisseurs, and fiddlers, as a victim of peculiar imposition; though it is true that these gentry very frequently find themselves mistaken. In the last century, England possessed a very extensive commerce in the Levant, and the polite custom above quoted from dr. Wendeborn, has very likely been imported from the streets of Constantinople, the only other metropolis, at least on the surface of this planet, where it is usual to address strangers with a similar salutation.

DRESS.] In the dress of both sexes, before the 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 other nations, at least with regard to elegance, neatness, and richness of attire. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occasions are incredible, especially since the vast acquisitions of the English in the East Indies. The prince of Wales appeared on a birth-day at court, some time ago, in a suit of clothes, which cost eighty thousand pounds sterling. The 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.

RELIGION.] Christianity was introduced into Britain in the second century, and many of the soldiers and officers in the Roman armies are said to have been christians. John Wickliffe, in the reign of Edward the third, was the first person in that country who publicly opposed the doctrines of the church of Rome. The established church in England is, in its constitution, episcopal, that 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 economy of the church of England has been accused for the inequality of its livings, some of them extending from three to fourteen hundred pounds a year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman, with any tolerable decency, especially if he has a family.

This church 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 archbishops are those of Canterbury and York. The former is the first peer of the realm, as well as metropolitan of the English church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of state. 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, Oxford, Norwich, Gloucester, Peterborough, Bristol; and in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Asaph, and Bangor. The remaining four bishoprics, viz. Chester, Carlisle, Durham, and Sodor and Man, are under the jurisdiction of the archbishop of York, who takes place of all dukes not of the blood royal, and of all officers of state, the lord chancellor excepted.

The archbishop of Canterbury has, by the constitution and laws of England,

such extensive powers, that, ever since the death of Laud, government has thought proper to raise to that dignity men of moderate principles. The archbishop of York has the power of a palatine in Northumberland, and jurisdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The ecclesiastical courts of England are numerous, and their proceedings are remarkably tedious and expensive.

It would be impracticable to attempt in this place, a definition of the articles of faith of the church of England. The subject would require a volume, and might very possibly leave our readers at last in the dark ; as there are frequent and violent disputes among the clergy of the established church themselves, whether a tenet is orthodox or not. It may be sufficient to say, that this church is generally understood to differ less widely, in several points of government and discipline, from that of Rome, than the followers either of Luther or of Calvin ; for which a plain enough reason may be assigned. The reformation was, in most other countries, a work of violence ; but in England it was established by queen Elizabeth with less difficulty than in other kingdoms of Europe ; and she was sufficiently politic to offer as little outrage as possible to the ancient customs. Under the head of reformation, we do not rank the ravages and the crimes of Henry the eighth, a worthless tyrant, who sought only to gratify his abominable passions. The bias which the clergy had towards the old religion in his reign, and that of his son, and even so late as Elizabeth, occasioned an interposition of the civil power for a farther reformation. Thence arose the *puritans*, so called from their maintaining a singular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy, pious men, and some of them good patriots. Their descendants are the modern presbyterians, who retain the same character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty ; but their theological sentiments have undergone a considerable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originally derived from the Geneva plan, instituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of episcopacy, and to vesting the government of the church in a parity of presbyters. But the modern English presbyterians, in their ideas of church-government, differ little from the independents, or congregationalists, who are so called from holding the independency of congregational churches ; and in this sense almost all the *dissenters* in England, are now become *independents*. As to points of doctrine, the presbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of their ministers have greatly distinguished themselves by their learning and abilities, and some of their writings are held in high estimation by the clergy and other members of the established church. The same may be said of some of the independent and baptist-ministers. The independents are generally Calvinists. The baptists do not believe that infants are proper objects of baptism, and, in the baptism of adults, they practise immersion into water. They are divided into two classes, which are styled general 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 capital points in their religion, they consider their differences with the presbyterians, and even with the baptists, as not material to salvation ; nor indeed do many of the established church think that they are strictly and conscientiously bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to subscribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several of them have of late contended in their writings, that all subscriptions to religious systems are repugnant to the spirit of christianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines which were formerly considered in general 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 seve-

ral 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, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitfield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to describe the tenets of this numerous sect. All we know is, that they pretend to great fervour and devotion, and that their founder thought the form of ecclesiastical worship, and prayers, whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference, and he accordingly made use of both these methods. His followers are rigid observers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profess themselves to be Calvinists. But even the sect of methodists is divided—not to mention a variety of subordinate sects (some of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians*) who have their separate followers, but very few in London and other places in England. Mr. Whitfield died some years since; but the places of worship erected by him, near London, are still frequented by persons of the same principles, and they profess a great respect for his memory. The late Mr. Wesley's followers oppose some of the Calvinistic doctrines, particularly that of predestination; but they appear still to retain the greater part. He erected a place of public worship near Moorfields, and had under him a considerable number of preachers, who appeared to submit to their leader implicitly, propagate his opinions, and make profelytes with great industry.

The quakers are a religious sect, which took its rise about the middle of the last century; a summary account of their tenets having been published by themselves, the following is abstracted from it.

“ They believe in one eternal God, the creator and preserver of the universe, and in Jesus Christ his son, the Messiah and mediator of the new covenant.

“ When they speak of the miraculous conception, birth, life, miracles, death, resurrection and ascension of our Saviour, they use scriptural terms, and acknowledge his divinity.

“ To Christ alone they give the title of the word of God, and not to the scriptures, although they highly esteem these sacred writings, in subordination to the Spirit, from which they were given forth.

“ They believe (and it is their distinguishing tenet), that every man coming into the world, is endued with a measure of the light, grace, or good spirit of Christ, by which, as it is attended to, he is enabled to distinguish good from evil, and to correct the corrupt propensities of his nature, which mere reason is altogether insufficient to overcome.

“ They think the influence of the Spirit especially necessary to the performance of worship; and consider as obstructions to pure worship, all forms which divert the attention of the mind from the secret influence of this unction from the Holy One. They think it incumbent on christians to meet often together, and to wait in silence to have a true sight of their condition bestowed upon them; believing even a single sigh arising from such a sense to be more acceptable to God, than any performances, however specious, which originate in the will of man.

“ As they do not encourage any ministry but that which is believed to spring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, so neither do they restrain this influence to persons of any condition in life, or to the male sex alone; but as male and female are one in Christ, they allow such of the female sex, as are endued with a right qualification for the ministry, to exercise their gifts for the general edification of the church.

“ Respecting baptism, and what is termed the Lord's supper, they believe, that the baptism with water, administered by John, belonged to an inferior and decreasing dispensation.

“ With respect to the other rite, they believe that communion between Christ and his church is not maintained by any external performance ; but only by a real participation of his divine nature through faith.

“ They declare against oaths and war ; abiding literally by Christ’s positive injunction, “ Swear not at all.” From the precepts of the gospel, from the example of our Lord, and from his spirit in their hearts, they maintain that wars and fightings are repugnant to the gospel.

“ They disuse the names of the months and days, which were given in honour of the heroes or false gods of the heathens ; and the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen also from motives of adulation. Compliments, superfluity of apparel, and furniture, outward shows of rejoicing, and mourning, and observations of days and times, they esteem to be incompatible with the simplicity and sincerity of a christian life ; and public diversions, gaming, and other vain amusements of the world, they condemn as a waste of time, and diverting the attention of the mind from the sober duties of life.

“ This society hath a discipline established among them, the purposes of which are, the relief of the poor—the maintenance of good order—the support of the testimonies which they believe it is their duty to bear to the world—and the help and recovery of such as are overtaken in faults.

“ It is their decided judgment, that it is contrary to the gospel to sue each other at law. They enjoin all to end their differences by speedy and impartial arbitration according 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 into it a plan of civil and religious liberty, at that time unexampled. The government was at first for many years chiefly in the hands of the quakers, but their pacific doctrines, however beautiful in theory, were found in practice inconsistent with the various exigencies of government. Among other points of dispute, they absolutely refused their concurrence in the law for establishing a militia, which had become inevitably necessary for the safety of the state. A struggle ensued, in which the party for defending the country acquired the ascendancy. Since that time they have no longer, as formerly, the entire management of public affairs, but they continue to possess a considerable share of influence and authority.

Many families in England still profess the Roman catholic religion. The laws against its professors are dreadfully severe, but, as is usual in such cases, they defeat themselves, being seldom put in execution. Some of these laws have been lately repealed, much to the satisfaction of every liberal-minded man, though a vehement outcry was not long after excited against the measure by ignorance and bigotry. This was the pretext of the well-known and fatal riots in London, in 1780, excited by that extraordinary fanatic, lord George Gordon. In the present age of reason and philosophy, such statutes cannot long resist the general alteration of public opinion.

As England has been remarkable for the variety of its religious sects, so it has been famous for its *freethinkers* ; but that term has been applied in very different senses. It has sometimes been used to denote opposers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion ; but it has also been applied to those who have been far from disbelieving christianity, and who have only opposed some of those doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceived to be no part of the original christian system. As to those who are truly *deists*, or *infidels*, there is abundant reason to believe, that this class of men is more numerous in some foreign countries than in England.

LANGUAGE.] The English language is known to be a compound of almost every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon predominates, and the words that are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To describe it abstractedly would be superfluous to an English reader, but relatively it enjoys most of the advantages, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic and manly, than either the French or the Italian ; more copious than the Spanish, and more harmonious than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is, however, subject to 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. 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 Englishmen who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reason why that language is much diffused 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. 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 disencumbrance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its professors ; witness the two universities of Oxford and Cambridge, institutions that are not to be exceeded in the world, and which were respected amidst the barbarous rage of civil war. The industrious Leland, himself a moving library, was the first who published a short collection of the lives and characters of those learned persons, who preceded the reign of his master Henry VIII. among whom he has inserted several of the blood-royal of both sexes, particularly a son and daughter of Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the confessor, and other Saxon princes, some of whom were equally devoted to Mars and the muses.

In speaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable to omit the mention of that prodigy of learning and natural philosophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in science to the great Bacon lord Verulam, as the latter was to sir Isaac Newton. Among the 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. Mr. Walpole has preserved the memory of some royal and noble English authors, who have done honour to learning, and to his 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 his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of classical learning in England. As many of the English clergy had different sentiments in religious matters at the time of the reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to settle in England. Edward VI. during his short life, encouraged these foreigners, and showed dispositions for cultivating the most useful parts of learning ; but this, as well as liberty, suffered an almost total eclipse in England during the bigoted reign of queen

Mary. Elizabeth was herself a learned princess. She advanced many persons of consummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and state ; but she seems to have considered their literary accomplishments as secondary to their civil. 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 till death in obscurity. 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, both liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued till the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Casaubon, and other foreign authors of distinction, even of different principles. He was himself no great author, but his example had an effect upon his subjects ; for in his reign were formed those great masters of polemic divinity, whose works are almost inexhaustible mines of knowledge. Nor must it be forgotten, that the second Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viscount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewise the patron of Camden, and other historians, as well as antiquaries, whose works are still standards in those studies. Upon the whole, it cannot be denied, that English learning is under obligations to James I. though, as he had a very pedantic taste himself, he was the means of diffusing a similar taste among his subjects.

His son, Charles I. cultivated the polite arts, especially sculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artists ; so that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a second Athens ; and the collections which 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 400,000*l.* upon his cabinet of paintings and curiosities.

The earl of Arundel was, however, the great Mæcenæ of that age, and, by his immense acquisitions of antiquities, especially his famous marble inscriptions, he 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 relish for poetry ; but he increased the salary of his poet laureat, Ben Jonson, from 100 marks to 100*l.* per annum, and a tierce of Spanish wine ; which salary is continued to the present time.

The public encouragement of learning and the arts suffered indeed an eclipse, during the time of the civil wars, and the succeeding interregnum. Many learned men, however, found their situations under Cromwell, though he was no stranger to their political sentiments, so easy, that they pursued their studies, to the benefit of every branch of learning ; and many works of literary merit appeared even in those times of distraction. Usher, Walton, Wiles, Harrington, Wilkins, and a number of other great men, were unmolested and even favoured by that usurper ; and he would 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 distinguished by the great proficiency to which natural knowledge was carried, especially by the institution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of those studies. He loved painting and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. *Paradise Lost*, by Milton, was published in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit ; though it was not disregarded so much as has been apprehended. The reign of Charles II. notwithstanding the bad taste of his own court in several of the polite arts, is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotson, Barrow, Butler, Dryden, Wycherly, and Otway. The pulpit assumed

more dignity, a better style, and truer energy, than it had ever known before, and England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in this reign. Classic literature recovered many of its native graces; and though England could not, under Charles, boast of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet sir Christopher Wren introduced a more general regularity in architecture than had before prevailed. 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 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 the religion of the monarch.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. but he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flourished entirely by the excellency of the soil in which it had been planted.

Every reader is acquainted with the improvements, which philosophy and all the polite arts received under the auspices of queen Anne, and which made her court not much inferior to that of Lewis XIV. in its most splendid days. Many of the great men who had shone in the reigns of the Stuarts and William, were still alive, and in the full exercise of their faculties, when a new race sprang up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, Bolingbroke, 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 illustrious in literature as triumphant in war. Natural and moral philosophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political disputes contributed to the advancement of learning.

The ministers of George I. were patrons of science, and some of them were eminent literary characters. George II. was very far indeed from being a Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the number of learned and ingenious men whom it produced. After the year 1745, when Pelham was considered as first minister, men of genius began 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. Yet the fine arts (except music, the encouragement of which becomes daily more extravagant) have been far from meeting with that public patronage to which they have so just a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with statues. The sculptors meet with little employment, nor is the historical painter much patronized; though the British artists of the present age have proved their genius not inferior to that of any other nation.

Neither pulpit nor bar-eloquence has been sufficiently studied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws. The sermons of their divines are often learned, for the many religious sects in England require to be opposed rather by reasoning than eloquence. An unaccountable notion has, however, prevailed even among some of the clergy themselves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demosthenes were weakened by those powers of language with which they are adorned. The reader is not to imagine, that I am insinuating that the preachers of the English church are destitute of the graces of elocution: no clergy in the world can exceed them in purity and perspicuity of language, though, if they studied more than they do, the power of expression, they would preach with more effect. If the resemblance of those powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthusiasts, is attended with amazing

effects, what must not be the consequence, if they were exerted and supported with spirit and learning ?

The laws of England are of so peculiar a cast that the pleadings at the bar do not admit, or but very sparingly, of the flowers of speech : and a pleading in the Ciceronian manner, would produce a ridiculous effect in Westminster-hall.

Parliamentary speaking not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce more examples of true eloquence than the English senate ; witness the fine speeches made by both parties in parliament, in the reign of Charles I. and those that have been printed since the accession of the present family.

Medicine and surgery, botany, anatomy, chemistry, and all the arts or studies for preserving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the English. Even agriculture and mechanism are now reduced in England to sciences, and that too without any encouragement but such as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who associate themselves for that purpose.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities of Oxford and Cambridge have been the seminaries of more learned men than any in Europe. Their buildings, the 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. Each university sends two members to parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil jurisdiction over their students, the better to secure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed those of many other universities. In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls : the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. This university is of great antiquity : it is said to have had this title before the time of king Alfred ; and the best historians admit, that this prince was only a restorer of learning there. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford ; one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar.

The number of officers, fellows, and scholars, maintained at present by the revenues of this university, is about 1000, and the number of such scholars as live at their own charge is usually about 2000 ; the whole amounting to 3000 persons, besides a great number of inferior officers and servants belonging to the several colleges and halls. Besides the libraries belonging to the different colleges at Oxford, there are two public libraries, the one principally founded by sir Thomas Bodley, and the other by a legacy from dr. Radcliffe.

The whole number of fellows in the university of Cambridge is four hundred, and six hundred and sixty-six scholars, with about two hundred and thirty-six officers and servants of various kinds, who are maintained upon the foundation. These, however, are not all the students of the university ; there are also two sorts of students, called pensioners, the greater and the less ; the greater pensioners are sons of the nobility and of gentlemen of large fortunes, and are called fellow-commoners, because, though they are scholars, they dine with the fellows ; the lesser pensioners dine with the scholars that are on the foundation, but live at their own expense. There is also a considerable number of poor scholars, called sizars, who wait upon the fellows and scholars and the pensioners of both ranks, by whom they are in a great degree maintained ; but the number of pensioners and sizars cannot be ascertained, as it is in a state of perpetual fluctuation.

The senate-house at Cambridge is an elegant edifice, executed in the Corinthian order, and is said to have cost sixteen thousand pounds. Trinity college library is also a 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. Every human institution contains within itself the seeds of decay. The great wealth which has been

bestowed for the most honourable purposes on the universities of England, has ultimately proved the cause of their decline. For as seminaries of education, they with difficulty support their credit against their less opulent, but more active rivals on the north of Tweed. Dr. Adam Smith, in his Inquiry, remarks, that, "in Oxford, the greater part of the professors have long since renounced even the pretence of teaching." Mr. Gray, the celebrated poet who resided during a great part of his life at Cambridge, mentions, in his letters, that university and its members in terms too disrespectful for admission into this work, and he himself accepted a professorship of history there, with a salary of 400*l.* a year, without condescending to give a single lecture. Mr. Vicesimus Knox has published a variety of animadversions on the same subject; and this attack has, as usual, produced a reply. But the tone of defence tacitly admits that abuses have long existed in the administration of both universities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The antiquities of England are either Bri-
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } tish, Roman, Saxon, Danish, or Anglo-Nor-
manic; but these, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient history. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones, particularly that called Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, which probably were places of worship in the times of the druids. Stonehenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukeley, and others, described as a regular circular structure. The barrows that are near this monument, were certainly graves of persons of both sexes, eminent in peace or war; some of them having been opened, and bones, arms, and ancient trinkets found within them.

Monuments of the same kind as that of Stonehenge are to met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland and the isles.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the highest idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and passing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Albans, Dunstable, Stratford, Towcester, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewsbury, then by Stratton, and so through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great military road, called Hermen-street, passed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaster, strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-street. Many vestiges of the Roman roads in England, serve as foundations to our present highways. The earl of Arundel, the celebrated English antiquary, had formed a plan for describing those which pass through Sussex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are discernible all over England; one, particularly, very little defaced, near Dorchester, in Dorsetshire, where also is a Roman amphitheatre. Their situations are generally so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so complete, that there is some reason to believe, that they were the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and tessellated pavements which have been found in different parts, that their chief officers or magistrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewise been found in England; and, perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and castles are blended with those of a later date; it is even 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, and trinkets, which have been found in England; but the most amazing monument of

The Roman power in England, is the prætenture, or wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts Wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at first consisted only of flakes 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. This prodigious work, however, was better calculated to inspire the Scots and Picts with caution, than to give any real security to the Roman possessions. In some places, the wall, the ditch, and the road, are plainly discernible. Many learned publications respecting British antiquities have made their appearance of late years, and among others, we presume to recommend those of mr. Whitaker, mr. Strutt, and a number of curious tracts in the *Archæologia*.

The Saxon antiquities in England consist chiefly of ecclesiastical edifices and places of strength. At Winchester is shown 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; 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 by bishop Fox, in six large wooden chests. Many monuments of the Saxons present themselves in different parts of the kingdom, though they are often not to be distinguished from the Normanic; and the British museum contains several striking original specimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, signed by the king and his nobles, with a plain cross instead of their names, are still to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witness, to his respective cross. The Danish erections in England are hardly distinguishable from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences; but their forts are square.

England is full of Anglo-Normanic monuments. 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. The excavation 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 time of war and invasion. It contains an oblong square hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the same rock, for sitting upon; and tradition says, that this was the room in which the barons of England met during their wars with king John. The rock is soft, but it is difficult to ascertain where the excavation, which is continued in a square passage, about six feet high, and four wide, terminates.

The natural curiosities of England are various. The medicinal waters and springs have been divided into those for bathing, and those for drinking. The chief of the former lie in Somersetshire and Derbyshire; and the Bath and Buxton waters are famous, both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge, in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich in Surry; and at Acton and Islington in Middlesex. There are also many remarkable springs, whereof some are impregnated with salt, as that of Droitwich in Worcestershire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that of 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. At Ancliff, near Wigan, in Lancashire, was the famous burning well; the water was cold, neither had it any smell; yet so strong a vapour of sulphur issued out with the stream, that, upon applying a light to it, the top of the water was covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasted several hours, and emitted so fierce a heat, that meat might have been boiled over it.

This extraordinary heat proceeded from a vein of coals, which has been dug from under this well ; at which time the uncommon warmth ceased.

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Elden Hole 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 eight hundred and eighty-four yards of line after it, whereof the lowest eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Pooles Hole, near Buxton, for several paces is very low, but soon opens into a 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 in 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 subsist by rope-making, and by guiding strangers into the cavern, which is crossed by four streams of water, and terminates, at the distance of half a mile from the mouth, in a subterranean lake. The vault, in several places, makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful by being chequered with various-coloured stones.

In some parts of Gloucestershire, stones are found, resembling cockles, oysters, and other testaceous marine animals.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER } London* appears to have been found-
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } ed between the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain ; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and soon after became the capital of the island. London was first walled about with hewn stones and British bricks by Constantine the great, and the walls formed an oblong square, in compass about three miles, with seven principal gates. The same emperor made it a bishop's see ; for it appears that the bishops of London and York, and another English bishop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 314 : he also settled a mint in it, as is plain from some of his coins.

London 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, and from which they are supplied with others in return. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are constantly employed : there is no place in the world where the shops of tradesmen exhibit a more elegant appearance, or are better stocked.

It is situated on the Thames, the banks of which, from London-bridge to Black-wall, are almost one continued magazine of naval stores, containing three large wet-docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of merchant-ships, besides the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters, and the king's yards lower down the river, for the building of men of war. This city is about sixty miles distant from the sea, rises regularly from the water-side, and extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from east to west in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all sides, in a succession of magnificent villas, and populous villages.

* London is situated in 51° 31' north latitude, 400 miles south of Edinburgh, and 270 south-east of Dublin ; 180 miles west of Amsterdam, 210 north-west of Paris, 500 south-west of Copenhagen, 600 north-west of Vienna, 790 south-west of

Stockholm, 800 north-east of Madrid, 820 north-west of Rome, 850 north-east of Lisbon, 1360 north-west of Constantinople, and 1414 south-west of Moscow.

The irregular form of this metropolis 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. According to a modern measurement, the extent of continued buildings is thirty-five miles, two furlongs, and thirty-nine rods. But it is much easier to form an idea of the magnitude of a city so irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be above a million, and from the number of edifices devoted to the service of religion. Of these, beside St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Westminster, there are one hundred and two parish churches, and sixty-nine chapels of the established religion; twenty-one French protestant chapels; eleven chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. twenty-six independent meetings; thirty-four presbyterian meetings; twenty baptist meetings; nineteen Roman catholic chapels, and meeting-houses for the use of foreign ambassadors, and people of various sects; and three Jewish synagogues. So that there are three hundred and seven places devoted to religious worship, in the compass of this vast pile of buildings, without reckoning the twenty-one out-parishes usually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodist tabernacles.

There are also in and near this city one hundred alms-houses, about twenty hospitals and infirmaries, three colleges, ten public prisons, fifteen flesh-markets, one market for live cattle, two markets more particularly for herbs, and twenty-three other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. fifteen inns of court, twenty-seven public squares, besides those within single buildings, as the Temple. &c. three bridges, forty-nine halls for companies, eight public schools, called free-schools; and one hundred and thirty-one charity-schools, which provide education for five thousand and thirty-four poor children; two hundred and seven inns, four hundred and forty-seven taverns, five hundred and fifty-one coffee houses, five thousand nine hundred and seventy-five ale-houses; one thousand hackney coaches; four hundred ditto chairs; seven thousand streets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and one hundred and fifty thousand dwelling-houses, containing, as has been already observed, above one million of inhabitants.

London-bridge was first built of stone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163. The passage for carriages is thirty-one feet broad, and seven feet on each side for foot passengers. It crosses the Thames where it is nine hundred and fifteen feet broad, and has nineteen arches of about twenty feet wide each; but the central one is considerably larger.

Westminster-bridge is a complete and elegant structure. It is built entirely of stone, and extended over the river at a place where the Thames is one thousand two hundred and twenty-three feet broad. On each side is a balustrade of stone with places of shelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is forty-four feet, having on each side a foot-way for passengers. It consists of fourteen piers, and thirteen large and two small arches, all semicircular, the central one being seventy-six feet wide, and the rest decreasing four feet each from the other; so that the two least arches of the thirteen great ones, are each fifty-two feet. It was begun in 1738, and finished in 1750, at the expense of 389,000*l.* defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars bridge is not inferior to that of Westminster in magnificence or workmanship; but the situation of the ground on the two shores obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finished in 1770, at the expense of 152,840*l.* which has been discharged by a toll upon the passengers.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the most capacious protestant church in the world. The length within is five hundred feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the cross on the top of the cupola, is three hundred and forty. 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. St. Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Christopher Wren, who finished the building in thirty-seven years. It takes up six acres of ground, though the whole length of this church measures no more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it, after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at near a million sterling.

Westminster-abbey is a venerable pile of building in the Gothic taste. It is the repository of the deceased British kings, and several of the nobility; and there are also monuments erected to the memory of many great and illustrious personages, as philosophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000*l.* a year out of the coal-duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

Westminster-hall is said to be the largest room in the world, whose roof is not supported by pillars, it being two hundred and twenty feet long, and seventy broad. In it are held the courts of chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer.

This great city is supplied with abundance of fresh water from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of service to every family, but, by means of fire-plugs, the keys of which are deposited with the parish-officers, the city is guarded from the spreading of fire.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage: it has given rise to several companies, who insure houses and goods from fire; the premium is small; and the recovery, in case of loss, easy and certain. Each of these offices keeps a set of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their assistance; and are extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent; but though their labours should prove unsuccessful, the person who suffers by this devouring element, has the comfort that must arise from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has insured.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London was inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in history, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowness of the streets, and the unaccountable projections of the buildings, which confined the putrid air, and, joined with other circumstances, such as the want of water, exposed the city to frequent pestilential devastations. 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, more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, arose on the ruins of the old.

The plan of London, in its present state, will in many instances appear, to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a disposition as can easily be conceived for a city of trade and commerce, on the banks of so noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient.

It cannot be expected that we should here enter into a detail of all the cities of England. We shall touch only on a few of the most considerable.

Bristol is reckoned the second city in England for wealth and population. Liverpool, in trade and shipping, rivals or surpasses it. Bristol stands upon the north and south sides of the river Avon, and the two parts of the city are connected by a stone bridge. It contains ninety-five thousand inhabitants.

York is a city of very great antiquity, pleasantly situated on the river Ouse. It has seventeen parish churches, and a cathedral, which is one of the finest Gothic buildings in Europe.

The city of Exeter was for some time the seat of the West Saxon kings; and the walls which at this time inclose it, were built by King Athelstan, who encompassed it 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. Its trade consists in serges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets, kerseys, and other woollen goods. Ships come up to the city by means of sluices from the river Ex.

Gloucester stands on a pleasant hill, with houses on every descent, and is clean

and well built, with the Severn on one side, a branch of which brings ships up to it. The cathedral is an ancient and magnificent structure, and there are also five parish churches, but the trade of the city is not so considerable as formerly.

Chester is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches over the Dee, which falls into the sea, near this city. It has eleven parishes, and nine well-built churches.

Warwick appears to have been a town of eminence even in the time of the Romans. It stands upon a rock of free stone, on the banks of the Avon; and a way is cut to it through the rock, from each of the four cardinal points. The town is populous, the streets spacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the place.

Coventry is large and populous, has a handsome town-house, and twelve gates. Here is also a spacious market place, with a cross in the middle, sixty feet high, adorned with statues of several kings of England, as large as the life.

Bath took its name from some natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has been long celebrated, and much frequented. In some seasons there have been at Bath eight thousand persons besides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings are elegant, and in particular, Queen's Square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus and Crescent.

No other nation in the world has such dock yards, and all conveniencies for the construction and repairs of a navy, as Portsmouth, Plymouth, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford.

COMMERCE AND } Britain is a very proper country for trade; as well from
MANUFACTURES. } its situation as an island, as from its natural products, and considerable manufactures. For exportation it 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.

There is scarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England. Of these the woollen is the most considerable, and exceeds in goodness and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, swords, and other arms, excel any thing of the kind; household utensils of brass, iron, and pewter, are also very great articles; and English clocks and watches are in great esteem.

Of the British commerce, that branch which they enjoyed exclusively, viz. the trade with their North American colonies, was long regarded as the most advantageous. It was imagined that the independence of America would prove extremely destructive to the trade and manufactures of Britain. But the event has proved the fallacy of such political calculations. The united states, notwithstanding the vast increase of manufactures among themselves, afford a greater support to the British trade, than they did when dependent colonies. This state of affairs is not likely to be much altered, unless perhaps by two circumstances; one is, should any hostile measure be adopted by the British court, which might induce retaliation and strong prohibitions on our part. The other, which is a more probable case, is, that if the French succeed in the establishment of a free government, arts and manufactures will no longer languish, as they have done, under the fetters of despotism; and, from the cheapness of living in that country, they will be able to undersell the British in many foreign markets, and particularly in ours.

The chief commodities exported to the united states, are wrought iron, steel, copper, pewter, lead, and brass, cordage, hemp, sail-cloth, ship-chandlery, painter's colours, millinery, hosiery, haberdashery, gloves, hats, broad cloths, stuffs, flannels, Colchester bays, long ells, silks, gold and silver lace, Manchester goods, British, foreign, and Irish linens, earthen wares, grind-stones, Birmingham and Sheffield wares, toys, saddlery, cabinet wares, seeds, cheese, strong beer, smoking pipes, snuffs, wines, spirits, and drugs; East India goods, books, paper, and leather.

The commodities exported from America to Britain, are tobacco, rice, flour, biscuit, wheat, beans, pease, oats, Indian corn, and other grain ; honey, apples, cyder, and onions ; salt-beef, pork, hams, bacon, venison, tongues, butter, and cheese ; prodigious quantities of cod, mackarel, and other fish, and fish oil ; furs and skins of wild beasts, such as bear, beaver, otter, fox, deer, and racoon ; horses, and live stock ; timber, planks, masts, boards, staves, shingles, pitch, tar, and turpentine ; ships built for sale ; flax, flax-seed, and cotton ; indigo, pot-ash, bees-wax, tallow, copper ore, and iron in bars and in pigs ; besides many other commodities, peculiar to the climes and soils of different provinces. The following is a state of the trade between Britain and the colonies, as it existed before the differences broke out between them, marking at the same time the commercial strength and shipping of the colonies.

Colonies.		Ships.	Seamen.	Exports from Britain.	Exports from the colonies.
Hudson's bay	—	4	130	£. 16,000	£. 29,340
Labrador, American vessels 120					49,050
Newfoundland (3000 boats)	—	380	20,560	273,400	345,000
Canada	—	34	408	105,000	105,000
Nova Scotia	—	6	72	26,500	38,000
Massachusetts's Bay	—	46	552	395,000	370,500
Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Hampshire		3	36	12,000	114,500
New York	—	30	330	531,000	526,000
Pennsylvania	—	35	390	611,000	705,500
Virginia and Maryland	—	330	3,960	865,000	1,040,000
North Carolina	—	34	408	18,000	68,450
South Carolina	—	140	1,680	365,000	395,666
Georgia	—	24	240	49,000	74,200
East Florida	—	2	24	7,000	
West ditto	—	10	120	97,000	63,000
		1,078	28,910	3,370,900	3,924,206

The principal islands belonging to the British in the West Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent's, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montserrat, the Bermudas or Summer Islands, and the Bahama or Lucayan Islands in the Atlantic ocean.

Their trade with their West India islands consists chiefly in sugars, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel, planks, drugs, and preserves ; for these the exports from England are of naburbs, 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 ; stockings and shoes of all sorts ; gloves and millinery ware, perukes, laces for linen, woollen, and silks ; strong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheese ; iron ware, as saws, files, axes, hatchets, chisels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augres, nails ; lead, powder, and shot ; brass and copper wares ; toys, coals, and pantiles ; cabinet wares, snuffs, and almost every article raised or manufactured in Britain ; also negroes from Africa, and all sorts of India goods.

The trade of England to the East Indies is exclusive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the history of the East India trade, within these twenty years past, and the company's concerns in that country, it is sufficient to say, that, beside their settlements on the coast of India, which they enjoy under certain restrictions by act of parliament, they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indostan, and the ambition, avarice, and

frauds of their servants and officers, acquired such territorial possessions, as render them the most formidable commercial republic (for so it may be called in its present situation) that has been known in the world since the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are chosen by the proprietors of the stock; but it has been publicly affirmed, that they amount annually to above three millions and an half sterling. The expenses of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining those acquisitions, are certainly very great; but after these were defrayed, the company not only cleared a vast sum, but was able to pay to the government four hundred thousand pounds yearly for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expenses of the public in protecting the company, and partly as a tacit tribute for those possessions that are territorial, and not commercial. This republic, therefore, cannot be said to be independent; and it is hard to say what form it may take when the term of the bargain with the government is expired. For many years past, the company's servants have enriched themselves more than the public. Mr. Fox lately remarked in the house of commons, that the company was indebted to the British government in no less than sixteen millions sterling.

This company exports to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufactures, all sorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quicksilver. Its imports consist of gold, diamonds, raw silks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain, or China ware, and saltpetre for home consumption; and of wrought silks, muslins, calicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries as well as for home demands. We shall now proceed to a concise view of the English trade to other countries, according to the latest and most authentic accounts.

To Turkey, England sends, in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hard-ware, iron utensils, clocks, watches, verdgris, spices, cochineal, and log-wood. She imports from thence raw silks, carpets, skins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and some other articles; but the Turkey trade at present is at a very low ebb.

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 dying drugs, colours, gold and silver coin.

The British trade to Portugal was formerly extensive and advantageous. But of late years, the Portuguese ministry have consulted the interests of their own country, in preference to those of England. Hence the British trade to that kingdom has declined. They have erected two Brasil companies, the one for Marenham and Gran Para, the other for Perambuco. These are considered as highly beneficial to Portugal, though, by a necessary consequence, the monopoly possessed by English merchants has declined in an equal proportion. Of these acts of common sense and common justice, on the part of Portugal, the political writers of England very bitterly complain, as if a nation were not entitled to make use of its natural advantages. Before these alterations took place, England sent to Portugal almost the same kinds of merchandize as to Spain, and she received in return, vast quantities of wines, with oils, salt, dried and moist fruits, dying drugs, and gold coins.

To France England formerly sent tobacco, lead, tin, flannels, horns, and sometimes corn; and she brought home wines, brandies, brocades, linen, cambrics,

lace, velvets, and many other goods. That connexion is at present (June 1793) suspended by an act passed since the commencement of the present war.

England sends to Flanders, serges, flannels, tin, lead, sugars and tobacco, and receives in return laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of convenience or luxury. To Germany she sends cloths and stuffs, tin, pewter, sugars, tobacco, and East India merchandize; and brings thence linen, thread, goat skins, tinned plates, wines, and many other commodities. We have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Russia, which formerly was against England; but the balance was lately diminished by the great importations from North America, of hemp, flax, pot-ashes, iron-works, and tallow, all which used to be furnished to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzic, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are sent there for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland consumes large quantities of English woollen goods, hardware, lead, tin, salt, sea-coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country.

To Holland, England sends an immense quantity of many sorts of merchandize, such as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, East India and Turkey merchandize, tobacco, tar, sugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes return in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train oil, toys, and many other articles.

The acquisitions which the English made upon the coast of Guinea, particularly their settlement at Senegal, opened new sources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in possession of Senegal, traded there for gold, slaves, hides, ostrich feathers, bees-wax, millet, ambergris, and above all for gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch, and probably will again, as Senegal is now delivered up to them by the late treaty of peace. At present 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, this trade lately supplied the American colonies with negro slaves, amounting in number to between thirty and forty thousand 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, saltpetre, and many other drugs.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant exclusive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the East India, South Sea, Hudson's Bay, Turkey, Russia, and Royal African companies; but the trade to Turkey, Russia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who proposes to trade thither must become a member of the company, be subject to their laws and regulations, and advance a small sum at admission, for the purposes of supporting consuls, forts, &c.; it is supposed that two-thirds of the foreign traffic of England are carried on in the port of London.

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 by some to employ two thousand maritime 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 oc-

cupying fifteen large houses : its brass-wire manufactures are also very considerable. Manufactures of all kinds (glass, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular) are carried on in London and its neighbourhood ; the gold and silver manufactures of London, already equal, if they do not exceed, those of any country in Europe. Colchester is famous for its manufactures of bays and ferges, Exeter for ferges and long ells, and Norwich for its excellent stuffs, camelots, druggets, and stockings. Birmingham is one of the largest and most populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly snuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, shoe-buckles, and many other sorts of steel and brass wares ; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of English art and industry is to be seen ; for such are their excellent inventions for fabricating hardwares, that they can afford them for one half of the price at which other nations can furnish the same of an inferior kind : the cheapness of coals, all necessaries, and the conveniency of situation contribute greatly to this.

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. Manchester, likewise, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, tickens, checks, and the like stuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its highest magistrate a constable. We might mention here many other manufacturing towns and places of England, each of which is noted for some particular commodity, but the detail would become too prolix. We must not, however, dismiss this head, without observing the beautiful porcelain and earthen ware that have of late years been manufactured in different places of 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. Paper, which, till very lately, was imported in vast quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every part of the kingdom.

We shall close this article with a short specimen of the encouragement which commerce may often expect to find at an English custom-house.

“ So little indulgence,” says dr. Wendeborn, “ is to be met with, even in trifles, that if the whole duty of a parcel amounts but to a penny, which would be readily paid six times over, it is to be entered in the most expensive manner. I remember that some years ago, two little German pamphlets, of the size of an English magazine, in a blue cover, were sent to me from Hamburgh, and a ship-broker, on seeing them directed to me, drew up, without my knowing it, a petition that they might be delivered, which he presented at the custom-house, where they, however, were ordered to be entered. The broker told me that the duty, according to the weight of the pamphlets, would hardly amount to a halfpenny, and the custom-house fees to about five shillings. As the original value of both pamphlets was only fifteen pence, I took the advice of prudence and economy, and sacrificed fifteen pence to save five shillings, and a great deal of trouble besides, by leaving my pamphlets in the hands of the custom-house officers.”* A thousand examples of this kind happen daily, and the multiplication of such abuses in every department of the revenue does not inspire us with any exalted opinion of the wisdom or justice of the legislature itself.

The declaration of war against the republic of France has in its outset been attended with the most terrible havoc to the commerce and manufactures of the British kingdoms. In less than three months, bankruptcies have taken place to the extent of about sixteen millions sterling. Some hundred thousands of persons have

* Wendeborn's View of England, vol. I. article, Commerce.

been deprived of employment, and desolation and beggary stalk hand in hand over the ruins of civilized life.

A short view of the STOCKS or PUBLIC FUNDS in England; with an historical account of the East India, the Bank, and the South Sea companies.

These subjects are intimately connected; and all of them important in the political description of England. Money is the standard of the value of all the necessities and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the representative of that standard to such a degree, as to supply its place, and to answer all the purposes of gold and silver coin. Nothing is necessary to make this representative of money supply the place of specie, but the credit of that office or company which delivers it; and this credit consists in the facility afforded by the bank for converting the paper into specie. The notes of the bank of England are of the same value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the possessor pleases. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is punished with death, as well as coining.

The method of depositing money in the bank, and exchanging it for notes (though they bear no interest) is attended with many conveniencies; as they are not only safer than money in the hands of the owner himself, but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more easy conveyance. A bank note for a very large sum may be sent by the post, and, to prevent theft, may, without damage, be cut in two, and sent at two several times. Or bills, called bank post-bills, may be had by application at the bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent fraud, they being made payable to the order of the person who takes them out, at a certain number of days after sight; which gives an opportunity to stop bills at the bank if they should be lost, and prevents their being so easily negotiated by strangers, as common bank-notes are: and whoever considers the hazard, the expense, and trouble, in sending large sums of gold and silver to and from distant places, must also regard this as a very important advantage. Besides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are destroyed by time, or other accident, the bank will, on oath being made of such an accident, and security being given, pay the money to the person who was in possession of them.

Bank notes differ from all kinds of stock in these three particulars: 1. They are always of the same value; 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and 3. They bear no interest; while *stocks* are a share in a company's funds, bought without any condition of having the principal returned.

By the word *stock* was originally meant, a particular sum of money contributed to the establishment of a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by means of which the person became a partner in that trade, and received a share in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money advanced. But this term has been extended farther, to signify any sum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain interest till the money is repaid. The security both of the government and the public companies, is esteemed preferable to that of any private person, because stock is negotiable, and may always be readily transferred, as the interest is always punctually paid when due.

Every fund being raised for a particular purpose, and limited by parliament to a certain sum, it follows, that when the fund is completed, no more stock can be bought; though shares, already purchased, may be transferred from one person to another. This being the case, there is frequently a great disproportion between the original value of the shares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than sellers, a person who is indifferent about selling, will not part with his share without a considerable profit to himself; and on the con-

rary, if many are disposed to sell, and few inclined to buy, the value of such shares will naturally fall in proportion to the impatience of those who want to turn their stock into specie.

These observations were necessary to give our readers some idea of the nature of that unjustifiable and dishonest practice, called *stock-jobbing*, the mystery of which consists in nothing more than this : the persons concerned in that practice, who are denominated stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or sell, at a certain distant time, 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 make it dearer, if they are to receive stock.

The persons who make these contracts, are not in general possessed of any real stock ; and when the time comes, that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price which the stock was at when they made the contract, and the price that it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled ; and it is no uncommon thing for persons not worth 100l. to make contracts for the buying or selling 100,000l. stock. In the language of Exchange-Alley, the buyer in this case is called the bull, and the seller the bear ; one is for raising or 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 come under the same denomination. These are the great monied men, who are dealers in stock, and contractors with the government, whenever any new loan is to be made. These, indeed, are not fictitious, but real buyers and sellers of stock ; but by raising false hopes, or creating groundless fears, pretending to buy or sell large quantities of stock on a sudden, using the former set of men as their instruments, and by other like practices, they are able to raise or lower the stocks at pleasure.

However, the real value of one stock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really or only in imagination affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government by which that credit is secured, must naturally have a considerable effect on the stocks. Thus, with respect to the interest of the proprietors, a share in the stock of a trading company which produces 5l. or 6l. per cent. per ann. must be more valuable than an annuity, with government security, that produces no more than 3l. or 4l. per cent. per annum ; and consequently the stock must sell at a higher price than the annuity. But it must be observed, that a share in the stock of a trading company producing 5l. or 6l. per cent. per ann. will not sell so high as a government annuity producing the same sum, because the security of the company is not regarded as equal to that of government ; and the continuance of their paying so much per annum, is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the stocks of the East India, the bank, and the South Sea companies, are distinguished by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we shall give a short history of each of them, together with an account of the different stocks that each is possessed of, beginning with the East India company as the first established.

EAST INDIA COMPANY.] Of the above the East India company is the principal. The first idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time ; but it has since undergone great alterations. Its shares, or subscriptions, were originally only 50l. sterling ; and its capital only 369,891l. 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.—to which capital, 963,639l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, being added, the whole stock amounts to 1,703,421l. The partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the losses which the company sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indostan, damped the ardour of the public to support it; so that at the time of the revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent situation. This was in a great measure owing to its having no parliamentary sanction, whereby its stock often sold for one half less than it was really worth; and it was resolved that a new company should be erected, under the authority of parliament.

This proposal proved a matter of difficulty; but at last, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new subscription prevailed; and the subscribers, upon advancing two millions to the public, at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a great interest both in parliament and nation; and the two were united, in the year 1702. In 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 any additional interest; for which consideration the company obtained a prolongation of its exclusive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of “the united company of merchants trading to the East Indies.” A farther sum being lent by the company in 1730, their privileges were extended for thirty-three years, and the interest of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000l. was reduced to three per cent. and called the India 3 per cent. annuities.

Those annuities are different from the trading stock of the company, the proprietors of which, instead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different shares, a dividend of the profits arising from the company's trade; and that dividend rises or falls according to the circumstances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the case, pretended. A proprietor of stock to the amount of 1000l. whether man or woman, native or foreigner, is eligible as a manager, and has a vote in the general council. Two thousand pounds are 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 of the court of directors are to be held at least once a week; but are commonly held oftener, being summoned as occasion requires.

The amazing territorial acquisitions of this company, computed to be 282,000 square miles, and containing, as has been reported, 30,000,000 of people, have produced a proportionable increase of trade*: and this joined to the dissensions among its managers, both at home and abroad, have of late greatly engaged the attention of the legislature. A restriction has occasionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From a report of the committee, in 1773, appointed by parliament on India affairs, it appears that the India company, from the year 1708 to 1756, for the space of forty-seven years and a half, divided the sum of 12,000,000l. 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

* According to lists laid before the house of commons, the company employed 110 ships, and 5170 men.

Between India and Europe, in carrying cargoes to and from	—	70 Ships and 7130 men.
		6 Packets — 320
In the country trade to and from China	—	34 Grabs — 720

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 four years. That no person should vote at the election of the directors, who had not possessed his stock twelve months. That the mayor's court at Calcutta should in future be confined to small mercantile causes, to which only its jurisdiction extended before the territorial acquisitions. That in lieu of this court, thus taken away, a new one should be established, consisting of a chief justice and three puisne judges; and that these judges should be appointed by the crown. That a superiority should 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. This was certainly a very extraordinary act, and an immense power and influence were thereby added to the crown. But no proportional benefit has hitherto resulted to the company: on the contrary, the new established court of justice has paid so little attention to the manners of the inhabitants of India, and to the usages of that country, as to occasion the most alarming discontents among the natives, and great dissatisfaction even among the company's own servants.

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 at that time. The intention of the bill was, to vest the whole powers of the East India company in *seven directors*, whose names were specified by the secretary of state, and adopted by the house of commons. They were to hold their offices during four years, removable, like the twelve judges, by an address of either house of parliament, and not by any other power: and *nine gentlemen*, proposed and adopted in the same manner, were to assist them in managing the commercial affairs of the company. It is unnecessary to enter into a detail of the contents of this bill, which was rejected in the house of peers through royal influence, the king having written a card, which was handed to the lords of the bedchamber, stating that no lord who voted for the bill should be regarded as his friend.

A new bill passed at the close of the sessions, 1784, by which three innovations were intended. First, the establishing a power of controul in England, by which the executive government in India was to be connected with that over the rest of the empire. Secondly, the regulating the conduct of the company's servants in India, in order to remedy the evils that have prevailed there. Thirdly, the providing for the punishment of those persons, who shall continue in the practice of crimes which have brought disgrace upon the country.

Notwithstanding the regulations of this bill, it has been suspected that they will produce no very material effect, unless vigorous measures be taken to enforce them, and of this there can hardly be a possibility; as the machine is too immense to be properly managed by any minister.

We have been informed by a certain orator in parliament, that *India is the brightest jewel in the British crown*. We shall take the freedom to illustrate this metaphor by a few extracts from an author of the first rank for good sense, eloquence, and authenticity. We refer to the history of Indostan by colonel Alexander Dow, a gentleman of North Britain, who died in the service of the company.

"The civil wars," says he, "to which a violent desire of creating nabobs gave rise, were attended with tragical events. Bengal was depopulated by every species

of public distress. In the space of six years, half the great cities of an opulent kingdom were rendered desolate ; the most fertile fields in the world lay waste ; and FIVE MILLIONS of harmless people were either expelled or destroyed. Want of foresight became more fatal than innate barbarism ; and men found themselves wading through blood and ruin, when their only object was spoil." Vol. III. p. 70.

" No collector (of revenue) nor even his principal servant, travels over any part of his district, without imposing upon the village in which he chooses to rest, a tax of rice, fowl, kid, fruits, and every other luxury of the table for himself and his dependents. He also levies fines at pleasure, for frivolous pretences, and under various and often false pretexts. The crime consists in the ability of the person to pay the fine ; and nothing but excess of misery and poverty is safe from the gripping hand of avarice." Ibid. p. 99.

" The total suspension of all justice among the natives of Bengal was another cause of national decay. Men who retained some property, in spite of the violence of the times, instead of being protected by British laws, found that they had not even the justice of a despot to depend upon when they were wronged. The officers of the nabob, *as they were called*, committed every species of violence, under pretence of the orders of the company. When any person complained to the governor and council, he was referred back to those very men of whom he had complained. The heavy crime of having appealed to British justice, was thrown in his face, by oppressors who were at once judge and party ; and ruin and corporal punishment were added to his other wrongs. The spirit which asserts the natural rights of mankind, was called insolence, till it was totally broken by oppression ; and men were even cautious in venting their complaints in secret ; fearing that the very walls of their private apartments had ears." Ibid. p. 106.

The same author having proposed a plan for restoring the prosperity of Bengal, adds—" Provisions would fall to a third part of the present price ; the country would assume a new face, and the people wear the aspect of joy. Immense tracts of rich land, which now, with their woods, conceal the ruins of great cities, WOULD AGAIN BE CULTIVATED ; and new provinces arise out of those marshy islands, near the mouth of the Ganges, which are, at present, the wild haunts of the rhinoceros and the tiger." Ibid. p. 126. These islands were formerly full of people. The preceding specimens will assist the reader in forming a moral and political estimate as to " the brightest jewel in the British crown."

BANK OF ENGLAND.] The company of the bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England ; in consideration of the loan of 1,200,000*l.* granted to the government ; for which the subscribers received almost 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common seal, unless by act of parliament ; they are not to trade, nor suffer any person in trust for them to trade, in any goods or merchandize ; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and foreign gold and silver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament, passed in the 8th and 9th year of Will. III. they were empowered to enlarge their capital stock to 2,201,171*l.* 10*s.* It was then also enacted that the bank stock should be a personal, and not a real estate ; that no contract either in word or writing, for buying or selling bank stock, should be good in law, unless registered in the books of the bank within seven days, and the stock transferred in fourteen days, and that it should be felony without benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common seal of the bank, or any bank note, or to alter or erase such notes.

By another act, passed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were empowered

to augment their capital to 4,402,343*l.* and they then advanced 400,000*l.* more to the government ; and in 1714 they advanced another loan of 1,500,000*l.*

In the third year of the reign of king George I. the interest of their capital stock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the bank agreed to deliver up as many exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000*l.* and to accept an annuity of 100,000*l.* and it was declared lawful for the bank to call from their members, in proportion to their interests in their capital stock, such sums of money as in a general court should be found necessary. If any member should neglect to pay his share of the monies so called for, at the time appointed by notice in the London gazette, and fixed upon the royal exchange, it should be lawful for the bank, not only to stop the dividend of such member, and to apply it toward payment of the money in question ; but also to stop the transfers of the share of such defaulter, and to charge him with the interest of five per cent. per annum, for the money so omitted to be paid : and if the principal and interest should be three months unpaid, the bank should then have power to sell so much of the stock belonging to the defaulter, as would satisfy the same.

After this, the bank reduced the interest of the 2,000,000*l.* lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchased several other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government, and the national debt due to the bank reduced to 1,600,000*l.* But in 1742, the company engaged to supply the government with 1,600,000*l.* at three per cent. which is now called the 3 per cent. annuities ; so that the government was indebted to the company, 3,200,000*l.* the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the sum of 986,800*l.* due to them in the exchequer bills unsatisfied, on the duties for licences to sell spiritous liquors by retail, should be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,472*l.* the interest of that sum at four per cent. The company also agreed to advance the farther sum of 1,000,000*l.* at four per cent. into the exchequer, for exchequer bills issued upon the credit of the duties arising from the malt and land-tax ; in consideration of which, the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800*l.* the interest of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December, 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

In order to enable them to circulate the said exchequer bills, they established what is now called bank circulation : the nature of which not being well understood, we shall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation than we have been with regard to the other stocks.

The company of the bank are obliged to keep cash sufficient to answer not only the common, but also any extraordinary, demand that may be made upon them ; and whatever money they have by them, over and above the sum supposed necessary for these purposes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company ; that is to say, in discounting bills of exchange, in buying gold and silver, and in government securities, &c. But when the bank entered into the above-mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger sum of money than what they deemed necessary to answer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current cash so large a sum as a million, with which they were obliged to furnish the government, without either lessening the sum employed in discounting, buying gold and silver, &c. (which would have been very disadvantageous to them), or inventing some method that should answer all the purposes of keeping the million in cash. The method which they chose, and which fully answers their end, was as follows :

They opened a subscription, which they renew annually, for a million of money ; the subscribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder,

or any part thereof, whenever the bank shall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. so advanced ; in consideration of which, the bank pays the subscribers 4 per cent. interest for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole sum they agree to furnish ; and in case a call should be made upon them for the whole, or any part thereof, the bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for such sum, till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the bank obtains all the purposes of keeping a million of money by them ; and though the subscribers, if no call is made upon them (which is in general the case), receive six and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the sum of 23,500l. per annum by the contract ; as will appear by the following statement :

The bank receives from the government, for the advance of a million, — — — — —	}	£.30,000
The bank pays to the subscribers who advance 100,000l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000l. more — — — — —		
		6,500
		<hr/>
The clear gain to the bank, therefore, is — — — — —		23,500

This holds, provided the company should make no call on the subscribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, because it would not only lessen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

The company of the bank are allowed by government very considerable sums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. They make dividends of the profits half-yearly, of which notice is publicly given ; when those who have occasion for their money, may readily receive it : but private persons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their interest added to the principal*.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the same manner as in the East India company. Thirteen, or more, compose a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

SOUTH SEA COMPANY.] During the long war with France, in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the sailors of the royal navy being neglected, they received tickets instead of money, and were frequently obliged, by their necessities, to sell these tickets to avaricious men at a discount of 40l. and sometimes 50l. per cent. By this and other means, the debts of the nation, unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of these usurers. On which mr. Harley, at that time chancellor of the exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies, 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them for the purpose of carrying on a trade to the South Sea ; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of “ the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the fishery, &c.”

Though this company seemed formed for the sake of commerce, the ministry never thought seriously, during the course of the war, of making any settlement on the coast of South America, which was what had flattered the expectations of the people ; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the *Asiento*, 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 Britain and Spain, soon after the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748.

* The bank company is supposed to have twelve millions of circulating paper.

Some other sums were lent to the government, in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and the company advanced two millions more to the government at the same interest. By the statute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that they might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the sums they should discharge: and for enabling them to raise such sums for purchasing annuities, exchanging for ready money new exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. they might, by such means as they should think proper, raise such sums of money as in a general court of the company should be judged necessary. The company were also empowered to raise money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations, under their common seal, on the credit of their capital stock. But if the sub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, should purchase lands or revenues of the crown upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than such part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, such sub-governor, or other member of the company, should forfeit treble the value of the money so lent.

The fatal South Sea scheme, transacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the last-mentioned statute. The company had at first set out with good success, and the value of their stock, for the first five years, had risen faster than that of any other company; and his majesty, after purchasing 10,000*l.* stock, had condescended to be their governor. Things were in this situation, when, taking advantage of the above statute, the South Sea bubble was projected. The pretence was, to raise a fund for carrying on a trade to the South Sea, and purchasing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and proposals were printed and distributed, showing the advantages of this design. The sum necessary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into a certain number of shares, or subscriptions, to be purchased by persons disposed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared, that every 100*l.* original stock would yield 50*l.* per annum: which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of 100*l.* was sold for upwards of 800*l.* This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150*l.* by which multitudes were ruined, and such a scene of distress was occasioned, as can scarcely be conceived. But the consequences of this infamous scheme are too well known; most of the directors were severely fined, to the loss of nearly all their property; some of them had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it; but it was agreed, that 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 14,651,103*l.* 8*s.* 1*d.* and the shares of the respective proprietors, should be divided into four equal parts; three-fourths of which should be converted into a joint-stock, attended with annuities, after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and should be called the New South Sea annuities; and the other fourth part should remain in the company as a trading capital stock, attended with the residue of the annuities or funds payable at the exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption, and attended with the same sums allowed for the charge of management with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages, belonging to the South Sea company. That the accountant of the company should, twice every year, at Christmas and Midsummer, or within one month after, state an account of the company's affairs, which should be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend: and all dividends should be made out of the clear profits, and should not exceed what the company might reason-

bly divide without incurring any farther debt ; provided that the company should not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum, until their debts were discharged ; and the South Sea company, and their trading stock, should, exclusively from the new joint stock of annuities, be liable to all the debts and incumbrances of the company ; and that the company should cause to be kept within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities should be entered, and signed by the party making such transfer, or his attorney ; and the person to whom such transfer should be made, or his attorney, should underwrite his acceptance ; and no other method of transferring the annuities should be good in law.

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, the king excepted, unless such governor has, in his own name and right, 5000*l.* in the trading stock ; the sub-governor is to have 4000*l.* the deputy-governor 3000*l.* and a director 2000*l.* in the same stock. In every general court, every member having in his own name and right 500*l.* in trading stock, has one vote ; if 2000*l.* two votes ; 3000*l.* three votes, and if 5000*l.* 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.

The interest of all the debts owing by the government was lately reduced to 3 per cent. excepting the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the exchequer orders : but the South Sea company still continues to divide 4 per cent. on their present capital stock ; which they are enabled to do from the profits that they make on the sums allowed to them for the management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the interest of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

By what has been said, the reader will perceive how much the credit and the interest of Britain depend on the support of the public funds, of which more particulars will be given under the article REVENUES. While the annuities are regularly paid, and the principal insured by both prince and people, foreigners will freely lend their property.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] In all states there is a supreme power to which the right of legislation belongs, and which, by the constitution of the British kingdoms, is vested in the king, lords, and commons.

The supreme executive power of Great Britain and Ireland is vested in a single person, king or queen ; for it is indifferent to which sex the crown descends : the person entitled to it is immediately entrusted with all the ensigns, rights, and prerogatives of sovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of succession to the throne of those 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.”

After the revolution in 1688, the convention of estates or representative body of the nation, declared, that the misconduct of James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant. In consequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next protestant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of succession ; with a temporary exception of, 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 her heirs, being protestants; and from her the heirs of the crown now descend.

The king of Britain, notwithstanding the limitations of his power, possesses a very great degree of authority. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which declares it a capital crime to conspire against his life. Neither can he, in himself, be regarded as guilty of any crime; for by a very adulatory fiction of the English law, it has been determined, that he can do no wrong. His ministers alone are responsible for the infringements that may be committed on the laws or constitution of the country, by themselves or him: however, he is very often a mere cypher, in the hands of an able and enterprising statesman. Without the consent of both houses of parliament, the king cannot make any new laws, nor impose any new taxes, nor act in opposition to any of the laws, but he can make war, or peace, make treaties of alliance or commerce, levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his dominions, the attack of foreign enemies, or the suppression of domestic insurrections. He grants commissions to his officers both by sea and land, and revokes them at pleasure. He disposes of all magazines, castles, &c. and, what is perhaps the most important of all his prerogatives, he has not only the sole authority for citing parliament to assemble, but he appoints the time and place of their meeting, and can at his will adjourn, prorogue, or dissolve them. This expedient has been often adopted with great success, when a parliament has begun to make any vigorous opposition to the views of the crown. So that this assembly depends, in a very great degree, for their political existence, on the nod of their sovereign. He can refuse his assent to any bill, though it has passed through both houses, which, consequently, by such a refusal, has no more force, than if it never had been moved; but this prerogative has been seldom exercised by the kings of England, and never, we believe, since the reign of William the third. When the spirit of resistance happens to run high, it has been thought safer to silence the discontented party, by a timely adjournment, or, as in 1784, by a dissolution. Such a step has afforded a minister decisive advantages. When a parliament has become unpopular, their dissolution is celebrated as a national deliverance; and, in all events, the myrmidons of the cabinet have time to gain the start of their opponents, and to enforce the merit of their past services by the substantial logic of the treasury. This contention of the opposite powers has sometimes produced ludicrous circumstances. A house of commons, in the reign of Charles the second, hearing that they were on the verge of extinction, bolted their doors, and suffered the usher of the black rod to rap at his leisure, till they had finished some obnoxious resolutions, which they were employed in framing. The king chooses his own council, nominates all the great officers of state, of the royal household, and of the church of England. But this is a matter of form rather than of fact; for the case has sometimes been, that he has wanted influence to appoint the lowest officer about the court. This is always the case, when, to borrow the strong language of the present minister, "a combination has been formed to seize the government of the country." In Dodington's diary, and the anecdotes of the life of lord Chatham, lately published, an American reader will find much information on this head. To these and other publications of the same kind, as also to the debates in parliament, we must refer for additional particulars.

The king is the fountain of what English lawyers call *honour*; from him all degrees of nobility and knighthood being derived. This privilege has also been found a very formidable engine against the liberty of parliament. When a minister can no longer keep his seat in the house of commons, and dreads perhaps the vengeance of his successors, he is sometimes removed to the upper house, and

though the privileges of an English peer do not place him beyond the reach of a trial, yet his *exalted* station almost always enables him to despise it. This power is frequently exercised not only to secure a favourite minister from punishment, but likewise for very opposite purposes. When Mr. Pulteney and Mr. Pitt had, by their excessive influence with the people, become very dangerous antagonists to the measures of the crown, they were both seduced by peerages into a desertion of their party; and, as Lord Chesterfield elegantly expresses it, “shrunk into insignificance and an earldom.” Dodington, in a fit of discontent, gave up his office of treasurer of the navy. George the second refused to restore him to his situation, or indeed to grant him any other favour; but, after a servile negotiation which lasted during many years, the commoner, as he commanded five or six seats in the lower house of parliament, was dignified and silenced with *the title of lord Melcombe*.

When a judge has distinguished himself by a succession of all kinds of services for all kinds of administrations, it is usual to reward his assiduities by a seat in the house of peers. When Queen Anne had a very important bill to carry in that assembly, and found it impracticable to obtain a majority, she, or rather Harley, her minister, created twelve peers at a single stroke. The present administration has been remarkably prodigal of this sort of bounty, and the practice is now known in England by the cant phrase of *making a batch of peers*.

The king has a variety of other prerogatives, which seem at least singular among a people who boast of their freedom as superior to that of the rest of mankind. When private persons go to law, he who loses is often obliged to pay all costs; but the king, in his lawsuits, though he loses, never pays any. If a person becomes bankrupt, and owes any debt to the crown, that sum is previously taken from the whole of the bankrupt's effects, and what afterwards remains is divided among the creditors. But as they have also to pay with their fellow subjects, the common share of the public burdens, this tax upon the losses of individuals, is, to the last degree, partial, unjust, and oppressive. If the collector of the land-tax in a parish in England, should become insolvent, or prove a knave, the inhabitants of the parish must pay taxes a second time, to make good the deficiency of what is due to the king. If any person has, in point of property, a just demand upon the king, he must petition him in his court of chancery, where the chancellor will administer right *as a matter of grace, though not upon compulsion*. To add, by way of apology, that such language is only complimentary to the royal dignity, does not offer an adequate atonement to insulted justice. In Germany, questions of this kind are sometimes decided upon a better principle. The late king of Prussia once erected a turnpike, and instituted a toll on the high road leading to Leipzig. That city commenced a law suit against him in the court at Wetzlar. The king lost his suit, the turnpike was removed, and the toll dropped.

The crown is at present making rapid strides towards an utter extinction of the liberty of the press, and the advantages of a trial by jury, in all cases where the interest of government is particularly concerned. On the 8th of April, 1793, Mr. Joseph Cuthbert, a tailor of Belfast, stood in the pillory in that town for having delivered to a soldier a paper containing some remarks on the tendency of a standing army. Two years ago, this performance might have been circulated with safety in every regiment in the service. The determination in this question, of the following points, exhibits in a lively view the nature of the present political proceedings in the British kingdoms. First, a traverser in cases in which the king is a party, is not entitled to a copy of the indictment. Second, the king cannot be nonsuited by any defect or imperfection in an indictment. Third, the crown can object to jurors *absolutely*; a traverser cannot, without showing cause. Fourth, the crown has the right to put off the trial without showing cause. The traverser cannot without affidavit of cause.—Any one of these advantages on the side of the

crown would be of infinite consequence ; but when they are taken all together, it is plain, that a trial of this sort can be nothing but a farce. The government, when it chooses to be at the requisite expense of character and decency, must, upon these principles, obtain whatever sentence it may think proper.

OF THE PARLIAMENT.] Parliaments, or general councils in some shape, are of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in Britain, and coeval with the kingdom itself. Blackstone says, " it is generally agreed that in the main, the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the great charter granted by that prince ; wherein he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, lords, and greater barons personally ; and all other tenants in chief, under the crown, by the sheriff and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with forty days notice, to assess aids and scutages, when necessary. And this constitution hath subsisted, in fact, at least from the year 1266, 49 Henry III. there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burghesses to parliament."

The parliament is assembled by the king's writs, and its sitting must not be intermitted above three years. Its constituent parts are, the king sitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm ; the lords spiritual, the lords temporal (who sit, together with the king, in one house), and the commons, who sit by themselves in another. The king and these three estates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is said to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For upon their coming together, the king meets them, either in person, or by representation ; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament ; and he also, as we have already observed, has alone the power of dissolving them.

The crown cannot begin of itself any alterations in the present established law ; but it may approve or disapprove of the alterations suggested and consented to by the two houses. The legislature, therefore, cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own consent : since the law must perpetually stand as it now does, unless all the powers will agree to alter it.

The lords spiritual consist of two archbishops and twenty-four bishops. The lords temporal consist of all the peers in the realm, the bishops not being in strictness held to be such, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers sit by descent, as do all ancient peers ; some by creation, as do all the new made ones : and, since the union with Scotland, sixteen peers by election, who represent the body of the Scotch nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increased at will by the power of the crown.

The house of commons is said to be elected by the people, as their representatives in parliament ; but this expression 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 villages, which send no members to parliament ; and of those towns which do send members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thousand persons of great personal property, have, therefore, no representatives. Indeed, the inequality and defectiveness of the representation, has been justly considered as one of the greatest imperfections in the English constitution. The extension of the duration of parliaments from three to seven years, has also been viewed in the same light.

The number of English representatives is 513, and of Scotch, 45 ; in all 558 ; and every member, though chosen by one particular district, when elected and returned, serves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not

particular, but general ; not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth, and to advise his majesty, as appears from the writ of summons.

These are the constituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons. Parts, of which each is so necessary, that the consent of all three is required to make any new law that should bind the subject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no statute; and to it no regard is due, unless in what relates to their own privileges.

The power and jurisdiction of parliament, says sir Edward Coke, is so transcendent and absolute, that it cannot be confined, either for causes or persons, within any bounds. It hath sovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all possible denominations, ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal. All mischiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that transcend the ordinary course of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown ; as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter the established religion of the land ; as was done in a variety of instances, in the reign of king Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI., Mary, and Elizabeth. It can change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves ; as was done by the act of union, and the several statutes for triennial and septennial elections. But their power, however great, was given them 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, not, as in the case of the marriage act, the game laws, the dog act, the shop tax, the pedlar tax, and a thousand others, to grind the face of poverty.

Some of the most important privileges of the members of either house are, privilege of speech, of person, of their domestics, and of their lands and goods. As to the first, privilege of speech, it is declared by the statute of 1. W. & M. ft. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, “ that the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in 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 parliament. So are the other privileges, of person, servants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but also from legal arrests, and seizures by process from the courts of law. To assault by violence a member of either house, or his menial servants, is a high contempt of parliament, and as such punished with the utmost severity. Neither can any member of either house be arrested or taken into custody, nor served with any process of the courts of law ; nor can his menial servants be arrested ; nor can any entry be made on his lands ; nor can his goods be distrained or seized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament.*

The speaker of the house of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord-keeper of the great seal, which dignities are commonly vested in the same person. Each peer has a right, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reasons for such dissent ; which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasions, these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the majority of the house, and have therefore been expunged from the journals : but this has been thought a violent measure.

The house of commons may be properly styled the grand inquest of Britain, empowered to enquire into all national grievances. The peculiar laws and

* This exemption from arrests for lawful debts, was always considered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons, therefore, relinquished this privilege by act of parliament in 1770 ; and members of both houses may now be sued like other debtors.

customs of the house of commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament. With regard to taxes, it is the ancient indisputable privilege and the right of the house of commons, that all grants of subsidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their house, and be first bestowed by them ; although their grants are not effectual until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason given for this exclusive privilege of the house of commons is, that the supplies are raised upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves. And so reasonably jealous are the commons of this privilege, that herein they will not suffer the other house to exert any power but that of rejecting ; they will not permit the least alteration or amendment to be made by the lords to the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill. Under this appellation are included all bills by which money is directed to be raised upon the subject, for any purpose, or in any shape whatsoever ; either for the exigencies of government, and collected from the kingdom in general, as the land-tax ; or for private benefit, and collected in any particular district, as by turnpikes, parish-rates, and the like.

The method of making laws is much the same in both houses. In each house the act of the majority binds the whole : and this majority is declared by votes openly and publicly given ; to bring a bill into the house of commons, if the relief sought by it be of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition, setting forth the grievance desired to be remedied. This petition must be presented by a member, and, when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed, is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and report on it to the house ; and then (or, otherwise, upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the house, without any petition. In the house of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the state of the facts alleged, to see that all necessary parties consent, and to settle all points of technical propriety. This is read a first time, and, at a convenient distance, a second time ; and after each reading, the speaker explains to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question, whether it shall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be opposed, as the bill itself may at either of the readings ; and, if the opposition succeeds, the bill must be dropt for that session.

After the second reading, it is committed, that is, referred to a committee ; which is either selected by the house, in business of small importance ; or else, if the bill is a matter of great or national consequence, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole house. A committee of the whole house is composed of every member, and, to form it, the speaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman), and may sit and debate as a private member. In these committees, the bill is debated clause by clause, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and sometimes the bill entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with such amendments as the committee have made ; and then the house reconsider the whole bill again, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. When the house have gone through the bill, it is then ordered to be engrossed, or written in a strong gross hand, on parchment. When this is finished, it is read a third time, and amendments are sometimes then made to it ; and if a new clause be added, it is done by tacking a separate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The speaker then again explains the contents ; and, holding it up in his hands, puts the question, whether the bill shall pass. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then settled. After this, it is sent to the house of lords for their concur-

rence. It there passes through the forms, as in the other house (except engrossing, which is already done), and if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it passes *sub silentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords send a message that they have agreed to the same : and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment. But if any amendments are made, such amendments are sent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons disagree to the amendments, a conference usually follows between 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 passed any bill, it is deposited in the house of peers, to wait the royal assent ; except in the case of a money-bill, which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is sent back to the house of commons. No expression can be inserted, nor the slightest alteration take place, till the speaker or the chairman puts the question ; which, in the house of commons, is answered by *aye* or *no* ; and, in the house of peers, by *content*, or *not content*.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is a court of equity, is designed to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions ; and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor sits as sole judge, and in his absence the master of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, answers, and decrees ; the witnesses being examined in private : the decrees of this court are only binding on the persons of those concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods ; and consequently, if a man refused to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than send him to the prison of the Fleet. This court is always open ; and if a man be sent to prison, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, when he sees reason for it, grant a *habeas corpus*. The clerk of the crown likewise belongs to this court, he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he sits for the dispatch of business ; through his hands pass all writs for summoning the parliament, or choosing of members ; commissions of the peace, pardons, &c. The excessive delay of decision in the court of chancery, has been long proverbial. Dr. Swift introduced Gulliver complaining that he had been almost ruined by gaining two causes in it.

The king's bench is likewise a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Four judges preside there, the first of whom is stiled lord chief justice of England. 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 cognizance of all pleas debateable, and civil actions depending between subject and subject ; and in it, besides all real actions, fines and recoveries are transacted, and prohibitions are likewise issued out of it, as well as from the king's bench. The first judge of this court is stiled lord chief justice of the common pleas, or common bench ; there are likewise three other judges or justices of this court.

The court of exchequer was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and equity. In the law proceedings, the lord chief baron of the exchequer and three other barons preside as judges. Beside these, there is a fifth, called curliator baron, who has not a judicial capacity,

but is only employed in administering the oaths to sheriffs and their 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 respecting 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; and the lord treasurer's remembrancer, whose business is to make out processes against sheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high sheriff is annually appointed for every county, whose office is both ministerial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's court of justice; to impanel juries, to bring causes and malefactors to trial, to see sentences, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the assize to attend the judges, and guard them while they are in his county. He is likewise to decide, in the first instance, the elections of knights of the shire, of coroners, and of verdurers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return such as he shall determine to be duly elected. It is also part of his office to collect all public fines, distresses and amercements into the exchequer, or where the king shall appoint, and to make such payments out of them as the king shall think proper.

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. 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 in it, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *posse comitatus*, or power of the county.

The next officer to the sheriff is the *justice of the peace*, several of whom are commissioned for each county; and to them is entrusted the power of putting great part of the statute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treasons, felonies, riots, the preservation of the game, &c. &c. They examine and commit to prison all who break or disturb the peace, and disquiet the king's subjects. In order to punish the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inquest of the county, is summoned to appear. This jury, upon oath, is to enquire into the cases of all delinquents, and to present them by bill guilty of the indictment, or not guilty; the justices commit the former to jail for their trial at the next assizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-sessions for the county.

Every person who is a candidate for this office must possess a clear landed estate of an hundred pounds a year. This is the only qualification which has been positively required by the statute, nor does it appear that even the capacity of reading or writing is absolutely necessary. It has indeed been understood by the legislature of England, that these magistrates are but seldom adequate to the execution of their duty. On this head the curious style of Blackstone deserves to be quoted. "If a *well-meaning* justice makes any undesigned *slip* in his *practice*, great lenity and indulgence are shown to him in the courts of law; and there are many statutes, made to protect him in the upright discharge of his office, which, among other privileges, prohibit such justices from being sued for any *oversights*, without notice before hand; and stop all suits begun, on tender made of sufficient amends." In this passage the writer plainly presupposes that these magistrates are ignorant of their business; and when they have committed an act of despotism, it would seem that the door is not only shut, but bolted against redress. Henry Fielding, who was himself

what is termed a *trading* justice, has left us some entertaining sketches of this kind of magistracy.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to enquire, by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any person came by a violent death, and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of their office is to enquire concerning shipwrecks, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods. On the coast of some of the maritime counties of England, there still continues the barbarous custom of plundering vessels in this unfortunate situation.

Every city hath, by charter from the king, a jurisdiction within itself, to judge in matters civil and criminal; with this restraint only, that all civil causes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Westminster; and all capital offences are committed to the judge of the assize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and constitutions. They are constituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeses, 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 bye-laws for their own government. The government of incorporated boroughs is nearly similar: in some there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; who, during their mayoralty or magistracy, are justices of the peace within their liberties.

The cinque-ports are five havens, formerly esteemed most important ones, that lie on the east part of England toward France, viz. Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hastings, and Hythe, to which Winchelsea and Rye have been since added, with similar franchises in many respects. These cinque-ports were endowed with particular privileges by the 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 have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive justice. The business of courts-leet is chiefly to present and punish nuisances; and at courts-baron, the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their estates on a descent or purchase.

A *constable* is a very ancient and respectable officer of the peace, under the English constitution. Every hundred has a high constable, and every parish in that hundred a constable; and they are to attend the high-constable upon proper occasions. They are assisted by another officer, called the tithing-man, who formerly superintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, each free burgh consisting of ten families. The business of the 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 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 had been of late found necessary to revive some of them, and to appoint others of a similar nature.

Beside these, there are courts of conscience settled in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery or payment of small debts, not exceeding forty shillings.

Every man imprisoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge in Westminster-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge after considering the cause of commitment, shall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of justice.

If a man is charged with a capital offence, he must not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county, in which the fact is alleged to have been committed, and not unless twelve of them agree to a bill of indictment against him. If they do this, he is to stand a second trial before twelve other men, whose opinion is definitive. By the 28. Edward III. it is enacted, that where either party is an alien born, the jury shall be one half aliens, and the other denizens, if required, for the more impartial trial. In some cases, the man who is always supposed innocent till there be sufficient proof of his guilt, is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is also furnished with the pannel, or list of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and discover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced against him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number,* and to as many more as he can give reason for their not being admitted as his judges; till at last twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accused, or living near the place where the crime is thought to have been committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *shall well and truly try, and true deliverance make between the king, and the prisoners whom they shall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the prisoner prevents all possibility of bribery, or the influence of any superior power; by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are supposed to be men who knew the prisoner's course of life, and the credit of the evidence. Upon their integrity and understanding the lives of all who are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal.

Juries too frequently consist of ignorant and illiterate persons, who have neither knowledge to understand their rights and privileges, nor spirit to maintain them. But when judiciously chosen, they are a most effectual check to tyranny; for in a nation where a king can do nothing against law, they afford a security that he shall never make the laws, by a bad administration, the instruments of cruelty and oppression. Were it not for juries, the atrocious advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fullest latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman against a subject," says he, "let all ways be tried to justify him; if that be impossible, let him be chastised with greater noise than damage. If it be a subject who has affronted a nobleman, let him be punished with the utmost severity, that the subject may not get too great a custom of laying his hands on the patrician order." When a prisoner is brought to his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are supposed to be his counsel, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cause, other counsel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may set it aside, if it be contrary to law.

OF PUNISHMENTS.] Though the laws of England are esteemed more merciful to offenders than those which at present subsist in most other parts of the world, yet the punishment of such as at their trial refused to plead guilty, or not guilty, was formerly very cruel. In this case the prisoner was laid upon his back upon the bare floor, naked, and his arms and legs being stretched out with cords, and a considerable weight of iron laid upon his breast, he was allowed only three morsels of barley bread the first day; the next day he was allowed nothing but three draughts of foul water that should be nearest to the prison door; and, in this situation, this was to be alternately his daily diet till he expired. This punishment, however, there was seldom occasion to inflict, and the cruel process is now abolished; for by a late act of parliament the prisoner's refusal to plead is to be considered

* The party may challenge thirty-five, in case of treason.

as a conviction, and he is to suffer the same punishment as if he had been tried, and found guilty. And formerly, in case of high treason, though the criminal stood mute, judgment was given against him, as if he had been convicted, and his estate was confiscated.

The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treason*, *petty treason*, and *felony*. The first consists in plotting, conspiring, or rising up in arms against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for some minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burnt: the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is usually fixed upon 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. The 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 brutal law has been very lately repealed, and they are now hanged without being burnt.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. These are all punished by hanging, only murderers† are to be executed soon after sentence is passed, and then delivered to the surgeons in order to be publicly dissected. Persons guilty of robbery, when there were some alleviating circumstances, used sometimes to be transported for a term of years to the king's plantations; but since the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river Thames, &c. for a certain number of years; lately some have been sent to Africa and Nova Scotia; and it has been conjectured that the new settlement at Botany-bay will be productive of salutary consequences. However, it has been attended with an enormous expenditure of public money. By an imperfect state of accounts laid before the British house of commons, it appeared, that in the first three years, from the beginning of this project, the colony had cost about six hundred thousand pounds; two thousand criminals had been transported during that time, so that upon an average, they had cost government about three hundred pounds each, or an hundred pounds per annum. We are enabled to state these facts with precision, as we have seen a printed copy of these accounts which was distributed among the members of the house. Vast numbers of these miserable passengers perished in the course of the voyage, and prosecutions were commenced against the masters of some of the vessels for murder; but we have not yet learned the sequel of the transaction.

* This is not to be considered as a different punishment, but as a remission of all the parts of the sentence mentioned before, excepting the beheading.

† By a late act, murderers are to be executed

within a day after sentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday; so that they obtain a respite till Monday.

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 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 he was doing an unlawful act; which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſhment death.

Shoplifting, and receiving goods knowing them to be ſtolen, are puniſhed with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, and keeping diſorderly houſes, are puniſhed with the pillory or impriſonment.

Petty-larceny, or ſmall theft, under the value of twelve pence, is puniſhed by whipping.

Libelling, uſing falſe weights and meaſures, and foreſtalling the market, are commonly puniſhed with ſtanding in the pillory.

For ſtriking, ſo as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is puniſhed with loſing his right hand.

For ſtriking, in Weſtminſter-hall, while the courts of juſtice are ſitting, the puniſhment is impriſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, or by paying a fine.

REVENUES OF THE BRI- } The king's eccleſiaſtical revenues conſiſt, 1. In the
TISH GOVERNMENT. } cuſtody of the temporalities of vacant biſhoprics; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Extra-parochial tithes. 3. The firſt fruits and tenths of benefices. At preſent, ſuch has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that thoſe branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue conſiſts, 1. In the demefne lands of the crown, which at preſent lie in a narrow compaſs. 2. The hereditary exciſe; being part of the conſideration for the purchaſe of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual ſum iſſuing from the duty on wine licences; being the reſidue of the ſame conſideration. 4. His forests. 5. His courts of juſtice, &c.

The extraordinary grants are uſually called by the ſynonymous names of aids, ſubſidies, and ſupplies; and are granted by the commons of Britain, in parliament aſſembled: who, when they have voted a ſupply to the king, and ſet- tled 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 may propoſe ſuch a ſcheme of taxation as he thinks fit. The reſolutions of this committee when approved by a vote of the houſe, are in general deemed final and concluſive; for, though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed upon the ſubject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready caſh, if the propoſed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the houſe of commons.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land-tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed upon a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual exciſe on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms, or tonnage and poundage of all mer- chandize 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 newspapers, almanacs, paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houses and windows. 7. The duty on licences for hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and pensions, with a variety of new taxes imposed since the end of the war with America. The neat annual produce of these taxes, together with the malt and land tax amounts at present to about seventeen millions sterling; besides the expense of collection, which is not, perhaps, less than another million and a half. How these immense sums are appropriated, is next to be considered. And this is, first and principally, to the payment of the *interest* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehensive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it must be first premised, that, after the revolution, the new connexions of England with Europe introduced a new system of foreign politics, in settling the new establishment, in maintaining long wars, as a principal, 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. Hence the national expenses increased to an unusual degree; inasmuch that it 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 policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the current service of the state, at an enormous rate; and to lay no more taxes upon the subject than would suffice to pay the annual interest of the sums so borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new species of property, transferable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity. This laid the foundation of what is called the NATIONAL DEBT: for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II. hardly deserve the name; and the example then set has been so closely followed during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and since, that the capital of the funded debt, at midsummer, 1775, was 129,860,018*l.* and the annual charge of it, amounted to 4,219,254*l.* 7*s.* The American war commenced at this time, and the execrable policy continuing of alienating the sinking fund, with the extravagancies in every department of government, and the manner of borrowing the money for supplies, have considerably increased this burden.†

The following was the state of the national debt in the year 1783, extracted from the eleventh report of the commissioners of public accounts:

<i>£.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>		<i>£.</i>	<i>s.</i>	<i>d.</i>
211,363,254	15	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	Funded debt.			
			Interest thereon,	7,951,930	1	0
18,856,541	11	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	Unfunded 1 st of October 1783: fifteen million of this bear interest now.			
			Interest thereon,	612,742	0	0
<hr/>						
230,219,796	6	9 $\frac{1}{4}$				

* From the year 1644 to 1744, the annual amount of this revenue gradually increased from 500*l.* to 198,226*l.* but it should be observed, that the gross amount of both inland and foreign offices was in the latter year 235,492*l.* In 1764, the gross amount of the revenues of the post-office for that year was 432,048*l.* which, by the act passed in the sessions of 1786, increasing the duty according to

the distance, and abridging the franking, must be considerably augmented.

† In the course of the war against America, from 1776 to 1782, 46,550,000*l.* were added to the 3 per cents. and 26,750,000*l.* to the 4 per cents. making together a capital of 73,400,000*l.* for which the money advanced was only 48 millions.

	£.	s.	d.
Charges at the bank for managing the business	134,291	13	1
Fees at the auditor's office of imprest	19,874	2	8
Some other fees of office	696	12	4

8,719,534 9 1

Since this report, the funded debt hath increased to	232,280,549	0	0
The unfunded debt, meaning all expenses, deficiencies, arrears, and outstanding debts, for paying the principal or interest of which no provision was made by parliament, may be moderately reckoned	38,000,000	0	0
The amount of exchequer bills	9,418,564	0	0

279,698,913 0 0

Thus the whole annual charge brought upon the nation, by its debts, funded and unfunded, appears to be about	9,500,000	0	0
Peace establishment, reckoned at the average annual expense for eleven years preceding the war,	3,950,000	0	0
Income of the civil list	900,000	0	0

Whole expenditure, 14,350,000 0 0

The issues of the several taxes were originally separate and distinct funds; being securities for the sums advanced on each several tax, and for them only. But at last it became necessary, in order to avoid confusion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of these separate funds, by uniting them together: superadding the faith of parliament for the general security of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*, the whole produce of which hath been for some years about 2,600,000*l.* per annum; the *general fund*, so called from such union and addition, which for some years hath amounted to rather more than a million per annum; and the *South Sea fund*, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the interest of such part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants, the produce of which lately hath been about half a million per annum. The separate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual securities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay such interest or annuities as were formerly charged upon each distinct fund; the faith of the legislature being moreover engaged to supply any casual deficiencies.

The customs, excises, and other taxes, which are to support these funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and consumptions, must necessarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been considerably more than sufficient to answer the charge upon them. The surplusses, therefore, of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South Sea funds, over and above the interest and annuities charged upon them, are directed by statute 3 George I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the disposition of parliament; and are usually denominated the *sinking fund*, because originally destined to sink or reduce the national debt. To this have been since added many other entire duties, granted in subsequent years; and the annual interest of the sums borrowed on their respective credits, is charged on, and payable out of, the produce of the sinking fund. However, the neat surplusses and savings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very considerable sum; for, as the interest on the national debt has been

at several times reduced (by the consent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their interest, or to be paid their principal), the savings from the appropriated revenues must be extremely large. This sinking fund is the last resort of the nation; its only domestic resource, on which must chiefly depend all the hopes it can entertain of ever discharging or moderating its incumbrances.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, several encroachments were made upon the sinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it, under pretence of easing the landed interest. The practice of alienating the sinking fund hath increased; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged, and subsequent administrations have broke in upon it; thus converting an excellent expedient for saving the kingdom, into a supply for the worst purposes.

In some years, the sinking fund hath produced from two to three millions; and, if 1,212,000*l.* of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts from the year 1733 to the present time, one hundred and sixty millions would have been paid off, and the nation much relieved. Such regulations as were made in 1790 for reducing the national debt, and for collecting the public taxes have afforded a pleasing prospect to Britain*. But the Nootka Sound armament, and still more the war with France that is now raging, has annihilated every vision of this nature.

The present king, soon after his accession, accepted the sum of 800,000*l.* per annum, for the support of his civil list; and that also charged with three life annuities, to the princess of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and the princess Amelia, to the amount of 77,000*l.* The aggregate fund is now charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown, besides annual payments to the dukes of Gloucester and Cumberland, and the representatives of Arthur Onslow, esq. and the earl of Chatham. This civil list, thus liquidated, together with the interest of the national debt, and the sums produced from the sinking fund, beside the uncertain sums arising from the annual taxes on land and malt, and others lately imposed, make the clear produce of the taxes, exclusive of the charge of collecting, which are raised yearly on the people of that country, amount to upwards of seventeen millions sterling.

The expenses defrayed by the civil list, are those of the royal 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 privy purse, 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; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpose by the statute 11 Geo. I. c. 17. Large sums have also been repeatedly granted for the payment of the king's debts in the present reign; and the considerable augmentation of 100,000*l.* has likewise been made to his annual income. When the bill for suppressing certain offices, as the board of trade, &c. was debated, by which savings were to be made to the amount of 72,368*l.* per annum, it appeared, that the arrears due

* Dr. Price's calculation plainly shows, that, "A million borrowed annually for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent Stock, if discharged at 6*l.* in money for every 100*l.* stock, and in forty years more, without any further aid from loans, 333 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 sum in the same periods,

"In short, so necessary is it at present to expedite, by every possible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the surplus which can be obtained for a sinking fund be what it will, an addition to it, by annual loans, will be proper, in order to give it greater efficiency and a better chance for saving the kingdom.—The increase of taxes which such a measure must occasion, would be so inconsiderable and so gradual, as to be scarcely perceptible; and, at the same time, it would manifest such a determined resolution in our rulers to reduce our debts, as might have the happiest influence on public credit."

on the civil list at that time, June 1782, amounted to 95,877l. 18s. 4d. notwithstanding so liberal an allowance had been recently made, and the king's debts had been repeatedly liquidated by parliamentary grants; for the payment of this other debt, provision was made by the bill. Large arrears are also since contracted.

The civil list is indeed 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; it is now standing in the same place as the hereditary income did formerly; and as that has gradually diminished, the parliamentary appointments have increased.

No part of the present system of government in Britain, is regarded with less veneration by modern reformers, than the civil list. The establishment of a prince of Wales has never cost less than fifty thousand pounds a year, which is an additional burden on the nation, over and above the nine hundred thousand pounds to his father. The present heir to the crown has, in the course of about twelve or fifteen years, expended not less than as many hundred thousand pounds, and he is yet supposed to be at least half a million in debt. His settled income is now sixty thousand pounds a year, that of his brother, the duke of York, thirty-seven thousand, and of his second brother the duke of Clarence, twelve thousand, besides the appointments of the two last in the land and sea service. Yet some years ago, these young men were under the necessity of mortgaging a part of their revenues, for an immediate advance of cash, to some Dutch Jews. The late duke of Cumberland, the humane victor of Culloden, was rewarded for his services with an addition of twenty-five thousand pounds a year to his former revenue, paid out of the civil list, which was fifteen thousand pounds. Very large sums have been likewise bestowed in paying portions for the marriage of the daughters of the royal family, and for so many other grants, upon innumerable pretences, that the establishment has not altogether cost less than twelve hundred thousand pounds, or a million and an half, per annum, upon an average, since the accession of the house of Hanover. Over and above all these largesses, we are informed, by Dodington's Dairy, that George II. had*, previous to the year 1755, abstracted fifteen millions sterling from the public money. The writer, in a conversation with the princess dowager of Wales, affirms, that himself and the other members of the privy council could find full evidence of it; and that if the secret should escape, it might be of the most dangerous consequence to the protestant succession. Dodington subjoins, that none of them could tell, what had become of any part of this immense sum. It was farther discovered, during the lunacy of the present king, that he also is possessed of many unknown millions. The nation had been repeatedly solicited to pay his debts, and it had been of course understood, that he himself was unable to pay them. The part of the civil list which is expended in discharging the salaries of judges, ministers and foreign ambassadors, does not amount to perhaps a tenth part of the whole. The reader will find this subject discussed with an able though sparing hand, in the second volume of sir John Sinclair's history of the British revenue.

MILITARY AND MARINE } Soon after the restoration of king Charles II.
STRENGTH OF BRITAIN. } 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

* Dodington's Dairy, Dublin edition, page 195.

present militia-laws ; the general scheme of which, is, to discipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, chosen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord-lieutenant, the deputy-lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commission from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unless in case of invasion, or actual rebellion, nor in any case to be sent out of the kingdom. They are to be exercised at stated times, and their discipline in general is liberal and easy ; but when drawn out into actual service, they are subject to the rigours of martial law. This is the constitutional security which the laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the country against foreign or domestic violence.

But as the mode of keeping standing armies has prevailed over all Europe for a considerable time, it has also for many years past been annually judged necessary by the legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of troops, under the command of the crown ; who are, however, *ipso facto*, disbanded at the expiration of every year, unless continued by parliament. The land forces* of those 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, there have formerly been in British pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000 ; and there were in the pay of Britain, during the American war, 135,000 men, besides 42,000 militia. To regulate this body of troops, an annual act of parliament passes, “ to punish mutiny and desertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters.” This regulates the manner in which they are to be dispersed among the several inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom ; and establishes a law martial for their government. By this, among other things, it is enacted, that if any officer or soldier shall excite, or join any mutiny, or, knowing of it, shall not give notice to the commanding officer ; or shall desert, or list in any other regiment, or sleep upon his post, or leave it before he is relieved, or hold correspondence with a rebel or enemy, or strike or use violence to his superior officer, or disobey his lawful command ; such offender shall suffer such punishment as a court martial shall inflict, though it extend to death itself.

Officers and soldiers that have been in the king’s service are, by several statutes, at liberty to use any trade or occupation which they are fit for, in any town of the kingdom (except the two universities), notwithstanding any statute, custom, or charter to the contrary ; and soldiers, in actual military service, may make verbal wills, and dispose of their goods, wages, and other personal chattles, without those forms, solemnities, and expenses, which the law requires in other cases.

The MARITIME state is nearly related to the former. So inferior was England formerly in this point to the present age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boast that the royal navy of England consisted of 33 ships. The present condition of the marine is by many ascribed to the navigation act framed in 1650, which prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with the English plantations without licence from the council of state. In 1651, the prohibition was extended also to the mother country ; and no goods

* The land forces consist of

2 troops of horse-guards, raised in 1660—
2 troops of horse-grenadier-guards, raised in
1623 and 1702.—1 royal regiment of horse-
guards, ditto, 1661.—4 regiments of horse-
guards, ditto, 1685 and 1688.—3 Regiments of
dragoon-guards, ditto, 1685.—18 Regiments of
dragoons, including light horse, raised between
1683 and 1759.—3 Regiments of foot-guards,
raised in 1660.—70 Regiments of foot, the first,
or Royal Scots, raised in 1635, the others between

1661 and 1762.—20 independant companies of in-
valids.—4 Battalions of royal artillery, a royal
regiment of artillery in Ireland, and a corps of
engineers: together with 4 divisions of marine
forces.—1 Regiment of light dragoons, and 5
Battalions of foot in East-India. Several regiments
raised for the service of the crown, from the
commencement of the American war, were after-
wards disbanded ; but large levies are now raising
for the French war.

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 merchandize imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the restoration, the former provisions were continued, by statute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this additional clause, that the master, and three-fourths of the mariners, should also be English subjects.

The complement of seamen in time of peace, hath usually amounted to 12 or 15,000. In time of war they have formerly amounted to no less than 80,000 men; and after the commencement of the war with the united states, they amounted to above 100,000 men, including marines. The vote of parliament, for the service of the year 1784, was for 26,000 seamen, including 4495 marines.

This navy is commonly divided into three squadrons; namely, the red, white, and blue, which are so termed from the differences of their colours. Each squadron has its admiral: but the admiral of the red squadron has the principal command of the whole, and is styled vice-admiral of Britain. Subject to each admiral is also a vice and rear-admiral. But the supreme command of this naval force, is, next to the king, vested in the lords commissioners of the admiralty. Notwithstanding the favourable situation of England for a maritime power, it was not until the prodigious armament sent to subdue that country, by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully sensible of its natural strength.

Many laws have been made for the supply of the British navy with seamen; for their regulation when on board; and to confer privileges and rewards on them during and after their service.

1. For their supply. The power of impressing men for the sea-service, by the king's commission, has been matter of much dispute, and submitted to with great reluctance; though it hath been shown by sir Michael Foster, that the practice of impressing, and granting powers to the admiralty for that purpose, is of very ancient date, and hath been uniformly continued by a regular series of precedents to the present time; whence he concludes it to be a part of the common law. The difficulty arises from hence, that no statute, or act of parliament, has expressly declared this power to be in the crown, though many of them very strongly imply it. It has also been supposed, that a practice so hostile to the liberty of the subject, and to the common principles of justice and humanity, could not be solidly supported without some clear, positive, and unequivocal law.

Besides this method of impressing, the principal trading cities, and sometimes the government, offer bounty-money to the mariners who enter voluntarily into service: and every foreign seaman, who during a war, shall serve two years in any man of war, merchantman, or privateer, is naturalized *ipso facto*.

But as impressing is a gross violation of the natural rights of mankind, so has the bounty money, which seldom exceeds 40s. proved ineffectual. The wages of seamen on board of merchantmen, in time of war, is usually from 50s. to 4l. per month; on board of the royal navy they only receive 22s. They are flattered indeed with the hopes of prize-money, which, if divided in an equitable manner, would produce the happiest effects. There would then be less occasion for bounty-money or pressing; fleets would be speedily manned, and regularly supplied with experienced and able seamen. It has been matter of surprise that no satisfactory scheme has yet taken place: but that to enrich a few superior officers. England should deprive those very men of their rights and liberty, to whose valour and intrepidity alone, in the day of public danger, she looks for her preservation.

2. The method of ordering seamen in the royal fleet, and keeping up a regular discipline there, is directed by certain express rules, first enacted by the authority of parliament soon after the restoration; but new modelled and altered since the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. In these articles of the navy, almost every possible of-

fence is set down, and the punishment annexed, in which respect the seamen have much the advantage over their brethren in the land service; whose articles of war are not enacted by parliament, but framed from time to time at the pleasure of the crown.

3. With regard to the privileges conferred on sailors, they are much the same with those conferred on soldiers; with regard to relief, when maimed, or wounded, or superannuated, it is afforded them either by county rates or from the royal hospital at Greenwich; they are also allowed the exercise of trades in corporations, and the power of making testaments. No seaman aboard the king's ships can be arrested for any debt, unless it be sworn to amount to at least twenty pounds; though by the annual mutiny act, a soldier may be arrested for a debt which extends to half the value.*

Sea officers and sailors are subject to a perpetual act of parliament, which corresponds with the annual military act, passed for the government of the army; yet neither of those bodies are exempt from legal jurisdiction, in civil or criminal cases, but in a few instances of no great moment. The soldiers, particularly, may be called upon by a civil magistrate, to enable him to preserve the peace against all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the soldiers on those occasions, is to take his directions from the magistrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified against all consequences, be they ever so fatal. But those civil magistrates, who understand the principles of the constitution, are extremely cautious in calling for the military on these occasions, as the frequent employment of the military power in a free government, is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded against with too much caution.

MONEY.] In Britain, money is computed by pounds, shillings, and pence; twelve pence making a shilling, and twenty shillings one pound, which is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces consist only of guineas and halves, quarters having fallen into an almost entire disuse; the silver, of crowns, half crowns, shillings, and six-pences; and the copper money of half-pence and farthings. The present state of British currency seems to demand a new coinage of shillings and six-pences; the intrinsic value of many of the latter being worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public submitting to lose the difference between the bullion of the new and old money. Besides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the tower of London, but they are not generally current.

ROYAL TITLES } The title of the king of England, is, By the grace of God,
AND ORDERS. } of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, king, defender of the

* The royal navy of Britain as it stood August, 31 1784.

Rates of ships.		Complement of men.		Weight of metal.	
Guns.	No. of each rate,	Men.		Metal.	
1st. 100 and upward	5	875 to 850	42	24	12 6
2d. 98 to 90	20	750 to 700	32	18	12 6
3d. 80 to 64	130	650 to 500	32	18	9 6
4th. 60 to 50	27	420 to 380	24	12	6 & 18 9 6
5th. 44 to 32	102	300 to 220	18	9	6 & 12 6
6th. 30 to 20	50	200 to 160	9	4	
		334			
Sloops, 18 to 14	143	125 to 110			
Bombs, Fireships, &c.	19				
Total,		496			

In commission, 25 of the line, 7 frigates, 36 frigates, and 105 sloops. When a ship of war becomes old, or unfit for service, the same name is transferred to another, which is built, as it is called, upon her bottom. While a single beam of the old vessel remains, the name cannot be changed unless by act of parliament.

faith. The designation of the kings of England was formerly, his or her grace, or highness, till Henry VIII. to place himself on a level with the emperor Charles V. assumed that of majesty ; but the old designation was not abolished till the end of queen Elizabeth's reign. The title of defender of the faith was bestowed upon Henry VIII. by the pope, on account of a book written by the king against Luther, and the reformation. Besides the titles already given, the king of Great Britain has others from his German dominions, as elector of Hanover, duke of Brunſwic, Lunenburg, &c.

The titles of the king's eldest son, are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothſay, earl of Chester, electoral prince of Brunſwic and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the iſles, great ſteward of Scotland, and captain general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the moſt honourable in England, was inſtituted by Edward III. January 19, 1344. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, who is always the king or queen of England, and of 25 companions called knights of the garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon. The medal is commonly enamelled on gold, and ſuſpended from a blue riband. St. George is ſuppoſed to be the tutelary ſaint of England. He was originally a Cappadocian.

Knights of the BATH, ſo called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are ſuppoſed to have been inſtituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399. This order having been diſcontinued, was revived by king George I. in 1725.

The origin of the Engliſh peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquiſes, earls, viſcounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can ſcarcely be ſaid to belong to any order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They were inſtituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulſter in Ireland : but at preſent their number amounts to ſeven hundred.

A knight is a term uſed almoſt in every nation in Europe, and in general ſignifies a ſoldier ſerving on horſeback ; a rank of no mean eſtimation in ancient armies, and entitling the party himſelf to the appellation of *ſir*. In the common laws they are called *milites* or ſoldiers ; and they are made, by the king laying a ſword upon their ſhoulders, and deſiring them to riſe by the title of *ſir*. It is a mark of perſonal regard from the crown, and therefore the title does not deſcend to poſterity. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England ; ſuch as thoſe of *bannerets*, *bachelors*, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now diſuſed. Indeed in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portſmouth, the king conferred the honour of knights bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the ſupporters.

It is ſomewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *efquire*, which formerly ſignified a perſon bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called *armigeri*. This title denoted any perſon, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms ; but is at preſent applied promiſcuouſly to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman, without trade ; and even a tradesman, if he is a juſtice of peace, demands the appellation.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the firſt inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, who ſettled on the oppoſite ſhore : a ſuppoſition founded upon their reſemblance in language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Chriſt, meditated the conqueſt of Britain, the natives were much connected with the Gauls, and

other people of the continent. Cæsar wrote the history of his two expeditions, which were accompanied with vast difficulties, and were, as he alleged, attended by such advantages over the islanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. His victories were incomplete and indecisive: nor did the Romans receive the least benefit from his expeditions, except a better knowledge of the island than they had before. The Britons, at Cæsar's arrival, were governed by a political confederacy, of which Cassibelan, whose territories lay in Hertfordshire, and some of the adjacent counties, was the head: and this form of government long continued among them.

In their manner of life, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates who have been already mentioned; they sowed corn, but 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, and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as sovereigns of their particular districts. They favoured a primogeniture or seniority, in their succession to royalty, but set it aside on the smallest inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish or greenish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies on their skins. In place of marriages, 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 Cæsar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communication between Rome and Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæsar, about forty-two years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition in person, in which he seems to have been successful. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicea, made a vigorous defence against the Romans. The former, after a war of eighteen years, was taken prisoner in 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 time. Boadicea, being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards, as has been already seen in the history of Scotland, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time that the Romans remained in that island, they erected those walls before mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts: and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and customs, became familiar in Britain. There seems to be no great foundation for this assertion; and it is more probable, that the Romans considered Britain chiefly as a nursery for their armies, on account of the superior strength of body and courage of the inhabitants. That this was the case appears plainly from the defenceless state of the Britons, when Rome recalled her forces from that island. During the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy. It is certain, that under them the South Britons were reduced to a state of great vassalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives made a brave resistance against those tyrants of nations. The Roman emperors and generals, while in that island, assisted by the Britons, were frequently employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts, and they appear to have had no difficulty in maintaining their authority in the southern provinces.

Upon the inundations of those barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and

centre of the empire. As the Roman forces decreased in Britain, the Scots and Picts, who had always opposed the progress of the Romans in that island, advanced more boldly into the southern parts, carrying terror and desolation over the country. The intimidated Britons were so accustomed to have recourse to the Romans for defence, that they again and again implored their return. But the Romans, reduced to extremities at home, and fatigued with distant expeditions, acquainted the Britons that they must no longer look to them for protection, and exhorted them to arm in their own defence. That they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone, the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers; and having done this good office, took their last farewell of Britain about the year 448, after having been masters of the most fertile parts of it, for about 400 years.

The Scots and Picts, finding the island finally deserted by the Roman legions, attacked the wall of Severus with redoubled vigour, and 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 Britons had again recourse to Rome, and sent over an epistle for relief, 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 succours from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief. Gildas, who was himself a Briton, describes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful strains, and gives some confused hints of their officers, and the names of some of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Danmonii*, by whose advice, the Britons struck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horfa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in those days masters of what is now called the English Channel, and their native countries, comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overstocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progress of the Scots and Picts, and had the island of Thanet allowed them for their residence. But their own country was so barren, and the fertile lands of Britain so alluring, that in a very little time, Hengist and Horfa 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 was at this time so rude in England, 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. Nennius, who seems to have been contemporary with Gildas, mentions indeed a few facts, but nothing that can be relied on, or that can form a connected history. We can therefore only mention the names of Merlin, a reputed prince and prophet; Pendragon, the celebrated Arthur, and Thalieffin, whose works are said to be still extant, with others of less note. Arthur seems to have been upon the whole the most memorable character in British history. His superior abilities restored the declining affairs of the Britons. He defeated the Saxons in twelve battles, and what sets his celebrity beyond all comparison, is, that six or seven hundred places in the island still bear his name. After numerous and very bloody wars, in which the Britons were sometimes the enemies and sometimes the allies of the Scots and Picts, the Saxons conquered all England to the south of Adrian's, or rather Severus's wall; but the Scots and Picts seem to have

been masters of all the territory to the north, though they suffered the Britons, who had been driven into their territories, to be governed by their own tributary kings ; an intermixture that has created much confusion in history.

We have already given a sketch of the constitution and government which the Saxons introduced into England, and which form by far the most valuable part of their ancient annals. Ethelbert, king of Kent, who claimed pre-eminence in the heptarchy, as being descended from Hengist, one of the first invaders, married the king of France's daughter, and she being a Christian, pope Gregory the Great seized that opportunity to enforce the conversion of her husband to Christianity. For that purpose, about the year 596, he sent over to England, Austin, the monk, who converted the king and his people, and also Sebert king of the East Saxons, who was baptized, and founded the cathedral of St. Paul in London. The monk then attempted to bring the churches of the Britons in Wales to a conformity with that of Rome, particularly as to the celebration of Easter ; but finding a stout resistance on the part of the bishops and clergy, he is said to have persuaded his Christian converts to massacre them, which they did to the number of 1200 priests and monks. Austin is accounted the first archbishop of Canterbury, and died in 605, as his convert Ethelbert did soon after.

The Anglo-Saxons were happier than the nations on the continent ; being free from the invasion of the Saracens, who had erected an empire in the East upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very considerable trade ; and if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles, quoted by Tyrrel, Withred, king of Kent, paid at one time, in the year 694, to Ina, king of Wessex, a sum in silver equal to 90,000*l.* sterling. England, therefore, we may suppose to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. 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 most authentic monuments of history that any nation can produce. Architecture, such as it was, with stone and glass-working, were introduced into England ; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was served in silver plate. Ale and ale houses 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 Birthric, king of the West Saxons. At the court of Charles, he acquired the arts both of war and government. The northern nations, under the name of Danes, then infested the seas, and were no strangers to the coasts of England ; for about the year 833, they made descents upon Kent and Dorsetshire, where they defeated Egbert in person, and carried off abundance of booty to their ships. About two years after, they landed in Cornwall, and, though they were joined by the Cornish Britons, they were driven out of England by Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Winchester, his chief place of residence.

Egbert was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldest son Athelstan. By this time England had become a scene of desolation, through the renewal of the Danish invasions ; and Ethelwolf, after opposing them bravely for some time, 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) were so prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they show 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, his dominions were divided between two of his sons, Ethelbald and Ethelbert, Athelstan being then dead: but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert left his kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whose time, notwithstanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became masters of the sea-coasts, and the finest counties in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought many battles with the Danes, with various success, and when defeated, he found resources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was at one time reduced to an uncommon state of distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cowherd. He still, however, 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.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raising a maritime power, by which he secured his coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the university of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived those divisions, and the use of juries, which had fallen into disuse since the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was not only a scholar, but an author: and he tells us, that upon his accession to the throne, he had scarcely a lay subject who could read English, or an ecclesiastic who understood Latin. He introduced stone and brick buildings in palaces, as well as churches, though it is certain that his subjects, for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may seem incredible to modern times; but he had merchants who traded in East-India jewels; and William of Malmesbury says, that some of their gems were deposited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Othar, about the year 890, a full discovery of the coasts of Norway and Lapland, as far as Russia; and he tells the king in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he sailed along the Norway coast so far north as commonly the whale hunters use to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and useful allies, against the Danes, in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald. He is said to have fought no less than fifty-six pitched battles. He was inexorable against his corrupt judges, whom he used to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is so completely amiable and heroic, that he is justly dignified with the epithet of the great.

Alfred was succeeded by his son Edward the elder, under whom, though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their invasions. He died in the year 925, and was succeeded by his eldest son Athelstan. This prince, to encourage commerce, enacted, that every merchant who made three voyages on his own account to the Mediterranean, should be on an equality 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 coining money. His dominions were confined, towards the north, by the Danes, although his vassals still kept a footing in those counties. He was successful in his wars with the Scots, and died in 941. The reigns of his successors,

Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or disgraced by the influence of priests. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England. His reign was pacific and happy, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tine. 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 nation was at that time harassed by the Danes. To be liberated from them, Ethelred agreed to pay them 30,000*l.* which was levied by way of tax, and called *danegeld*, and was the first land-tax in England. In the year 1002, they had made such settlements in England, that Ethelred consented to a general massacre of them by the English. But this atrocity 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 Ethelred's son, Edmund Ironside (so called from his great bodily strength), to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being assassinated, Canute succeeded to the undivided kingdom. His son Harold Harefoot, who succeeded him, in 1035, did nothing memorable: and his successor Hardicanute was so degenerate a prince, that with him the Danish royalty ended in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, commonly called the confessor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling, a weak youth, being descended from an elder branch, had the lineal right. Edward the confessor was a mild, good-natured prince, a great benefactor to the church, and excessively fond of the Normans, with whom he had resided. He was governed by his minister, earl Goodwin, and his sons, the eldest of whom was Harold. He durst not resent, though he felt, their ignominious treatment of him. It is said, that he devised the succession of his crown to William duke of Normandy. Be that as it will, it is certain, that, upon the death of the confessor, in the year 1066, Harold, son to Goodwin, earl of Kent, mounted the throne.

William duke of Normandy, though a bastard, possessed that great duchy, and resolved to assert his right to the crown of England. For that purpose, he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers, of land and honours in England, to induce them to assist him effectually. By these means, he collected 60,000 of the bravest and most regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarrassed with fresh invasions of the Danes, William landed in England without opposition, Harold, returning from the North, encountered William in the place where the town of Hastings, in Suffex, now stands. A most bloody battle was fought between the two armies; and, Harold being killed, the crown of England was seized by William, in the year 1066.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can say little, but that they were in general, a rude, uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. Even so late 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 of the duke of Normandy. Conquest placed the people in a situation to receive slowly from abroad the rudiments of science and cultivation, and to correct their rough and licentious manners.

The loss which both sides suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors say, that Harold was so impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of numbers was on the side of the Norman. 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 knights fees,* which are said to have mounted to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great leaders who had assisted him in his conquest, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. To one of his favourites he gave the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independent of the crown. William found it no easy matter to keep possession of the sceptre. 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 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 measure possible to obliterate even the traces of the Anglo-Saxon constitution; though, at his coronation, he took the same oath that had been taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He caused a general survey of all the lands of England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the confessor's time) and an account to be taken of the villains, slaves, and live stock upon each estate; all which were recorded in a book, called Doomsday-book, which is now kept in the exchequer. But the repose of this fortunate and victorious king was disturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldest son Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now assumed the government as sovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. In this transaction we have the rise of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more blood, and been attended with more memorable achievements, than any other national quarrel which we read of in ancient or modern history. William, seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigour; and, with incredible celerity, transported a brave English army, and invaded France. He was every where victorious, but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, in the sixty-first of his age, and twenty-first of his reign in England. He was buried in his own abbey, at Caen in Normandy.

By the Norman conquest, England not only lost the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but also her principal nobility; who either fell in battle, in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they established themselves; and, what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or English, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England, by virtue of the conquest, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the accession of so much territory upon the continent. For though the Normans gained much of the English lands and riches, yet England gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to that crown. England likewise gained much by the great increase of naval power, and multitude of ships, wherein Normandy then abounded.

* Four hides, or 480 acres 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.

This, with the perpetual intercourse between England and the continent, gave an increase of trade and commerce, and of treasure, to the crown and kingdom.

The succession to the crown of England was disputed between the conqueror's sons, Robert and William Rufus, and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewise hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother; and consequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers and rebellious subjects. About this time the crusades to the Holy Land began, and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated matters with William for a sum of money, which the latter levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generosity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithstanding all the provocations which he had received from that quarter. He was accidentally killed, hunting in New Forest in Hampshire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

William Rufus was succeeded by his brother Henry I. surnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his elder brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry, partly by force and partly by stratagem, made himself master of his brother Robert's person, and duchy of Normandy; and, with a most ungenerous meanness, detained him a prisoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; meanwhile quieting his conscience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but successful war with France; and before his death he settled the succession upon his daughter, the empress Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her son Henry, by her second husband Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit, 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 upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a faithful subject in her natural brother Robert, earl of Gloucester, who headed her party, until her son grew up. A long and bloody war ensued, the clergy having absolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of succession; but at length, the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, having been abandoned by his partizans, was defeated and taken prisoner in 1141. Being carried before Matilda, she impotently upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and, when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, they were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his accession; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England, in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Gloucester, who had been likewise taken prisoner, upon obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from the government, by building 1100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. Stephen attempted to force them to declare his son Eustace heir apparent to the kingdom; and exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This measure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehensive of a second conquest; and the earl of Arundel, with the leaders of the nobility, proposed an accommodation, to which the parties agreed. Stephen was to retain the

name and office of king ; but Henry was acknowledged his successor. This accommodation was received with joy by the English, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars ; and Stephen having soon after died, Henry mounted the throne without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. surnamed Plantagenet, was the greatest prince of his time. He soon discovered considerable abilities for government, and had performed in the sixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified experienced warriors. At his accession to the throne, he found the condition of the English boroughs greatly improved, by the privileges granted to them in the struggles between the late kings and their nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and advanced the boroughs to such a height, that if a bondman remained in one of them a year and a day, he was by such residence made free. He erected Wallingford, Winchester, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the services which the inhabitants had performed for his mother and himself.

He resumed the excessive grants of crown lands, made by Stephen. 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. In attempting to resist them, he was opposed by the celebrated Thomas Becket, whom he had promoted to the see of Canterbury. Becket was popular, intrepid, impetuous, and inflexible, and as great an enemy to the despotism of the barons, as Henry was to the authority of the church. The king assembled his nobility at Clarendon, and the constitutions there enacted, were regarded as in fact abolishing the dominion of the Roman see over the clergy of England. It became very soon after convenient for Henry to remove Becket from his kingdom, and accordingly the prelate was arraigned, and said to be convicted, for robbing the public treasury, while he held the office of chancellor. Becket fled into France, where the pope, and the French king, espoused his quarrel. Those of the English clergy, who adhered to Henry, were excommunicated, and his subjects were absolved by the pope from their allegiance. Henry was immediately reduced to the necessity of submission, and Becket was restored to his country and his office in the year 1170. Henry's hatred of the archbishop was, however, no secret, and he was heard to say, " Will nobody revenge his monarch's cause upon this audacious priest ? " Upon this hint, four knights, who heard these words, set out from Normandy, where Henry then was, for England, and arriving in Canterbury at the head of a party of soldiers, they found the archbishop in his palace, surrounded by some of his clergy. After a short conversation, the conspirators retired, and Becket went into the church, to evening service. Here they followed and murdered him at the altar. The death of no individual probably ever excited such universal indignation. Henry's affairs were on the verge of ruin, upon the suspicion that he was privy to the murder ; and he found it necessary to submit to be scourged by monks at the tomb of Becket, to appease the rage of the people.

Henry endeavoured to cancel the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and he 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 homage to Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions.

Henry distinguished his reign by the conquest of Ireland ; and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, heiress of Guienne and Poictou, he became almost as powerful in France as the French king himself, and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his old age, he was unhappy, having embarrassed himself in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Rosamond. His inconstancy was resented by his queen Eleanor, who seduced her sons, Henry, Richard, and John, into re-

peated rebellions, which affected their father so much as to throw him into a fever, of which he died at Chinon in France, in the year 1189, and the 57th year of his age. The sum which he left in ready money at his death, has, perhaps, been exaggerated; but the most moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000*l*.

Henry, about the year 1176, divided England into six parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year, and hold *assizes*, to administer justice to the people, as is practised to this day. He so far abolished the barbarous practice of forfeiting ships which had been wrecked on the coast, that if one man or animal were left alive in the ship, the vessel and goods were restored to the owners. He was also the first king of England who levied a tax on the moveable or personal estates of his subjects, nobles as well as people. Their zeal for the holy war made them submit to this innovation; and a precedent being once obtained, this taxation became in following reigns an usual method of supplying the necessities of the crown. As a specimen of the ferocious manners of the twelfth century, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbishop of York, and Richard archbishop of Canterbury. The pope's legate 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 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. was the third, but eldest surviving son of Henry II. The clergy persuaded him to make a ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon, and performed actions of valour that gave countenance even to the fables of antiquity. After several bloody, but fruitless campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin, emperor of the Saracens; 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 fordid emperor at 150,000 marks, about 300,000*l*. of the present British money. To raise this ransom proved so difficult, that all the church plate of his dominions is said to have been melted down. A tax was likewise laid on all persons, both ecclesiastical and secular, of one fourth of their income for one year; and twenty shillings on every knight's fee; also one year's wool was borrowed of the Cistercians; besides money raised upon the clergy of the king's French dominions; and two thousand marks were bestowed by William king of Scotland, in gratitude for Richard's generous behaviour to him before his departure.

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at that time. An ox sold for three shillings, which answers to nine shillings sterling, and a sheep at four pence, or one shilling. Weights and measures were now ordered to be the same all over the kingdom. Richard upon his return, found his dominions in great disorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom he pardoned; and by the invasions of the French, whom he repelled; but he was slain in besieging the castle of Chalons, in the year 1199, in the 42d year of his age, and 10th of his reign.

His brother John, who succeeded him, is said to have put to death Arthur, the eldest son of his brother Geoffrey, who had a 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 declared himself a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons resented his meanness, by taking arms; but he repeated his submissions to the pope,

and, after experiencing various fortunes of war, was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged him, in 1216, to sign the great deed, so well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is in fact nothing more 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 came to be more enlarged, and property to be better secured, this charter, by various subsequent acts and explanations, became applicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgeses. John had scarcely signed it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, while the barons withdrew their allegiance from him, and transferred it to Lewis the eldest son of Philip Augustus, king of France. This offended the pope; and the barons being apprehensive lest their country should become a province to France, they returned to their allegiance to John; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refused to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and the 49th of his age, just as he had a glimpse of resuming his authority. He may be called the father of the privileges of free boroughs, which he established and endowed all over his kingdom; and it was under him that the stone bridge, as it stood some years ago, was finished across the Thames at London. The city of London owes some of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave the city a charter to choose a mayor out of her own citizens, and to elect sheriffs and common council men annually, as at present.

The crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's son, who was but nine years old. He was a feeble and insignificant prince. The events of his life are so complicated and unimportant, that, as Mr. Hume has observed, no power of eloquence, or charms of composition, could make them worthy of a perusal. They consist entirely of frivolous, though bloody quarrels with his barons, and his clergy. His son Edward being engaged in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, in the 64th year of his age, and 56th of his reign. Interest had in that age amounted to an enormous height. There are instances of 50l. per cent. being paid for money. This tempted the Jews to remain in England, notwithstanding the grievous oppressions which they suffered, from the bigotry of the age and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a demand of 8000 marks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refused compliance. They now lost all patience, and desired leave to remove with their effects from the kingdom. But the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppression you complain of? I am myself a beggar; I am despoiled; I am stripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 marks; and if I had said 300,000 marks, I should not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my son, prince Edward, 15,000 marks a year; I have not a farthing; and I must have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Bristol; and, on his refusal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he should consent: the Jew lost seven teeth, and then paid the sum required. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely disused, and that by *duel* discouraged. Bracton's famous law treatise was published in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite* to his coronation dinner, which consisted of 278 bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 sheep, 22,600 hens and capons, and 13 fat goats. Alexander III. king of Scotland was at the solemnity; and on the occasion 500 horses were let loose, for all who could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and sagacious prince, and being well acquainted with the laws, interests, and constitution of his kingdom, his regulations and improvements

of his laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, annexed their principality to his crown, and was the first who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldest son. He regulated the forms of parliament as they now stand, with little variation. Perceiving that the indolence of his subjects rendered them a prey to the Jews, who were the great usurers and money-dealers of the times, he, besides other scenes of the like kind, hanged two hundred and eighty in one day, on an accusation of having adulterated the national coin: the rest, to the number of fifteen thousand, he expelled out of England, and seized all their property. We have in the article of Scotland, mentioned the unjustifiable manner in which he abolished the independency of that kingdom. He had frequent wars abroad, especially with France, in which he was not very successful; and would willingly have abridged the power of the barons and great nobility had the design been practicable.

His connexions with the continent produced some advantages to his subjects, particularly by the introduction of reading glasses and spectacles; though they are said to have been invented, in the former reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the same time, and the regulation of gold and silver workmanship was ascertained by an assay and mark of the goldsmith's company. Edward often contested with the pope, especially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, in the 69th year of his age and 35th of his reign, while he was upon a final expedition to exterminate that people. He ordered his heart to be sent to the Holy Land, with 32,000*l.* for the maintenance of the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His son and successor Edward II. showed early dispositions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveston, his chief minion, a Gascon, being banished by his father, he mounted the throne with vast advantages, both political and personal, all which he soon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveston, loaded him with honours, and married Isabella, daughter to the French king, who restored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had lost in France. The barons 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, in 1314, the greatest defeat that England ever suffered. Gaveston was beheaded by the barons, who placed young Hugh Spencer as a spy upon the king; but he soon became his favourite. Through his pride, avarice, and ambition, he was banished, together with his father, who had been created earl of Winchester. The queen, a restless and worthless woman, persuaded her husband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's standard, and after defeating them, restored him to the exercise of all his prerogatives. A cruel use was made of those successes, and many of the feudal tyrants fell victims to the queen's revenge. At last she became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her prisoner, and had been one of the most active amongst the rebels. 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 was now wanting to complete her guilt but the murder of her husband. A few months after he had been made prisoner, he perished in Berkley castle, by a species of death too shocking to be described.

The misfortunes of Edward II. were in part brought upon himself by his imprudence and misconduct. His government was sometimes arbitrary, and he was too much engrossed by favourites, who led him into sanguinary measures. It was also a misfortune to him, that he was opposed by Robert Bruce, king of Scotland,

in consequence of whose military and political abilities, and their own civil contentions, the English lost that kingdom. But it has been alleged in his favour, that none of his predecessors equalled him in his encouragement of commerce, and that he protected his trading subjects with great spirit against the Hanseatic league and the neighbouring powers.

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 service Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, became soon sensible of their designs. At the head of a few chosen friends, he surprised them, in the castle of Nottingham. Mortimer was hanged as a traitor on the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herself died in custody, after a confinement of twenty-eight years. Edward very soon had a quarrel with David king of Scotland, though he had married his sister. David was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who did homage to Edward for Scotland. Upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without issue) who had succeeded by virtue of the Salic law, which, as the French asserted, 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, sister to the three last 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 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. The English had learned to provide themselves with proper armour, and submit to military exercise and proper subordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward, was therefore a continued scene of success and victory. In 1340, he took the title of king of France, using it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu et mon droit*, "God and my right." At Cressy, August 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated by 30,000 English, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but sixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four). The loss of the French far exceeded the total number of the English army, whose loss consisted of no more than three knights, one esquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of Poitiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with greatly superior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were entirely 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 successes 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 invaded England about six weeks after the battle of Cressy. Thus Edward saw two crowned heads his captives at London. But it must not be forgotten, that he was forced to pawn his own crown, as well as the jewels of his queen in security for the money, which he had borrowed. To return from France into England, he was obliged to solicit the indulgence of his continental creditors. His crown remained for eight years an unredeemed pledge. The French and Scotch kings were afterwards ransomed; David for 100,000 marks, after having been eleven years in captivity, and John for three millions

of gold crowns. 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 fortune 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 the colour of his armour, undertook to restore Peter the cruel to the throne of Castile. He succeeded, but 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, in the 65th year of his age, and 51st of his reign.

Bent on the conquest of France, Edward gratified the more readily his people in their demands for security to their liberties and properties; but his ambition exhausted his regal dominions; and his successor, when he mounted the throne, was less powerful than Edward in the beginning of his reign. He invited over and protected fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and established the woollen manufacture among the English, who, till this time, generally exported the unwrought commodity. In his reign, few of the English ships, even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But, notwithstanding the vast increase of property in England, villenage still continued in the royal, episcopal, and baronial manors. Historians are not agreed whether Edward made use of artillery in his first invasion of France, but it certainly was known before his death. The castle of Windsor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may serve as a specimen of the condition of the people in that age. Instead of alluring workmen by contract and wages, he 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, was supposed to be a small fortune; which was a great temptation to enter into the service. The wages of a master carpenter were limited through the whole year to three pence per day, and those of 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. He was a man of abilities, learning and piety. The doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the same with those propagated by the reformers of the sixteenth century. He had many friends in the university of Oxford and at court, and was powerfully protected against the hostile 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 only eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The English arms were then unsuccessful both in France and Scotland. John of Gaunt's foreign connexions with the crowns of Portugal and Spain, injured the kingdom; 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 conduct of these insurgents was violent, and in some respects unjustifiable; but it cannot 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 years of age, but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the revolvers, at the head of the Londoners, while Wal-

worth, the mayor, and Philpot, an alderman, under pretence of an amicable conference, stabbed Tyler in the back. This assassination, with the seasonable behaviour of Richard, quelled the insurrection for that time; but it broke out with the most bloody effects in other parts of England; and, though it was suppressed by making many examples of severity among the insurgents, yet the common people never afterwards lost sight of their own importance, till by degrees they obtained those privileges which they now enjoy. Had Richard been a prince of real abilities, he might, after the suppression of this insurrection, have established the tranquillity of his dominions on a sure foundation; but he delivered himself up to worthless favourites, particularly Michael de la Pole, son to a merchant of London, whom he created earl of Suffolk and lord chancellor, judge Trefilian, and, above all, Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created marquis of Dublin, and duke of Ireland. They were obnoxious both to the parliament and people; and Richard stooped in vain to the most ignoble measures, to save them. They were attainted, and as state trials have almost always been nothing better than a tragical farce, they were condemned to suffer as traitors. The chief justice Trefilian was hanged at Tyburn; but de la Pole and the duke of Ireland escaped to the continent, where they died in obscurity. Richard then associated to himself a new set of favourites. His barons 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 perhaps any king of England had ever been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, son to the duke of Lancaster, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard banished them both, with particular marks of injustice to the former, who, by his father's death, soon after became duke of Lancaster. Richard transporting over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a strong party was formed in England, who offered the crown to the duke of Lancaster. He landed from France at Ravenspur in Yorkshire, and was soon at the head of 60,000 men. 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. He was soon after starved to death, or murdered in prison, in the year 1399, in the 34th year of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He had no issue by either of his marriages.

Henry the fourth, son of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III. obtained the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, and the nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect of his title would render him dependent upon them. At first, some conspiracies were formed against him, by the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Gloucester and Salisbury, and the archbishop of York; but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness. The Percy family, the greatest in the north of England, complained of Henry for having deprived them of some Scotch prisoners, whom they had taken in battle; and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his son Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels. Henry suppressed the insurrections of the Welch, under Owen Glendower; and by his prudent concessions to his parliament, he at last conquered all opposition, while, to remedy the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him and his heirs male, thereby shutting out all female succession. The young duke of Rothsay, heir to the crown of Scotland, afterwards James I. of that kingdom, fell a prisoner into Henry's hands about this time, a circumstance which was of service to his government. Before his death, which happened in 1413.

in the 46th year of his age, and the 13th of his reign, he had the satisfaction to see his son and successor, the prince of Wales, disengage himself from many youthful follies, which had till then disgraced his conduct. This monarch reigned and died in agonies of remorse for the assassination of his predecessor.

The English marine was now so greatly increased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burden, carrying on trade in various parts, particularly with the Hanse towns. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. was the first prince who gave to the different orders in parliament, especially that of the commons, their due weight. It is surprising, that learning was at this time at a much lower pass in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Bishops, when testifying synodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy, in the following terms; viz. "As I cannot read myself, N. N. hath subscribed for me;" or, "As my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request, I have subscribed." By the influence of the court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the session of parliament, in the year 1401, for the burning of heretics, occasioned by the great increase of the Wickliffites, or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtree, parish priest of St. Osithe, in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and sheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was against England at the accession of Henry V. in 1413, so greatly had luxury increased. The Lollards were numerous, and sir John Oldcastle, lord Cobham, having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himself at their head, with a design to overturn the government; this appears to have been a groundless accusation, though he was put to death in consequence of it. Henry engaged in a contest with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces, that had been wrested from England in the preceding reigns; also the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ransom since the reign of Edward III. and availing himself of the distracted state of that kingdom, by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, took Harfleur, and then defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt. He had been reduced by his rashness to the utmost extremity of distress; and if the commanders of the French army had not been actuated by superlative madness, they might have forced him to surrender at discretion. This battle equalled the glory of Cressy and Poitiers, but exceeded them in its consequences, on account of the vast number of French princes of the blood, and other noblemen, who were slain or taken prisoners. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made such alliances, and divided the French among themselves so effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whose husband Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princess Catherine, to disinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her husband's life, and himself and his issue successors to the French monarchy. By these measures, the monarchy must have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king still continued Henry's captive) furnished the dauphin with effectual supplies, and preserved the French crown for his head. Henry, however, made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proscribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England, to levy a force that might crush the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been successful, had he not died of a pleuretic disorder, in 1422, in the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

By an authentic and exact account of the revenues of the crown during this reign, published by sir John Sinclair, it appears that they amounted to eighty thousand pounds a year, which this writer estimates as equivalent, from the cheapness of provisions at that time, to five hundred thousand pounds of the present British specie. This sum was not nearly sufficient to carry on his wars, and this con-

queror 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.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to support 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 abilities 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 gallant actions, and at last laid siege to Orleans, which, if taken, would have completed the conquest of France. This siege was raised by the valour and good conduct of the maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in history. She was born of the lowest extraction, and bred as a cow-keeper, and sometimes a helper in stables, at public inns. She must, notwithstanding, have possessed a fund of sagacity as well as valour. After a series 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 Compeigne, and burnt alive as a witch at Roan, May 30, 1431, to the disgrace of the English nation.

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 provinces in that kingdom, notwithstanding the efforts 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 king of Sicily ; a woman perfectly fitted for the tempestuous period in which she lived, and who excelled whatever is recorded, either in history or fable, of female valour and fortitude. The cardinal of Winchester, who was the richest subject in England, if not in Europe, presided at the head of the treasury, and by his avarice ruined the interest of his country, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the most powerful subject in England. He was descended by the mother's side from Lionel, an elder son of Edward III. and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was descended from John of Gaunt, Edward's youngest son ; and he affected to keep up the distinction of a white rose, that of the house of Lancaster being red. He paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he lost no opportunity of forming a party to assert his right, but acted at first with profound dissimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, and a professed enemy to the duke of York ; but, being impeached in parliament, he was banished for five years, and had his head struck off on board a ship, by a common sailor. This was followed by an insurrection of 20,000 Kentish men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who sent to the court a list of grievances ; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London. The inglorious management of the English affairs in France proved advantageous to the duke of York ; and, upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a strong party of the nobility his friends ; but being considered as the fomentor of Cade's rebellion, he professed the utmost respect 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 abilities, joined to some virtues, rendered him extremely popular. It is said, that, upon an average, thirty thousand persons dined every day at Warwick's different manors and castles in England. Both father and son were secretly on the side of York; and during a fit of illness of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both sides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen, with wonderful activity, assembled an army; but the royalists were defeated in the first battle of St. Alban's, and the king himself was taken prisoner. The duke of York was once more proclaimed 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 1459, openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the king-maker. A parliament being assembled, it was enacted, that Henry should possess the throne for life, but that the duke of York should succeed him, to the exclusion of all Henry's issue. The queen alone rejected this compromise. She retreated northwards, and the king being still a prisoner, she pleaded his cause so well, that assembling a fresh army, she fought the battle of Wakefield, in 1460, where the duke of York was defeated and taken prisoner; and was, by the orders of Margaret, instantly beheaded.

It is remarkable, that though the duke of York and his party openly asserted his claim to the crown, they still professed allegiance to Henry: but the duke of York's son, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained several victories over the royalists. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and, defeating the earl of Warwick in the second battle of St. Alban's, delivered her husband; but the disorders committed by her northern troops disgusted the Londoners so much, that she durst not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her husband were obliged to retreat northward. She soon raised another army, and fought the battle of Towton. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both sides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field. Margaret and her husband were obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with a generous protection.

This civil war was carried on with uncommon animosity: Margaret was as blood-thirsty as her opponents; and when prisoners of either side were made, their deaths, especially if they were persons of rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret, by the concessions that she made to the Scots, soon raised a fresh army there, and in the north of England, but met with repeated defeats, 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 to conduct the princess into England. When the secret of Edward's marriage was revealed, the haughty earl, deeming himself affronted, returned to England, inflamed with rage and indignation. From being Edward's best friend, he became his most formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, they and the French king, Louis XI. declared for the restoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, while 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 War-

wick in the battle of Barnet. A few days after, he defeated a fresh army of Lancastrians, and made Margaret a prisoner, together with her son, prince Edward, who was murdered in cold blood, as his father Henry VI. then a prisoner in the Tower of London, was a few days after, in the year 1471. Edward, being now settled on the throne, exterminated the Lancastrian party, wherever he could find them.

In the year 1474, the kingdom was in a deplorable situation. The king was immersed in expensive and criminal luxuries, in which he was imitated by his nobility; some of whom, to support their extravagancies, became pensioners to France. The parliament seemed to act only as the executioners of Edward's bloody mandates. The best blood in England was shed on scaffolds; and the duke of Clarence, who had formerly deserted to Warwick, and again deserted back to Edward, fell a victim to his brother's jealousy. Edward, partly to amuse the public, and partly to supply the vast expenses of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel, and sometimes to treat, with France; but his irregularities occasioned his death (1483), in the twenty-third year of his reign, and the forty-second of his age.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increased during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was contrived by the English, as the only means to preserve the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandise; but foreign influence prevented Henry's passing the bill for that purpose. The invention of printing, which is generally supposed to have been introduced into England by William Caxton, and which received some countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor state. The lord Tiptoft was its chief patron, and seems to have been the first English nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are mostly re-translations, or compilations from the French or monkish Latin. Horace Walpole, a very entertaining antiquarian, has inserted, in his catalogue of royal and noble authors, a few curious specimens of Tiptoft, and of Caxton. They bear as little resemblance to the literature of the eighteenth century, as the exercises of boys at school do to the verses of Virgil or Buchanan. The famous Littleton, judge of the common pleas, and Fortescue, chancellor of England, flourished at this period.

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had exercised her power with little prudence, and ennobled many of her obscure relations. Her eldest son, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle, the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's want of popularity among the great men, found means to bastardize her issue by act of parliament, under the scandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the same time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at last accepted the crown, which was offered to him by the Londoners; having first put to death all the great men whom he thought well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the tower by his direction, is doubtful. Horace Walpole, now lord Orford, whose ingenuity has illustrated, and whose eloquence has adorned, this obscure period of English history, is of opinion, that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders, that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the English were prepossessed so strongly against Richard, as the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond, the surviving heir of the house of Lancaster, who still remained in France, carried on a secret correspondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends, and on 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 displayed astonishing acts of personal valour. This intrepid and intelligent usurper was killed, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother. This event happened in the year 1485.

There can scarcely be a doubt but that the crimes of Richard have been exaggerated by historians, who were solicitous to flatter his worthless successors. He was exemplary in his distributive justice. He kept a watchful eye over the great barons, whose oppression he abolished, and he was a father to the common people. He founded the society of heralds; an institution, which, in his time, was found necessary to prevent disputes among great families. During his reign, short as it was, we have repeated instances of his relieving cities and corporations that had fallen to decay. He was remarkable for the encouragement of the hardware manufactures, and for preventing their importation into England, no fewer than seventy-two different kinds being prohibited, by one act. He was the first English king who appointed a consul for the superintendency of English commerce abroad; one Strozzi being nominated for Pisa, with an income of the fourth part of one per cent. on all goods of Englishmen imported to or exported from that city.

Though the act of bastardy obtained by Richard affected the daughters as well as the sons of his brother, yet no disputes were raised upon the legitimacy of the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter to Edward IV. She was married, as had been before concerted, to Henry of Lancaster, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houses, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending families of York and Lancaster. Henry, however, rested his right upon conquest, and seemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the most avaricious monarch that ever reigned in England; and, at the same time, very jealous of his power; for he shut up the earl of Warwick, son to the duke of Clarence, brother to Edward IV. as a close prisoner in the tower, though he was but a boy, and though nothing was alleged against him but his affinity to the house of York. He was the first who instituted that guard called *Yeoman*, which still subsists, and he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges assumed by the barons, in abolishing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could shelter himself from the law, on assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. Some rebellions happened in the beginning of his reign, but they were easily suppressed; as was the imposture of Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the imprisoned earl of Warwick: Simnel was taken prisoner, and, after being employed in the king's kitchen, was made one of his falconers. The despotic court of star-chamber owed its original to Henry; but at the same time, it must be acknowledged, that he passed many acts, especially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his subjects. They expressed their gratitude by the great supplies and benevolences which they afforded him, and, as a finishing stroke to the feudal tenures, an act was 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 reached 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.

Henry, after encountering and surmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the possession of his throne, by Perkin Warbeck, a young

man, 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 stripling, which were various and uncommon; but it is certain, that many of the English, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public satisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland, banished Perkin from his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's eldest daughter, yet, by the kind manner in which he entertained and dismissed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, especially as he refused to deliver up his person, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impostor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was shut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to escape with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. Perkin made a confession of his impostures before his death; but it might have been extorted from him, either by the hope of pardon, or the fear of torture. In 1499, Henry's eldest son, Arthur, prince of Wales, was married to the princess Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying soon after, such was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 crowns of gold, that he consented to her being married again to his second son, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the first match had not been consummated. Soon after, Henry's eldest daughter, the princess Margaret, was sent with a magnificent train to Scotland, where she was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, in the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was possessed of 1,800,000l. sterling, which is equivalent in quantity of silver to two millions seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds at present. This is the computation of sir John Sinclair. In the reign of this monarch, wheat was sometimes sold for three shillings and four pence, of old English money, or somewhat more than five shillings sterling. On a moderate average, its present price in England is, at least, seven times higher. Hence we are justified in estimating the value of Henry's treasure, in the same increased proportion, and, by this way, two millions seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds, are equal to nineteen millions, two hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling. To form a proper judgment of the dreadful methods by which this immense sum had been extracted from the English nation, we must remember, that England is, at present, about twice as populous, and at least an hundred times as wealthy, as it was at the end of the fifteenth century. When we consider, therefore, the confined field, upon which this monarch commenced his operations, which were continued without intermission, during the whole twenty-four years of his reign, it seems evident, that Henry was an accomplished extortioner. Combining the advantages of a modern king of England, with the despotism of his own exchequer, he would, in the present age, have absorbed in his coffers, one half of the current cash of Europe. The example of Henry may serve as a lesson to nations, and to kings, of the inexhaustible resources, that may be derived from the simple and natural exertion of frugality. Edward the third, and Henry the fifth, pledged their crown itself for money to support romantic and ruinous wars. Almost every other English sovereign, from the conquest, has harried his subjects with mendicant demands. The economy of Henry secured him from disgraceful poverty.

Columbus transmitted to Henry his plan for the discovery of America. His brother, who was entrusted with the proposal, obtained the confidence of the English monarch; but having been detained on his way to England by pirates, Columbus had, before his return, engaged with the court of Spain. On such trifling accidents depends the destiny of empires! Cabot, a Venetian navigator, was, in 1498, employed by Henry, in discovering the continent of North America. In praise of this

king, we must observe, 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 the enterprizes which they had in view. It appears from Fleetwood, Madox, and other writers, that agriculture, and the breeding of cattle, made considerable advances during the reign of Henry.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the accession of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any other 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, he might have held the balance of power in Europe, had he been careful to improve his advantages. Imagining that he stood not in need of a supply, he improved not Cabot's discoveries, but suffered the East and West Indies to be engrossed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conquest of France. These projects, and his establishing a royal navy, for the permanent defence of the nation, led him into incredible expenses. He was on all occasions cheated by the emperor Maximilian, nicknamed *the penniless*; and early in his reign, he gave himself also entirely up to the guidance of the celebrated cardinal Wolsey, the son of a butcher at Ipswich. While he was involved in a French war, his lieutenant, the earl of Surry, conquered and killed James IV. of Scotland who had invaded England. Henry became a candidate for the imperial crown of Germany, during its vacancy, but soon resigned his pretensions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Austria, king of Spain, the latter of whom 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 suffered both parties to betray him, and paid a great part of their expenses, till at last he was forced to lay vast burdens upon his subjects.

Henry continued all this time an enemy to the reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Roman catholic 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 doubts with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. The charms of Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, inflamed the scruples of his conscience, and he married her, before he had obtained a divorce from Rome. The difficulties which he met with in this process, ruined Wolsey, who died heart-broken at being stripped of his immense power and possessions. He had long possessed an almost absolute, though invisible command of his master, and his fall, which was, upon the whole, undeserved, affords a memorable proof of the peculiar insignificance of royal friendship.

A perplexing conjunction of affairs induced Henry at last to cast off all dependence upon the church of Rome. Upon a slight suspicion of the inconstancy of Anne Boleyn, he cut off her head, and likewise, after a sham trial, butchered several of her relations. The immense plunder that Henry obtained by seizing all the ecclesiastical property in the kingdom, enabled him to give full scope to his sanguinary disposition; so that the most innocent blood of England was shed on scaffolds. Among other victims, were the aged countess of Salisbury, the marquis of Exeter, and the lord Montague.

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, suffered her to reside in England on a pen-

tion of 3000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catharine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whose head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency, and it was more than suspected that her exaltation had not corrected her taste in love. His last wife was Catharine Par, who narrowly escaped the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the reformation. The cruelty of this infamous tyrant increased with his years, and was vented on protestants and catholics without distinction. He put the brave earl of Surry to death, without any crime being proved against him; and his father the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the same fate, had he not been saved by the death of Henry himself, on the evening before his intended execution. This auspicious event happened in the year 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

By the help of printing, the reign of Henry VIII. is better known than that of his predecessors. His attention to the naval security of England was commendable; and he sometimes employed his arbitrary power for the interests of his subjects. Had his reformation gone through all the forms prescribed by the laws, and the courts of justice, it could never have taken place, or at least not for many years. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was sometimes an encourager of both. He gave a pension to Erasmus; yet he seems to have been equally divested of moral principle, and of classical taste. In 1539, George Buchanan, by far the most celebrated of modern latin poets, and who can lose nothing by a comparison with the first writers of antiquity, was driven out of Scotland, by cardinal Beaton, who had been sollicitous of conducting him to the stake. He addressed the king and his minister Cromwell, in two very beautiful poems, but without obtaining notice. Henry protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign, noblemen's houses began to have an air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a constant friend to Cranmer: and upon the whole, he advanced and encouraged many, who became afterwards the instruments of a reformation more decent than his own.

This transaction began by the suppression of three hundred and seventy-six lesser monasteries. Two years after, six hundred and five great abbeys, together with ninety colleges, and an *hundred and ten hospitals*, for the relief of the poor, were by one act annihilated. From an account drawn up in the year 1717, it appears, that the annual income of the houses suppressed by Henry, amounted to about two hundred and seventy-three thousand pounds, and at a moderate computation, they would now yield, at least, six millions sterling per annum. The monasteries, previous to their desolation, had been the great asylum of indigence; and the poor-rates, which were soon after found or imagined to be necessary, derive their origin from the devastations of this *pious* monarch. In his reign, the bible was ordered to be printed in English; Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was erected into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king, instead of lord, of Ireland.

By a war with France, which cost Henry one million three hundred and forty thousand pounds, he acquired nothing but Boulogne and its territories. They could not defray the expense of keeping them, and were therefore restored to France, by Edward the sixth, for something less than a tenth part of the sum, which the contest had cost Henry. A notable specimen of the advantages of the war system.

Edward VI. was but nine years old at the time of his father's death; and after some disputes were over, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards protector and duke of Somerset, a declared friend of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the see of Rome. Much of the catholic influence remained in the council, which was embroiled at once with France and Scotland. The protector marched with an army into Scotland, to force that

people to give their young queen Mary, only child of James V. in marriage to Edward, with a view to unite the two kingdoms; a measure which the late king, with his dying breath, had recommended to his executors. The protector defeated the Scots at Pinkney, but the match never took place; and the factions then forming against the protector, obliged him to return with his army to England. His own brother, who married the queen dowager, was at the head of his enemies; and the dying, he paid his addresses to the princess Elizabeth, afterwards queen. This gave a pretence to the protector to bring his brother, who was lord admiral, to the block.

The alterations in the church were not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, having been deprived of the relief which they had from abbeys and religious houses, and ejected from their small corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often suppressed by the government. A war, which was not very happily managed, broke out with Scotland; and the protector, who was upon the whole, a weak, but conscientious man, was first driven from the helm of state, and then lost his head upon a scaffold. Dudley, duke of Northumberland, then took the lead in the government, and drove Edward into many impolitic measures. The reformation went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, some of them foreign divines. In some cases, particularly with regard to the princess Mary, they lost sight of that moderation which the reformers had before so strongly recommended; and some sanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. The youth of Edward excuses him from blame, and his charitable endowments, such as the hospitals of Bridewell and St. Thomas, and also several schools which still exist and flourish, shew the goodness of his heart. He died of a consumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstitutional will: for he set aside his sister Mary from the succession, which was claimed by the duke of Northumberland for lady Jane Grey, daughter to the duchess of Suffolk, younger sister to Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the English nation recognized the claim of the princess Mary. Lady Jane was beheaded; and her husband, lord Guildford Dudley, with his father, the duke of Northumberland, suffered in the same manner.

Mary being thus settled on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyatt, and proceeded to re-establish the Roman catholic religion in England. She lighted up the flames of persecution, in which archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Cooper, and Latimer, and some other clergymen perished, besides other sacrifices of both sexes and all ranks, amounting, in the whole, to more than two hundred and seventy persons. As Cranmer himself had been engaged in burning a female heretic in the preceding reign, in spite of the tears and protestations of young Edward, his fate could not deserve much lamentation. Bonner, bishop of London, and Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, were the chief executioners of these bloody mandates.

Mary was married to Philip II. king of Spain, who, like herself, was an unfeeling bigot; and the chief praise of her reign is, that, by the marriage articles, provision was made for the independency of the English crown. By the assistance of troops, with which she supplied 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 connexions with the French court, is said to have broken Mary's heart. Her desirable exit was much more

than a compensation for whatever England suffered by the loss of Calais. She died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the most discouraging circumstances, both at home and abroad. The Roman catholic religion was the established one in England; 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, whom she had on the continent, was Philip, king of Spain, the principal support of the church of Rome, both on the continent of Europe, and in England. Elizabeth was no more than twenty-five years of age at the time of her accession; but her sufferings under her bigoted sister had taught her caution and policy.

In matters of religion, she succeeded with surprising facility; for, in her first parliament, in 1559, the laws establishing the Roman catholic religion were repealed, her supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity was passed soon after. And it is observed, that of 9400 beneficed clergyman in England, only about 120 refused to comply with the reformation. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend, her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, sent troops and money, which supported the Scotch malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the supposed murderer of the former, and her other misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where she had been often promised a safe and an honourable asylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profession of friendship, and that she detained the unhappy prisoner eighteen years in England, then brought her to a sham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without sufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head.

As to her affairs with Spain, the same Philip, who had been the husband of her late sister, upon Elizabeth's accession to the throne, offered to marry her, but she avoided his addresses; and, by a train of skilful negotiations between her court and that of France, she kept the balance of Europe so undetermined, that she had leisure to unite her people at home. She sometimes supported the protestants of France against their persecuting princes; and sometimes gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the strongest assurances that one or other of them should be her husband; by which artifices, she kept that court, which dreaded Spain, on such amicable terms with her government, that it showed no resentment when she assassinated the queen of Scotland.

When Philip was no longer to be imposed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had so long amused and baffled him, he employed the immense sums which he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the most formidable armament that perhaps had ever been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the greatest general of that age. He likewise obtained a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. But the largeness of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they engaged; the lord admiral Howard and the sea officers under him engaged, defeated, and pursued the Spanish fleet for several days; the seas and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, and few of the enemy recovered their ports. Next to the admiral lord Howard of Effingham, sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion, in which the Spaniards are said to have lost 81 ships of war, large and small, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for some time supported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip,

and had sent them her favourite, the earl of Leicester, who acted as her viceroy and general in the Low Countries. Though Leicester behaved ill, yet her measures were wise, and the Dutch established their independency; she then sent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval commanders, into the East and West Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treasures, taken from the Spaniards.

After the death of the earl of Leicester, the young earl of Essex became Elizabeth's chief favourite, and commanded the land-forces in a joint expedition with the lord admiral Howard, in which they took and plundered the city of Cadiz, destroyed the ships in the harbour, and did other damage to the Spaniards, to the amount of twenty millions of ducats.

Elizabeth in her old age grew distrustful, peevish, and jealous. Though she undoubtedly loved the earl of Essex, yet she teased him by her caprice into the madness of taking arms, and then struck off his head. Some years after, she was seized with a sudden fit of melancholy which brought her to her grave in 1603, in the 70th year of her age, and 45th of her reign; she had previously named her kinsman James VI. king of Scotland, and son to Mary, for her successor.

Elizabeth supported the protestants in Germany against the house of Austria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She overawed the Roman catholics, in her own dominions, and made a farther reformation in the church of England, in which state it has remained ever since. In the year 1600, the English East India company received its first formation, that trade having till then been in the hands of the Portuguese, who, at this time, were subjects to Spain; English factories were established in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

Before queen Elizabeth's reign, the kings of England had usually recourse to the city of Antwerp for voluntary loans; and their credit was so low, that, besides the exorbitant interest of 10 or 12 per cent. they were obliged to make the city of London join in the security. The trade to Turkey was begun about 1583; and that commerce was immediately confined to a company by queen Elizabeth. Before that time, the grand signior had always conceived England to be a dependent province of France. About 1590, there were in London but four persons rated in the subsidy book so high as 400l. In 1567 there were found, on enquiry, to be 4851 strangers of all nations in that city, of whom 3838 were Flemings, and only 58 Scots.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the successes of her reign have disguised it; for she was far from being a friend to personal liberty, and she was guilty of many stretches of power against the most sacred rights of mankind. We must reprobate the severe statutes against the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conscience, and by which many suffered death. An account of her political conduct in Ireland will be given, when we treat of that kingdom.

This queen was equally distinguished by personal ugliness, and by more than even a female fondness for dress. She left behind her a wardrobe, said to contain about three thousand different gowns. She has been celebrated as the grand restorer and protector of true religion in England; but her attention was frequently diverted to less elevated objects. The incredible number of her male favourites announces the ardour of her sensibility, and the robustness of her constitution. Though in every thing else avaricious, she was in this respect abundantly liberal. To Essex, she at one time gave a present of thirty thousand pounds; and the total amount of the sums bestowed upon him is reported, by sir John Sinclair, at three hundred thousand pounds, which were equal to at least two millions sterling in the eighteenth century. Dudley, earl of Leicester, was a still greater favourite of "the maiden queen." The nature of the services which excited such a prodigality of gratitude, is fully explained in a letter addressed to Elizabeth herself, by Mary queen of Scot-

land. This curious production, written in French, has been printed by dr. Gilbert Stuart, in his history of Scotland. Her domestic government was frequently dreadful. A single patent, contrived for the advantage of four rapacious courtiers, occasioned the ruin of seven or eight thousand industrious subjects. In 1592, Raleigh and Frobisher took a Spanish vessel, said to be worth two hundred thousand pounds. Elizabeth had a tenth share ; but her partners were forced to compound for an hundred thousand pounds. She exacted every new year's day from her dependants, gifts to the value of about sixty thousand crowns, and she wrenched an hundred thousand crowns annually, from non-conformists, and Roman catholics, for licences of absence from the established church.

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 inveterate animosities between the two kingdoms. James was far from being destitute of natural abilities for government ; but he had received wrong impressions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune, that he mounted the English throne under a full conviction, that he was entitled to all the tyrannical 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. It is remarkable, that when Richard the third, and Henry the seventh, engaged at Bosworth, England beheld the contest with so much indifference, that both armies together did not exceed the diminutive number of twenty-five thousand men. On the accession of Henry, the government passed at once from a very turbulent aristocracy to perfect despotism. During the reign of his son, political affairs remained in the same state, and five unsuccessful rebellions served only to extinguish the last spark of freedom. In the feeble minority of Edward the sixth, the nobility began to recover their importance, but were a second time depressed by Mary. As Elizabeth was placed on the throne by means of her protestant subjects, it became necessary for her to show considerable indulgence to that party, in temporal as well as spiritual affairs. The divine art of printing, by far the most important discovery of ancient or modern ages, had begun to shed some rays of knowledge among the most illiterate classes of mankind*. From exertions and sufferings with respect to the next world, men of sense turned their eyes to survey the present. In the monarchies of Europe, they could find nothing but a labyrinth of abuses ; and accordingly, in several countries, a protestant and a republican were synonymous appellations. In Scotland, for example, the presbyterian clergy embraced frequent opportunities of treating their sovereigns with outrageous contempt ; and, in some of their productions, the principles of democracy are illustrated and enforced in the most animated style. Above all, Buchanan, whose learning and eloquence commanded the unlimited veneration of his contemporaries, explained the origin of government, as derived altogether from the people, with an energy and propriety of expression, which has very seldom been equalled, and certainly cannot be surpassed. "Never," says a modern critic, "did *the rights of man* meet with a more determined partisan, with an advocate more acute, eloquent, philosophical, and sublime†." This extraordinary person was appointed preceptor to James the sixth, and exerted his

* Cardinal Wolfey had early foreseen and foretold the consequences of typography. In a convocation of English clergy, he gave this memora-

ble advice. "You must either destroy the press, or the press will destroy you."

† Miscellanies in prose and verse, by lord Gardenstone, second edition.

utmost abilities, though, as he acknowledged, to very little purpose, in attempting to cultivate the puny mind of his pupil. His verses on the birth of that prince, so different from the sycophant abortions of a modern laureat, present a striking monument of his fidelity to the duties of his office. But the feeble understanding of James was incapable of embracing such a luminous burst of thought. He displayed the additional folly of attempting to proscribe the writings of an author, who was perused with admiration by every man of letters in Europe.

On the accession of James to the throne of England, Henry the fourth, of France, dispatched his favourite, the duke of Sully, to congratulate him, and if possible to persuade him to embark in *the balance* of Europe. His poverty, his indolence, his timidity, and his common sense, of which he was far from being destitute, made this project entirely impracticable. Sully relates that he was much disgusted by the studied disrespect of James for the memory of his predecessor. The court of England did not even condescend to wear mourning for her death; it appears from sir John Sinclair, that the expenses of her funeral were discharged with some reluctance, and, indeed, the execution of Mary Stuart might have excused in James a still more marked violation of decency. His first speech in the parliament of England, was not adapted to raise a high opinion of his abilities. The harangue lasted several hours, and an uncommon command of muscles must have been required to hear it without a smile. A short specimen may deserve insertion.—“And now I must crave a little pardon of you, (that since kings are, in the word of God itself, called Gods, as being his vicegerents on earth, and so adorned and furnished *with some sparkles of his divinity*,) to compare some of the works of God the great king, towards the whole and general world, to some of his works towards me and this little world of my dominions.”—His first important measure was an attempt to effect an union between England and Scotland; but he was disappointed. 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.

The severity of the laws against the Roman catholics had exasperated that sect to a very high degree, and some individuals among them entered into a dreadful conspiracy to obtain revenge for all their oppressions. They hired a cellar under the house of peers, and placed thirty-six barrels of gunpowder there, with a resolution to kindle a train, and blow up the whole building on the first day of the meeting of parliament in 1605. In this plot, the leaders were neither men of profligate characters, nor of desperate fortunes. It was the spirit of bigotry and revenge only that prompted them to so terrible an undertaking. The project was discovered, some of the associates were killed, and others taken prisoners, who, being on trial found guilty, were executed. Cecil, James's minister, a wily politician, has been suspected of framing this plot to strengthen the hands of government by its detection.

That this prince was a ridiculous pedant cannot be denied; and it is certain, that he had no just ideas of the English constitution and liberties, which led him into many absurd disputes with his parliament: he and his ministers were continually inventing new ways to raise money; as by monopolies, benevolences, 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 of Nova Scotia, each to pay a certain sum; and instituted a new order of knights baronets, which was to be hereditary, for which each person paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a series of theological contests, in which he showed himself more the theologian than the prince, and in 1617, he attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland; but the zeal of the people baffled his design. Without enquiring from what motive his love of peace proceeded, it was eventually productive of many

blessings to England; and though his perpetual negotiations have given rise to much censure against his person and government, yet they were less expensive and destructive to his people than any wars which he could have entered into. He restored to the Dutch their cautionary towns, which had been transferred to Elizabeth, upon their discharging part of the mortgage that was upon them; but he obtained from Spain at the same time an acknowledgment of their independency.

James gave his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector palatine, the most powerful protestant prince in Germany, who soon after assumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abused for his tame behaviour, after that prince had lost his kingdom, and electorate, by the imperial arms; but it is to be observed, that he strongly opposed his son-in-law's assuming the crown of Bohemia; and that had he kindled a war to reinstate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have stood single in the contest, except the feeble and uncertain assistance which he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing is more certain, than that James furnished the elector with large sums of money; and that he actually raised a regiment of 2200 men, under sir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany. The Germans, under the marquis of Anspach, refused to second them against Spinola the Spanish general, and 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, on whom he squandered prodigious sums. In the first fourteen years of his reign, four hundred and twenty-four thousand four hundred and sixty-nine pounds were wasted in this way. His first minion was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was created earl of Somerset. He married the countess of Essex, who for this purpose had obtained a divorce from her husband, and was with her found guilty of poisoning sir Thomas Overbury in the Tower; but James pardoned them both. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private English gentleman, who, upon Somerset's disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of favour and familiarity with his sovereign. James had at that time formed a system of policy for attaching himself intimately to the court of Spain, that it might assist him in recovering the palatinate; and to this system he had sacrificed the brave sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hostilities against the Spanish settlements in the West Indies. His eldest son, Henry prince of Wales, for several years before his death, possessed an annual revenue of more than fifty one thousand pounds, which was at least equal to two hundred and fifty thousand pounds at present. James was solicitous to obtain the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his son Charles. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the father and son, travelled in disguise to Spain, along with Charles, where a farce of courtship was played; but the business ended in nothing.

James was perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not persuade to furnish money equal to his demands. At last he agreed to the marriage of his son with the princess Henrietta Maria, sister to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the fourth of France. James died before the completion of this match. His death happened in 1625, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who restored the pure taste of architecture; and in his reign the poetical genius of England displayed its greatest lustre, though not encouraged at court. Mr. Middleton at this time projected the conveying of water into the city from Hertfordshire, by means of pipes, which are now called the *New River*. We shall not fatigue the reader by a disgusting catalogue of the enormous extortions practised by James. His wealth was spent as disgracefully as it had been acquired.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage with the princess Henrietta Maria. She disdained whatever was incompatible in government with her despotic education. The turbulence of the people had forced the late king into a quarrel with Spain, and Charles early gave such indications of his tyrannical disposition, that the parliament was remiss in furnishing him with money for carrying on the war. In a short time Buckingham persuaded Charles to take the part of the French Hugonots. They were so ill supported, that Rochelle was reduced to extremity, by which the protestant interest in France received an irrecoverable blow. The blame of all the public miscarriages and disgraces was thrown, by the voice of the parliament and people, upon the favourite; but he sheltered himself from their vengeance under the royal protection, till he was assassinated by one Felton, a subaltern officer, as he was ready to embark for the relief of Rochelle, which soon after surrendered to cardinal Richlieu.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, which happened in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the English patriots, in that enlightened age, justly considered as so many acts of tyranny. Without authority of parliament, he 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 resenting those proceedings by drawing 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 mr. Selden, a gentleman equally distinguished by his love of liberty, and 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 circumstance now operated towards the ruin of Charles. The commons would vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances; upon which Charles, presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly or not at all understood, levied money upon obsolete claims, particularly for knighthood, and raised various taxes without authority of parliament. Among other wretched expedients to raise money, Charles sold patents of monopoly for salt, soap, and leather, for gauging red herrings, for marking butter casks, and for gathering rags. By operations of this kind, at once so beggarly and destructive, two hundred thousand pounds were obtained, of which, according to Clarendon, fifteen hundred only came to the king's coffers. 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; but neither party were sincere in observing the terms; and Charles discovering that some of their nobility had offered to throw themselves under the protection of the French king, he, by virtue of his prerogative, raised a fresh army. All his prepara-

tions were baffled by the Scots, who made themselves masters of Newcastle and Durham; they were then openly befriended by the house of commons, and obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles did this with so bad a grace, though he took a journey to Scotland for that purpose, that it did him no service; on the contrary, it encouraged the commons to rise in their demands. He made Wentworth, earl of Stafford, a man of 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. Stafford 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 a minister and privy counsellor in England, and as lord lieutenant of Ireland, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injustice and oppression. As a natural consequence, he was, on the 22d of May 1641, brought to the block, though much against the inclinations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people, to grant the warrant for his execution. Laud was also beheaded; but his execution did not take place, till the 10th of January, 1645.

In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had passed into a law, the *petition of right*, which was intended by the parliament for the future security of the subject. It is thereby enacted, "That no man shall hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or such like charge, without common consent, by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous instances, so that an almost universal discontent prevailed throughout the nation. Of the insurrection in Ireland we shall give a full account, when treating of that kingdom. The bishops were expelled from the house of peers, on account of their constant opposition to the designs and bills of the other house; and the leaders of the English house of commons still kept up a correspondence with the discontented Scots. Charles went in person to the house of commons, January 4, 1642, and demanded that lord Kimbolton, mr. Pym, mr. Hampden, mr. Hollis, sir Arthur Haselrig, and mr. Stroud, should be apprehended; but they had previously made their escape. This act of Charles was resented as high treason against his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction that he could make. The city of London took the accused members into its protection. The train-bands were raised, and the mobs were so unruly, that Charles removed from Whitehall to Hampton-court, and from thence into Yorkshire, where he raised an army to oppose that which the parliament, or rather the house of commons might raise in and about London.

Notwithstanding the innumerable acts of tyranny and oppression, of which the king and his ministers had been guilty, yet, when the civil war broke out, numbers repaired to the regal standard. Many of the nobility and gentry, and the greatest part of the landed interest, were much attached to the crown. The parliament however, took upon themselves the executive power, and were favoured by most of the trading towns and corporations; but their great resource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindsey, a brave but not enterprising commander; he had also great dependance on his nephews, the princes Rupert and Maurice, sons to the elector Palatine, by his sister the princess Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the ascendancy; but in its progress, affairs took a different turn. The earl of Essex was made general under the parliament, and the first battle was fought at Edge-hill, in Warwickshire on the 23d of October, 1642; both parties claimed the victory; but the parliament were so much

* Strafford attempted to make an apology to his old friends for his desertion. "You have left us," replied Pym, "but we shall not leave you, *while your head is on your shoulders*."

distressed, that they invited the Scots to come to their assistance, and they accordingly entered England with twenty thousand 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 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, that under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, a plan was fixed for dismissing the earls of Essex and Manchester, and the heads of the presbyterians, from the parliament's service, on a supposition that they were not for bringing the war to a speedy end, nor for reducing the king too low; and for promoting Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a presbyterian, and some independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with much loss to both parties. Two battles were fought at Newbury; one on September 20, 1643, and the other October 27, 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewise many other successes; and having defeated sir William Waller, he pursued the earl of Essex, who remained still in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to escape by sea. His infantry surrendered prisoners to the royalists, though his cavalry delivered themselves by their valour.

The first fatal blow that the king's army received, was at Marston-moor, July 2d, 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed and 1500 taken prisoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been balanced by the successes of Charles in the West, yet his whole conduct was a succession of mistakes, till at last his affairs became irretrievable. Many treaties of peace were commenced, and the heads of the presbyterian party would have agreed to very moderate terms with Charles. 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 became desperate. Sir Thomas Fairfax whose father, lord Fairfax, remained in the North, was at the head of the army, which was now new modelled; so that Charles successively lost all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the decisive battle of Naseby, June 14, 1645, owing partly, as usual, to the misconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed by fresh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought himself safe.

The Scots were then besieging Newark; and no good understanding subsisted between them and the English parliamentarians. In this situation of his affairs, Charles escaped in disguise from Oxford, and came to the Scotch army, before Newark, on May 6, 1646, upon a promise of protection. The Scots, however, were so intimidated, by the resolutions of the parliament at Westminster, that in consideration of receiving 400,000*l*, of their arrears, they put the person of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commissioners.

The presbyterians were 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 4, 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might still take place with the king, they imprisoned 41 of the presbyterian members and voted the house of peers to be useless while that of the commons was reduced to 150, most of them officers of the army. In the mean while, Charles, who promised himself relief

from those diffensions, 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 the hands of colonel Hammond, the parliaments 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 convinced of the insincerity of the king, once more seized upon his person, brought him a prisoner to London, carried him before a court of their own erection, and, after an extraordinary trial, in which he refused to plead any defence, they struck off his head before his own palace at Whitehall. This great act of justice was accomplished on the 30th of January, 1648-9, in the 49th year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

Some have supposed that Charles, had he been restored to his throne, 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. In spite of the tyranny of his government, his death was extravagantly lamented by great numbers; and many, who had been his opponents in parliament, became, in the course of the civil war, converts to his cause, in which they deservedly 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.

The republicans who brought Charles to the block, were men of different persuasions and principles, but many of them possessed great 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 made prodigious exertions for asserting the importance of England by sea. They were joined by many of the presbyterians; and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards against the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced a fleet superior to any that had ever been seen in Europe. 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 commonwealth passed an act of navigation; and, declaring war against the Dutch, who were till then thought invincible at sea, they effectually humbled those republicans.

By this time Cromwell, who hated subjection to a parliament, had the address to get himself declared commander in chief of the English army. Admiral Blake, and other English admirals, spread the terror of the English name by sea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten; for which reason he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, but with 300 musqueteers, to parliament, and dissolved it, opprobriously driving the members from the house, of which he locked the door, and put the key into his pocket. He next annihilated the council of state, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration of government to about 140 persons, whom he summoned to assemble at 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 less 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, during all this time, wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he must encounter unfurmoutable difficulties from Fleetwood, and his other friends, if he should persist in that resolution. He was, however, declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exercised as much power as had almost ever been annexed to the regal dignity. He next proceeded to new-model the government, and various were the schemes that were proposed, established, and proved abortive.

A desire to fill his coffers made him take part with France against Spain. He lent the former 6000 men, who took Dunkirk, of which he kept possession. Finding that his usurpation gave as much discontent to his own party, as terror to the royalists, he had thoughts of renewing the model of the constitution, and actually erected a house of lords out of his own creatures. 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 the character of Cromwell have been dazzled by his astonishing success, and by the lustre of his fortune; but when we consult the state papers of his secretary Thurloe and others, the surprise in a great measure vanishes. After a reign, (for what other name are we to give it?) of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

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. Neither they nor Cromwell had formed any plan of legislation, and his safety was owing to the different sentiments of government that prevailed among them. In the year 1651, 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 soccage in chief, and likewise the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances, that had been complained of during the late reigns, were likewise removed. Next year, the 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, increased greatly in riches and in power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. The famous navigation act was now planned and established, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were abolished, and liberty of conscience to all sects was granted, to the vast advantage of population and manufactures, which had suffered greatly by Laud's intolerant measures. In fact, the principles of the independents, the sect to which Oliver belonged, were very like those of the present democracy of France. They were equally hostile to the existence of monarchy, of the peerage, and of a national church. To the above national improvements, we may add the modesty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to augment their 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 magnificence in his person, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation with the wisdom and magnanimity of a Roman consul, and in

many instances interposed effectually in favour of foreign protestants. He found in Cooper an excellent miniature painter; and his coins, executed by Simon, exceed in beauty and workmanship any of that age. He performed numerous actions worthy of praise; and as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit persons for the several parts of administration, so he paid some regard to men of learning, and particularly to those entrusted with the care of youth at the universities.

No friend to the British constitution can ever speak of Cromwell with much respect. Under the name of a republic, there was all the tyrannical spirit of despotism. The people had no share in the legislation. Cromwell, with the title of protector, exercised all the powers of an arbitrary monarch. His parliaments were but a name. He made what laws he pleased; and by the help of his army, which supported them, he carried them into execution, and forced all to submit to his will.

Richard Cromwell, an honest but unambitious man, succeeded his father in the protectorship. He was placed in this office by those who wanted to make him the tool of their own government; and he soon after sunk into peaceful obscurity, without the least struggle or opposition. The presbyterians were very zealous in promoting the restoration of Charles the second, of which they had very soon reason to repent; but it was effected by a general concurrence of the people, who dreamed that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by restoring the ancient system. George Monck, who was successively a traitor to all parties, had the principal share in restoring Charles II. For this baneful service, he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. was restored, or strictly speaking, elected, in 1660. 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. Fortune has never displayed her levity more strikingly, than by the very undeserved elevation of this worthless adventurer. From his defeat by Cromwell at Worcester, to his arrival at Paris, about six weeks had elapsed, and in that, as De Retz observes, he had not once changed his shirt. After an exile for several years, he was suddenly advanced from penury to the throne of three kingdoms, and a civil list of four hundred and sixty-two thousand pounds per annum. The causes of this strange revolution may be traced to the ignorance of the great body of the people, who never properly understood their own rights and interests. The system of war and taxation, supported by their ancient monarchs, had been continued by Cromwell, from the necessity of bridling their turbulence, and diverting it from himself to foreign objects. The nation had been successively betrayed by the leaders of all parties; they were equally divested of knowledge, of judgment, of unanimity, and of fortitude, to act for themselves, and in the choice of Charles could at worst fear only a change of rulers. Had they been capable of adopting a liberal and philosophical plan of government, and equal representation, an universal right of conscience, and of citizenship, they would not likely have sent for Charles Stuart to assist them in settling their constitution.

The extravagant joy manifested on his arrival in England, must be ascribed to the same humble instinct, by which a dog wags his tail on the return of his master. Those who exulted in the restoration of monarchy, regarded it chiefly as a ladder by which they expected to ascend to the summit of importance. It was necessary that some party should be disappointed, and it is not certain that the two thousand presbyterian clergymen ejected on Bartholomew's day in 1662, would, if victorious, have made a less disgraceful use of their authority than their antagonists. The fate of the republic of England may serve as a warning to others states, to spread, as widely as possible, the light of political

information, since a proper acquaintance with their own rights is the surest basis of felicity to the citizens of a republic. Jamaica, which had been conquered by Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a sugar colony. The Royal Society was instituted, and many popular acts respecting trade and colonization were passed. But Charles sunk into indolence and the company of loose women; faults which had the same consequences as despotism itself. London was burnt down in 1666; and its being rebuilt with more convenience and elegance proves the increase of trade. There were no bounds to the profligacy of Charles, which led him into the most extravagant expenses. He sold Dunkirk to the French king to supply his necessities, after he had squandered away the immense sums granted by parliament. The price as stated by Mr. Hume, was 400,000*l.* sterling. His secret connexions with France were of the most scandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of his kingdom, and infamous to his memory.

He gave way to the popular clamour against Clarendon, as the adviser of the sale of Dunkirk. He was an episcopal bigot, of knowledge and abilities, and more honest in his intentions than most ministers, but was sacrificed by Charles to the sycophants of his hours of licentiousness. The first Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on under the duke of York; but, through Charles's misapplication of the public money, which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to insult the royal navy of England. They sailed up the Medway as far as Chatham, and destroyed several ships of the line. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Britain and the states general.

In 1671, Charles seized upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8 per cent. and shut up the exchequer. He pretended to justify it by the necessity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a fresh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almost proved fatal to that republic, for the English fleet and army acted in conjunction with those of France. The duke of York commanded the English fleet and displayed bravery in that station. The duke of Monmouth, the eldest of the numerous natural sons of Charles, commanded 6000 English forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries. Holland must have fallen into the hands of the French, but for the vanity of Lewis XIV. who was in haste to enjoy the triumph in his capital. All confidence was now lost between Charles and his parliament, notwithstanding the victories which the English fleet obtained by sea against the Dutch. The popular discontent at last obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in consideration of 200,000*l.* which they paid him. Charles complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in the coffee-houses, and ordered them to be shut up; but in a few days after, they were opened again. Great rigour and severity was exercised against the presbyterians, and all other non-conformists to episcopacy, which was again established in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addressed him to make war with France in the year 1677, but he was entirely devoted to that crown, and received its money as a pensioner regularly, and hoped, through its influence and power, to be absolute. The trade of England was now much increased, and Charles entered into some vigorous measures for its protection and support.

His connexions with France, gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exasperated against the French and the Roman catholics; at the head of whom was the king's eldest brother, and presumptive heir to the crown, the duke of York. Charles dreaded the prospect of a civil war, and offered any concessions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were secretly determined that the duke of York should never reign. In 1678, the infamous and detestable Titus Oates, and some others, pretended to discover a plot, charging the Roman catholics with a

design to murder the king, and to introduce their religion by means of Jesuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more inconsistent, than some parts of their narrative, yet it was supported with the utmost zeal on the part of the parliament, to answer their sinister views. The aged lord Stafford, Coleman, secretary to the duke of York, with many Jesuits, and other catholics, were publicly executed on the evidence of persons whose perjury is not only now incontrovertibly established, but must have been from the most contradictory testimony known to the very judges who condemned these sufferers. The queen herself escaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire to the continent, and Charles, though convinced that the whole was an imposture, yielding 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. 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 the people.

The duke of York and his party on their side discovered a plot formed by the protestants for killing or seizing the king, and altering the government. Lord Russell, who had been remarkable in his opposition to the catholic succession, Algernon Sydney, and several other distinguished protestants, were tried, condemned, and suffered death*. 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 has been conjectured that Charles repented of some of his arbitrary steps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth and to have executed some measures for the future tranquillity of his reign; when he died, February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of his age, and 25th of his reign. He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, with whom he received a large fortune in ready money, besides the town and fortress of Tangier in Africa; he left behind him no lawful issue. The descendants of his natural sons and daughters have since enriched the stock of British nobility.

In recounting the principal events of this reign, we have been sufficiently explicit as to the principles, or, properly speaking, as to the want of them, both in the king and in the opposition to his government. The heads of the latter were presbyterians and moderate churchmen, who had been active in the war against the late king, and the usurpations that followed. They had been raised and preferred by Charles, in hopes of their being useful in bringing their party into his measures; and he would probably have succeeded, had not the remains of the old royalists, and the dissipated part of the court, fallen in with the king's foible for pleasure. The presbyterians, however, availed themselves of their credit, in the early part of his reign, when the fervor of loyalty was abated, to bring into parliament such a number of their friends, as rendered the reign of Charles very uneasy; and it was owing perhaps, to them, that civil liberty and protestantism now exist in the English government. On the other hand, they seem to have carried their jealousy of a Roman catholic successor too far; and many of the people without doors certainly thought that the parliament ought to have been satisfied with the legal restraints and disabilities which Charles offered to impose upon his successor. This gave such a turn to the affections of the people, as left Charles, and his brother, at the time of his death, almost masters of the laws and liberties of England; they governed

* In Dalrymple's memoirs of Britain and Ireland, satisfactory evidence has been produced, that some of the most flaming patriots of that age were pensioners to France. Those who question this circumstance, may consult a note added by Mr. Hume to the first posthumous edition of his history, vol. 8, page 143.

in an arbitrary manner, and were supported by the clergy who preached up the old doctrines of passive obedience and non resistance. Flattering addresses were presented from many persons, asserting the prerogative of the crown to the most extravagant height.

In the reign of Charles, 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 this reign was equally distinguished for mathematics and natural philosophy. Charles loved and understood the arts, but neither encouraged nor rewarded them. His memory has been censured for being the first English prince who formed a body of standing forces, as guards to his person, though that precaution had been adopted by Henry the seventh. He carried the art of ship-building to excellence: and the royal navy of England, at this day, is much indebted to his own and his brother's attention to naval affairs. As to his religion, James, soon after his death, published to the world, that his brother, notwithstanding his repeated professions of regard to the protestant faith, was a Roman catholic, and died such, of which there are now incontestible proofs.

The opposition which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne, seems to have vanished at the accession of James II. The popular affection towards him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all resistance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almost ruined protestantism. The army and people supported him in crushing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful son of Charles II. and, as such had assumed the title of king. The duke's head was cut off, July 15, 1685, and some hundreds of his followers were hanged, drawn and quartered, in the west of England, exhibiting a scene of barbarity, conducted by Jefferies and Kirk, scarcely ever equalled in any country. James, upon this success, rashly resolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-resistance. The experiment disappointed him. He employed the most offensive measures for rendering the catholic the established religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of dispensing with the known laws; he instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court; openly received and admitted into his privy council the pope's agent's, and treated them with uncommon respect. He imprisoned seven bishops for presenting a petition against reading his declaration for liberty of conscience, by which he greatly alarmed his protestant friends; and his encroachments upon the civil and religious rights of his subjects were disapproved, as desperate, by the pope himself.

In this extremity, many individuals, both in England and Scotland, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, the nephew and son-in-law of James, by his marriage with the princess Mary: he embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, pretending it to be his sole intention to restore church and state to their due rights, and disclaiming, in the name of God, all design on the government. Upon his arrival, he was joined not only by the whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends; and even his daughter, the princess Anne, and her husband, George prince of Denmark, left him, and fled to the prince of Orange. James might still have reigned; but he was surrounded by the emissaries of William, and by Jesuits, who wished him rather to quit his throne, than fail of restoring the Roman catholic religion*. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen and son, then 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 is termed, in English history, *the revolution*.

* It is now incontestibly proved, that several of James's counsellors, especially Sutherland, were paid by William to urge him to those very measures which precipitated his ruin.

This short reign afforded little room for the national progress in its true interests. James is allowed, on all hands, to have understood them, and, had it not been for his arbitrary principles, he would have made a tolerable king.

The folly of James gave advantages to his rival, which he could not otherwise have hoped for. When a convention of the states was called, there seemed reason to believe, that had not James abdicated his throne, it would not have been filled by the prince and princess of Orange. Even then it was not done without long debates. The chief object of William, 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 never before known. Dr. Swift says, that this war cost England an hundred thousand lives, and sixty millions sterling; she gained nothing by it, but the beautiful appendage of Hudson's-bay. From an enquiry made by order of parliament in 1707, it further appeared, that in the course of this contest, four thousand vessels had been captured by the enemy. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two last reigns, and William gave his consent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and secured. The friends of liberty complained, and with the greatest reason, that this bill 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 national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found sufficient to raise and maintain a standing army. The revenue was therefore now divided; part was allotted for the current national service of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is still called the civil list money, was given to the king, for the support of his house and dignity.

It was the sense that the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could have provoked them to agree to the revolution; for they never, in other respects, had been at so high a pitch of wealth and prosperity, as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ships, according to dr. Davenant, was that year double what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which, in 1660, was only 62,594 tons, was, in 1688, increased to 101,032 tons. The increase of the customs, and the annual rental of England, was in the same proportion. It was therefore, no wonder, that a strong party, both in the parliament and nation, should be formed against the government, which was hourly increased by the king's predilection for the Dutch. The war with France, which, on the king's part, was very far from being successful, required an enormous expense, and the Irish continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many Englishmen who wished well to the Stuart family, dreaded their restoration by conquest; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne against James, who there lost all the military honour he had acquired before. The marine of France proved superior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but, in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invasions were threatened, and conspiracies discovered every day against the government, and the supply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new resources for money. A land-tax was imposed, and every subject's lands were taxed, according to their valuations given in by the several counties. Those, who were the most loyal, gave the highest valuations, and were the heaviest taxed, and this preposterous burden still continues; but the greatest and boldest operation in finances, that ever took place, was established in this reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon parliamentary securities, which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projectors of this scheme are said to have been dr. Burnet, the historian, and Charles

Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. Their chief arguments for such a project were, 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 that the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more industrious.

William met with so many mortifications from his parliament, that he 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 which he experienced, 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, who had died of the small-pox; Dec. 28, 1694, in the thirty-third year of her age; but the government was continued in his person. After peace was restored, the commons obliged him to disband his army, excepting an inconsiderable number, and to dismiss his Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of seeing 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 ministry 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 Britain.

This act of insolence rendered William again popular in England. The two houses passed the bill of abjuration, and an address for a war with France. The last act of William's reign was his passing, on the 12th of June, 1701, the bill for settling the succession to the crown in the house of Hanover. His death was hastened by a fall from his horse soon after he had renewed the grand alliance against France, on the eighth of March, 1702, in the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not adapted by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding; he lost sight of those principles of liberty, of which he had made such solemn profession, and 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 been most hostile to their party, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour, and resuming their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government was extended to silence all enquiries into the guilt of those who had been the chief instruments in the misdemeanors of the former reign. England, under William, suffered severely both by sea and land, and the public debt, at the time of his death, amounted to sixteen millions three hundred and ninety four thousand pounds sterling.

Anne, princess of Denmark, by virtue of the act of settlement, and being the next protestant heir to her father James II. succeeded to throne. As she had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought that she would have deviated from his measures; but she resolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ as her general the earl of Marlborough, who had been imprisoned in the late reign on a suspicion of Jacobitism, and whose wife was her favourite. She could not have made a better choice of a general and a statesman.

Charles II. of Spain, in consequence of the intrigues of France, and at the same time resenting the partition treaty, to which his consent had not been asked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Lewis XIV. and Philip was

immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance that subsisted between France and that nation till the late revolution in France. Philip's succession was disputed by the second son of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himself the title of Charles III. and his cause was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy against the house of Bourbon.

The 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 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 person with that department.

In the course of the war, several important victories were obtained by the earl who was soon after created duke of Marlborough. Those of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the first effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim, in 1704, the empire of Germany was saved from immediate hazard. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the honour of the victory was confessedly owing to the latter. The French general, Tallard, was taken prisoner, and sent to England, and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, besides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the same time, the English admiral, sir George Rook, reduced Gibraltar. The battle of Ramillies, in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loss of the enemy there has been variously reported; it is generally supposed to have been about 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken prisoners; but the consequences showed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the states of Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognized Charles for their sovereign, while the confederates took possession of Louvain, Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and several other considerable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French, was at Oudenarde, in 1708, where they lost 3000 on the field, and about 7000 taken prisoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet, near Mons, after a very bloody action, in which the French lost 8000 men, and the *conquerors* twenty thousand. Thus far we have recounted the flattering successes of the English; but they were balanced by great misfortunes.

The queen had sent a very fine army to assist Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. 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; but he entrusted the affairs of that board to underlings, who were either corrupted or ignorant; and complaints coming from every quarter, with regard to that department, the house of commons was put into very bad humour, nor did affairs seem to be much better managed after the prince's death. The immense sums raised for the current service of the year were severely felt, and but indifferently accounted for, as it appeared that England had borne the chief burden of the war; that neither the Austrians, Germans, nor Dutch, had furnished their stipulated quotas, and that they trusted to the English parliament for making them good. A design for taking Toulon miscarried through the selfishness of the court of Vienna, whose chief object of attention was their own war in Naples. At the same time, England felt severely the scarcity of lands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

These circumstances, and many internal disputes about the prerogative, the succession, religion, and other public matters, had created great ferments in the nation and parliament. The queen at first adhered firmly to the duke of Marlborough, and his friends; who, finding that the tories inclined to treat with France, put themselves at the head of the whigs, who were for continuing the war, from which the duke and his dependents, according to their stations, received immense emoluments.

The failure of the Germans and Dutch could not, however, be longer dissimulated, and the personal interest of the duchess of Marlborough with the queen began to be shaken by her own haughtiness.

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 Gertruydenburg, 1710. They were managed, on the part of England, by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townshend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. The French king complied with all the demands of the allies, except that of employing his own troops against the duke of Anjou, in Spain, where the fortune of war continued still doubtful. But all his offers were most insolently rejected by the duke and his associate, as only designed to amuse and divide the allies; and the war was continued.

The haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburg, and the expected change of the ministry in England, saved France; and from that day fortune began to smile on her affairs. 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 people was, that "the church was in danger," which, though groundless, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthless preacher, had espoused this clamour in one of his sermons, with the slavish doctrines of passive obedience, and non-resistance. It was agreed by both parties to try their strength in this man's cause. He was impeached by the commons, and found 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, in 1712, taken from the duke of Marlborough, 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 name was almost equivalent to an army.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king sent plenipotentiaries; and the allies being defeated at Denain, they grew sensible that they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the English. In short the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader need not be informed of the particular cessions made by the French, especially that of Dunkirk; by the death of the emperor Joseph, his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain; and the sordid infidelity of the allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the British parliament almost the whole weight of the war, made the peace abundantly defensible. Mr. Harley, who was created earl of Oxford, and lord high treasurer of England, was then considered as the queen's first minister; but the negotiations for the peace went also through the hands of Mr. Prior and lord Bolingbroke, one

of the principal secretaries of state. The ministry endeavoured to stifle the complaints of the whigs and the remonstrances of prince Eugene, who arrived in England on the part of the allies, by falling upon the contractors, foragers, and other agents of the fleet and army, whom they accused of corrupt practices.

The queen was at this time in a critical situation. The whigs condemned the peace as injurious to the honour and interest of the nation. The majority of the house of lords was of that party, but the house of commons favoured the court. The queen was afraid that the peers would reject the peace, and, by an unprecedented exercise of her prerogative, she created twelve peers at one time, which secured the approbation of her measures. 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; after which she fell into a lithargic disorder, which carried her off upon the first of August 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign. She was a favourite with neither party in her parliaments till towards the end of it, when the tories affected to idolize her; yet her people pretended to term her the *good* queen Anne. 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 monied interest upon the security of parliament.

Anne had no strength of mind, by herself, to carry an important step 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 Britain; his mother who would have been next in succession, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with strong prepossessions against the tory ministry, most of whom he displaced; but this did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England. Many of the Scots, by the despotic insolence of the whigs, were, in 1715, driven into rebellion, but were suppressed in the beginning of the next year. Some noblemen and gentlemen in the north of England joined a party of the Scotch rebels, but they were surrounded at Preston, where they delivered up their arms, and their leaders were sent prisoners to London, where some of them suffered. The tories and jacobites raised mobs and commotions at London, Oxford, and other parts of England; but they were soon quelled, by making example of their leaders. Lord Oxford was imprisoned for two years: but the prosecution of him by the whigs, for the share which he had in the peace of Utrecht, was secretly disapproved of by the king, and dropped.

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. By the same doctrine, they might have extended the term to thirty years, or they might have declared their seats hereditary. Several other extraordinary measures took place about the same time. Mr. Shippen an excellent speaker, and member of parliament, was sent to the tower, for saying that the king's speech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for composing a silly pamphlet, that in later times would not have been thought worthy of animadversion. The whig ministry were excessively jealous of whatever seemed to affect their master's title; and George I. rendered England altogether subservient to his continental connexions, which were capricious and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muscovy about their German concerns; and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden, been killed in the interim, Britain probably would have been invaded by that conqueror, great preparations being made

for that purpose. He was incensed at George, as elector of Hanover, for the scandalous purchase from the Danes of Bremen and Verden, which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718, George quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance that had been formed by Britain, France, Germany, and the states-general; and his admiral Sir George Byng, by his orders, destroyed the Spanish fleet near Syracuse. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was soon ended. By the peace of Utrecht, Sardinia had been assigned to the emperor, and Sicily to the duke of Savoy. A mutual exchange, in which Britain had no interest, terminated the quarrel.

In 1720, England experienced the most ruinous and distressing effects from the sudden rise of the stock of the South Sea company. The plan of this company had been formed in 1711, for the purpose of carrying on an exclusive trade, and making settlements in South America. In 1720, the company obtained an act to increase their capital stock, by redeeming the public debts; and was then invested with the assiento of negroes which had been stipulated between Britain and Spain. The public hopes were so sanguine, that the stock rose to 310*l.* for 100*l.* before the bill had the royal assent in April; before the end of May to 500; and by the twentieth of June, their stock rose to 890 per cent. and afterwards to 1000; but, before the end of September, it fell to 150, by which thousands were involved in ruin. Though this might be owing to the inconsiderate avarice of the subscribers, yet the public imagined that the ministry had contributed to the calamity; some of the directors insinuated that the ministers and their friends had been the chief gainers. The latter, however, had the address to escape without censure, but the parliament passed a bill which confiscated the estates of some of the directors, with an allowance for their maintenance.

The jacobites thought to avail themselves of the national discontent at the South-Sea scheme, and England's connexions with the continent, which every day increased. One Laver, 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. The proceedings against him were irregular, and the justice of his sentence has been questioned, though there is little reason to doubt of his guilt. After the ferment of this plot had subsided, the ministry, who were all in the interest of Hanover, ventured upon several bold measures, in which, as usual, the national interest and honour were sacrificed to that electorate. Britain was engaged in every continental dispute, however remote from her interest; and a difference still subsisting between the courts of Madrid and Vienna; it was agreed that it should be determined by a congress to be held at Cambray, under the auspices of France. This congress proved abortive, and England was involved in fresh difficulties on account of Hanover. So fluctuating was the state of Europe at this time, that in September, 1725, a new treaty was concluded at Hanover between the kings of Britain, France, and Prussia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A squadron was sent to the Baltic, to hinder the Russians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hosier, to the West Indies, to watch the Spanish plate fleet. This last was a fatal as well as a piratical expedition. The admiral and most of his men perished by epidemical diseases; and the hulks of his ships rotted so as to render them unfit for service. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They lost near 10,000 men at the siege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raise. The king, in his speech to the parliament, publicly accused the emperor of a design to place the pretender upon the throne of Britain; but this was denied by the Imperial ambassador at London, who was therefore ordered to leave the kingdom.

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A quarrel with the emperor was the moft dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen ; but though an oppofition in the houfe of commons was formed by fir William Wyndham and mr. Pulteney, the parliament grew more lavish in granting money and enormous fubfides for the protection of Hanover, to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Hefle Caffel. Such was the ftate of affairs in Europe, when George I. fuddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Osnaburgh, in the fixty-eighth year of his age, and the 13th of his reign. His is remarkable for an incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects, by which it was reckoned that a million and an half fterling were won and loft ; and, for the great alteration of the fyftem of Europe, by the concern which England took in the affairs of the continent. The finking fund, for diminifhing the national debt, was instituted at this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom was now better underftood than formerly, and manufactures began to flourifh where they had formerly been lefs cultivated. Manchester has been almoft entirely built fince that time, and feveral other towns, as Liverpool for example, have encreafed with uncommon rapidity.

Sir Robert Walpole was confidered as firft minifter of England when George I. died ; and fome differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, that, upon the acceffion of the latter to the crown, fir Robert would be difplaced. That might have been the cafe, could another perfon have been found equally able, as he was, to manage the houfe of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No minifter ever underftood better the temper of the people of England, and none ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truft, and profit, and almoft the houfe of commons itfelf, with his own creatures ; but peace was his darling object, becaufe he thought that war muft be fatal to his power. During his long adminiftration, he never loft a queftion that he was in earneft to carry. The excife fcheme was the firft meafure that gave a fhock to his power ; and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the fpirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an infurrection, or endangered his intereft at the next general election. Having compromifed all differences with Spain, he filled all the courts of Europe with embaffies and negociations, and the new parliament gratified him with the means of performing his engagements. He continued and enlarged the fubfides paid to the German princes for the fecurity of Hanover, and had even the addrefs to obtain, from time to time, votes of credit for fulfilling his immediate engagements ; and in the mean while, to amufe the public, he permitted enquiries into the ftate of the jails, and other matters that did not affect his own authority.

His pacific fyftem brought him into inconveniencies both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the British fhipping in the American feas, and the French to treat the Englifh court with infolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themfelves flighted, and they interefted themfelves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the difguft of the people at the propofed excife fcheme, and paffing the *gin act*, in the year 1736, increafed the minority in the houfe of commons to 130, fome of whom were as able men and as good fpeakers as ever had fat in parliament ; and taking advantage of the increafing complaints againft the Spaniards, they attacked the minifter with great ftrength of argument, and with great eloquence. He was fo far from attempting to check the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moft fcurrilous abufe thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two profecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themfelves affected by

them ; but it is certain, that the press of England never was more open or free than during his administration. As to his pacific system, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation all that was required to support it, by the increase of her trade, and the improvement of her manufactures.

With regard to the king's own personal concern in public matters, Walpole was rather his minister than his favourite ; and his majesty often hinted to him, as Walpole himself has been heard to acknowledge, that he was responsible for all measures of government. The debates concerning the Spanish depredations in the West Indies, and the proofs that were brought to support the complaints of the merchants, made at last an impression even upon many of Walpole's friends. The heads of the opposition, in both houses of parliament, accused the minister of having, by the treaty of Seville, and other negotiations, introduced a branch of the house of Bourbon into Italy, and depressed the house of Austria, the ancient and natural ally of England. They exposed, with invincible force of eloquence and reasoning, the injustice and disgrace, as well as loss, arising from the Spanish depredations, and the necessity of repelling force by force. Sir Robert still adhered to his own pacific system, and concluded a compromise, under the title of a convention, with the court of Spain, which produced a war with that nation.

Caroline, consort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the minister ; but she died November 20th, 1737, when a variance subsisted between the king and his son, the prince of Wales, whom, when on her death bed, she refused to see. The prince 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 that Walpole's power was drawing to a close. Admiral Vernon, who hated the minister, was sent, in 1739, with a squadron of six ships to the West-Indies, where he took and demolished Porto-Bello ; but being a sanguine, imprudent 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, the interest of the prince of Wales was so prevalent in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament, who were no friends to the minister, and after a few trying divisions, he retired from the house, on the 9th of February, 1742, was created earl of Orford, and on the 11th resigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loss of his minister with indifference, and even conferred titles of honour, and posts of distinction, upon the heads of the opposition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic sanction (which meant the succession of his daughter to all the Austrian dominions) through the ambition of France, and many other concurrent causes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, whom George had made his secretary of state, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himself at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743 ; and his not suffering his general, the earl of Stair, to avail himself fully of the victory, was thought to proceed from tenderness for his electoral dominions. This partiality created an universal flame in England ; and a clamour raised against the minister, was increased by the duke of Newcastle and his brother, by lord chancellor Hardwicke, the lord Harrington, and other ministers, who resigned, or offered to resign, their places, if lord Carteret should retain his influence in the cabinet. George was obliged to give way to what he thought the voice of his people, and

he indulged them with accepting the services of some gentlemen who never had been considered as zealous friends to the house of Hanover. After various removals, Mr. Pelham was placed at the head of the treasury, and appointed chancellor of the exchequer, and consequently was considered as first minister; or rather, the power of the premiership was divided between him and his brother the duke of Newcastle.

Britain was then engaged in a very expensive war against the French and Spaniards, and her enemies sought to avail themselves of the general discontent that prevailed in England on account of the king's predilection for Hanover. This suggested to them the idea of applying to the pretender, who resided at Rome; and he agreed that his son Charles should repair to France, from whence he set sail, and narrowly escaped, with a few followers, in a frigate, to the western coasts of Scotland, between the islands of Mull and Sky, where he discovered himself, assembled his followers, and published a manifesto exciting the nation to revolt. It is necessary, before we relate the true cause of this enterprise, to make a short retrospect to foreign parts.

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; 20,000 British soldiers and seamen perished in the impracticable attempt on Carthagena, and by 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 no service to Britain; so that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the same situation as before. A difference between the admirals Matthews and Lestock had suffered the Spanish and French fleets to escape out of Toulon with but little loss; and soon after, the French, who had before acted only as allies to the Spaniards, declared war against Britain, who, in her turn declared war against the French. The Dutch, during this war, carried on a most lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act against the French, till the people entered into associations and insurrections against the government. Their marine was in a miserable condition, and when they at last sent a body of troops to join the British and Austrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with so bad a grace, that it was plain they intended not to act in earnest. When the duke of Cumberland took upon him the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almost masters of the barrier in the Netherlands, and were besieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raise the siege, but, by the coldness of the Austrians, and the cowardice of the Dutch, whose government held a secret correspondence with France, he lost the battle of Fontenoy, and ten or twelve thousand men. To counterbalance such a train of misfortunes, admiral Anson returned this year to England, with a treasure of about four hundred thousand pounds sterling, which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the town and fortrefs of Louisbourg, in the island of Cape Breton.

Such was the state of affairs abroad in August 1745, when the pretender's eldest son, at the head of some Highland followers, surprised and disarmed a part of the king's troops in the western Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. They were likewise victorious in two other engagements at Falkirk and Prestonpans. They entered the city of Edinburgh, but were so miserably destitute of the supplies requisite for a regular army, that they did not venture to besiege the castle, which is incapable of resisting a proper attack for six hours. 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

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 had too much good sense to act heartily in the war. The confederates were defeated at Val, near Maestricht. Bergen-op-zoom was taken by storm. The allies suffered other disgraces on the continent; and peace became necessary to save their army from total destruction. The French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the English fleet, under the command of Anson, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the English arms were not so successful under rear-admiral Boscawen in the East Indies. In this state of affairs, the fortunes of the French and English, during the war, may be said to have been balanced, and both ministries turned their thoughts to peace. The question is not yet decided which party had the greatest reason to desire it, the British, French, and Spaniards, for the immense losses that they had sustained by sea, or the allies, including the British, for the disgraces which they had suffered by land.

The preliminaries for peace were signed in April 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October, the basis of which was the restitution on both sides of all places taken during the war. The number of prizes taken by the English in this war, from its commencement to the signing of the preliminaries, was 3434; namely, 1249 from the Spaniards, and 2185 from the French: they lost, during the same time, 3238; 1360 being taken by the Spaniards, and 1878 by the French. The next year the interest of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for seven years, after which the whole was to stand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldest stroke of financing ever attempted perhaps in any country, consistently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after an ineffectual opposition, continued their money in the funds. This was an æra of improvements: Mr. Pelham omitted no opportunity of executing every scheme for the improvement of commerce, manufactures, and the fisheries; the benefits of which were felt during the succeeding war, and are to this day. Every intelligent person, however, considered the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle as no better than an armed cessation of hostilities. The French employed themselves in recruiting and repairing their marine, and had formed the design of seizing the British back settlements in America, and for cutting off all communication between the English and the native Indians. They disclosed their intention, by entering upon hostilities before they had power to support them.

In the mean while a new treaty of commerce was signed at Madrid, between Britain and Spain, by which, in consideration of 100,000*l.* the South-Sea company gave up all their future claims to the *asiento* contract, by virtue of which that company had supplied the Spanish West-Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died Frederic prince of Wales. Mr. Dodington, in his diary*, informs us that he was present at the burial; that many marks of disrespect were shown to the corpse by the court, and that the board of green-cloth were on the point of refusing a dinner to the noblemen and gentlemen, who paid the last offices of friendship to their deceased patron. His father employed this method to revenge a quarrel between himself and his son, which had subsisted for many years. The debts of the prince extended at his death to about two hundred thousand pounds sterling; and they remain unpaid. 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. 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 infamous act passed for preventing clandestine marriages. England about this time sustained a loss by

* Dublin edition, p. 72, 73.

the death of mr. Pelham; he was one of the wisest and best ministers England had ever seen.

The encroachments of the French in America, and the disposition which they made for sending over veteran troops to support those encroachments, produced a wonderful spirit in England, especially after admiral Boscawen was ordered with eleven ships of the line to sail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he took two French men of war; the rest of their fleet escaped up the river St. Laurence, by the streights 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, and before any declaration of war was published, above 500 of the richest French merchant ships, and above 8,000 of their best sailors were brought into British ports. This perfidious measure was followed by farther success; for, about two years after, near 30,000 French seamen were found to be prisoners in England.

In July, 1754, general Braddock, who had been sent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuscade of the French and Indians near fort du Quesne; but major-general Johnson defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 100.

The English navy, in 1755, consisted of one ship of 110 guns, five of 100 guns each, thirteen of 90, eight of 80, five of 74, twenty-nine of 70, four of 60, one of 64, thirty-three of 60, three of 54, twenty-eight of 50, four of 44, thirty-five of 40, and forty-two of 20; four sloops of war of 18 guns each, two of 16, eleven of 14, thirteen of 12, and one of 10; besides a great number of bomb-ketches, fire-ships and tenders. This force was sufficient to oppose the maritime strength of all the powers of Europe. That of the French, even at the end of this year, and including the ships then upon the stocks, amounted to no more than six ships of 80 guns, twenty-one of 74, one of 72, four of 70, thirty-one of 64, two of 60, six of 50, and thirty-two frigates.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by those armaments, they were sunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been sent out with a squadron at least equal to that of the French, had been defeated, by their admiral Galliffionere, and that at last Minorca was surrendered by general Blakeney. The loss of Minorca was more shameful than detrimental to the kingdom; but the public outcry was such, that the king, in order to screen his ministers, gave up Byng to public vengeance, and he was shot to death at Portsmouth, for not doing what is suspected to have been out of his power against the enemy.

It was about this time that mr. Pitt was placed, as secretary of state, at the head of the administration. He had been long known as a bold, eloquent, and energetic speaker, and he soon proved himself to be a spirited minister. The miscarriages in the Mediterranean had no consequence but the loss of fort St. Philip, which was repaid by the success of the English privateers, both in Europe and America. The victories of the English in the East Indies, under colonel Clive, were extraordinary. He defeated Suraja Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixá; and Placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient seat of the nabobs of those provinces. Suraja Dowla, who supported the French interest, was, a few days after his defeat, taken prisoner by the son of the new nabob, and put to death. This event laid the found-

dation of the great 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. He planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itself; and the descent was to be made at Rochefort, under general sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promising than the dispositions for this expedition. It failed on the 8th of September, 1757; but admiral Hawke brought back the sea and land forces on the 6th of October to St. Helens, the general having made no attempt to land on the coast of France. He was tried and acquitted without public murmur, 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 powerful army, the English parliament voted large supplies of men and money to defend it. The duke of Cumberland had been sent thither to command an army of observation consisting of thirty-eight thousand men. The conduct of this general has no parallel in history. His troops were forced to give up their arms, without firing a musket; and the French under the duke of Richlieu, took possession of Hanover, and its capital. At this time, a scarcity bordering on famine, raged in England; and the Hessian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been sent to defend the kingdom from an invasion intended by the French, still remained in England. So many difficulties concurring, in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between the British king and the king of Prussia: in consequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000*l.* to the latter, and also voted large sums, amounting in the whole to near two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Saxe-Gotha, Wolfenbittel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards so burdensome to England, was intended to unite the protestant interest in Germany.

George II. declared that the French had violated the convention between them and the duke of Cumberland, and ordered his Hanoverian subjects to resume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunswick, a Prussian general. He instantly drove the French out of Hanover. The duke of Marlborough insulted the French coasts, by destroying their stores and shipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, He then marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 British troops, which were afterwards increased to 25,000. A war ensued, in the course of which the English gained great but indecisive victories. Even the battle of Minden contributed nothing to the conclusion of the war.

The English bore the expences of the war with cheerfulness, and applauded the activity and spirit of mr. Pitt's administration. Admiral Boscawen and general Amherst, in August 1758, reduced and demolished Louisburg, in North America, which had been restored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and had become the scourge of the British trade. They there took five or six French ships of the line. Frontenac and Fort du Quesne, in the same quarter, fell into the hands of the English; acquisitions that balanced a defeat which the English received at Ticonderago, and the slaughter at St. Cas, on the coast of France.

The English affairs in the East Indies this year, proved equally fortunate. Admiral Pococke 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 Aimè*, of 74 guns, was so much damaged that the crew run her on shore. The French had 600 men killed and wounded on this occasion, and the English, as they reported, only twenty-nine killed, and eighty-nine wounded. On the third 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. The loss of the French in this engagement was 540 killed and wounded ; and that of the English only 147 killed and wounded. On the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in those parts, marched to besiege Madras, which was defended by the English colonels, Laurence and Draper ; and after a brisk canonade, which lasted till the 16th of February following, the English having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raise the siege, and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the island of Goree on the coast of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expeditions were undertaken this year in America, and all of them proved successful. The first was against the French islands in the West Indies, where Gaudaloupe 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 that the French threw up to prevent a descent of the English, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perseverance, however, surmounted incredible difficulties ; he gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was killed himself, as was Montcalm ; general Monkton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the honour of reducing Quebec, were reserved for brigadier-general 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. Laurence. Mr. Amherst succeeded in this enterprise ; and thus the French empire in North America, became subject to 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 Britain : but on the 18th of August, 1759, Boscawen attacked the Toulon squadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the straits of Gibraltar, took *Le Centaur* of 74, *Le Temeraire* of 74, and *Le Modeste* of 74 guns ; and burnt *L'Ocean* of 80, and *Le Redoubtable* 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 the 20th of November, 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 *Thesee* of 74, and the *Superbe* of 70 guns, were sunk ; the *Soleil Royal* of 80, and the *Heros*, of 74 guns, were burnt, and the *Juste* of 70, perished in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns overboard ; 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 on shore in the chase.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine officer, with three frigates, alarmed the coasts of Scotland, and made a descent at Carrickfergus in Ireland. He was overtaken, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ships dispatched in pursuit of him. His vessels were taken.

The war in Germany continued still as undecisive as it was expensive, and many in England began to consider it as foreign to the interests of 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. On the 25th of October 1760, George II. died suddenly from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign. He was succeeded by his grandson, now George III. eldest son to the late prince of Wales.

George III. ascended the throne with great advantages. 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. In 1761, the island of Belleisle, on the coast of France, surrendered to his ships and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgson; as did the fortrefs 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 Rollo, and sir James Douglas; and in 1762, the islands of Martinico, Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of less note were subdued by the British arms.

In the mean time, mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such eminent ability, and who had received the best information of the hostile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed in council an immediate declaration of war against that kingdom. He urged his reasons for this measure with his usual energy; asserting that "this was the time for humbling the whole house of Bourbon; that Spain was in daily expectation of a rich fleet from the West Indies; that if they could intercept that, it would give a disheartening blow to their power and pride, and that were this opportunity to escape, it might never be recovered." He was over-ruled in council, and he therefore resigned his seals. But the next day, the king settled a pension of 3000l. a year upon mr. Pitt, and at the same time a title was conferred upon his lady and her issue; and the pension was to continue for three lives. He had formerly asserted that Hanover was a mill stone hanging at the neck of England. The famous Hogarth took advantage of this hint, and entertained the world by a print of the ex-minister with a mill stone at his neck, and an inscription across it, alluding to his pension. The admirers of his integrity may consult, among a thousand other authorities, the diary of Dodington; one of the most singular and instructive publications in any language. A few weeks after he had resigned the seals, the Spanish fleet arrived safe in their ports, richly laden; an event which added the merit of truth and sagacity to his last advice. After this the court of Spain threw off the mask, and gave the most unequivocal marks of their hostile intentions.

The war still continued to be carried on with vigour after the resignation of mr. Pitt, and the plans were pursued that he had previously concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to succeed him, as secretary for the southern department. It was also found necessary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family compact, among all the different branches of the Bourbon family, being now generally known; and accordingly war was declared against that kingdom, on the 4th of January 1762. A respectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the Havannah, the strongest and most important fort in the Spanish West Indies, was reduced, after a siege of two months and eight days. The conquerors themselves were almost exterminated; but fortunately for mankind, the present president of the united states was among the number of survivors. The loss of the Havannah, with the ships and treasures that were there taken from the Spaniards, was succeeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Phillippine islands in the East Indies, under general Draper and admiral Cornish, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract those dreadful blows given to the family compact, the

French and Spaniards employed their last resource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, the faithful but feeble ally of Britain. This quarrel embarrassed George the third, who was obliged to send thither armaments both by sea and land.

The negotiations for peace were now resumed; and the enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible. The defection of the Russians from the confederacy against the king of Prussia, and his consequent successes, produced a cessation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between the kings of Britain, France, and Spain, was concluded at Paris.

By this treaty the extensive province of Canada, with the islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, was confirmed to Britain; the two Floridas were surrendered to her by France and Spain, in consideration of restoring to Spain the island of Cuba; and to the French the islands Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Desseada; and in consideration of her granting to the French the two small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coast of Newfoundland, and quitting her pretensions to the neutral island of St. Lucia, they yielded to Britain the island of Grenada and the Grenadillas, and quitted their pretensions to the neutral islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa, England retained the settlement of Senegal, by which she nearly engrossed the whole gum trade of that country; but she restored Goree, a small island of little value. The article that related to the East Indies, was dictated by the directors of the English company; which restored to the French all the places they had possessed before the war, on condition that they should maintain neither fort nor forces in the province of Bengal. The city of Manilla was restored to the Spaniards; but they confirmed to Britain the liberty of cutting logwood in the bay of Honduras in America. The islands of Belleisle and Minorca were restored to their former owners. In Germany, after six years spent in marches and countermarches, numerous skirmishes and bloody battles, Britain acquired military fame, at the expense of thirty millions sterling! As to the object of that war, it was agreed, that a mutual restitution and oblivion should take place, and each party sat down at the end of it, in the same situation in which they began it. Peace was restored between Portugal and Spain, and both sides were to be on the same footing as before the war.

This war, to which a period was now put, had been the most expensive in the British annals. The astonishing sums of eighteen, nineteen, and twenty-two millions, raised by a few citizens of London, upon a short notice, for the service of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, were no less astonishing to Europe, than the success which attended the British fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe.

But the peace, though it received the sanction of both houses of parliament, was far from giving universal satisfaction to the people, who were inflamed against it by those who during the war had fattened on the public spoils, and grown rich by the very accumulation of public debts. The manner in which the treaty was begun, and the precipitation with which it was concluded, were condemned. The terms were extremely inadequate to what might justly have been expected from the numerous victories and advantages which had been obtained.

In the mean time, the earl of Bute, who had been made first lord of the treasury, resigned that office, and was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville. Under his administration, an act was passed, for laying a *stamp duty* in the British colonies of North America, which received the royal assent, on the 22d of March, 1765. The progress and termination of this measure shall be related in full, when we come to treat of America. We have only, therefore, to observe in this place, that the commotions which followed the stamp act, induced the king of England to dismiss his ministers. They were succeeded, on the 10th day of July, 1765, by the Rockingham administration. During their short continuance in office, several public measures were adopted to relieve the burdens

of the people, and to secure their liberties. On the 30th of July 1766, they gave place to a ministry formed upon a plan settled by the earl of Chatham. The duke of Grafton was appointed first lord of the treasury, the earl of Shelburne, secretary of state, Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer, and Mr. Pitt, who was on that occasion created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord privy seal; but his acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the house of commons, greatly lessened his weight and influence. Indeed this arrangement was not of long continuance, and a variety of changes followed. Mr. Charles Townshend, a gentleman of abilities and eloquence, but divested of principle or veracity, 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, whose name has long been synonymous with official weakness, and national calamity. He became first lord of the treasury, and obtained a great ascendancy in that administration, which began the American war without necessity, conducted it without spirit or prudence, and whose successors in office were compelled to end it with disgrace.

In the year 1769, a very important act was passed for regulating the conduct of the house of commons in controverted elections. These used formerly to be determined by the house at large, and by a majority of votes, so that they were considered merely as party-matters, and the strongest party, which was always that of the ministry, was sure to carry the point, without paying the least regard to the merits of the question on either side. But by the bill, which was now passed, commonly called the Grenville-act, as it was drawn up and brought in by Mr. Grenville, they were ordered for the future to be decided by a committee of thirteen members, chosen by lot, and under the obligation of an oath; and since the enactment of this law, no well-grounded complaint has been made against the impartiality of their decisions.

The French court considered the war with the colonies, which had now lasted for three years, as a favourable opportunity for lessening the power of Britain. They supplied the Americans with arms and ammunition; some French officers also entered into the American service; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the king and the thirteen united colonies; and of this treaty it was declared, that the essential and direct end was "to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and independence, absolute and unlimited, of the united states of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

This conduct of France occasioned the commencement of hostilities between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either side. On the 17th of June, 1778, the *Licorne* and *La Belle Poule*, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately issued by the French court for making reprisals on the ships of Britain; and on the 27th of July, a battle was fought off Brest between the English fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet, under the command of the count d'Orvilliers. The English fleet consisted of 30 ships of the line and the French of 32, besides frigates; they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not decisive, no ship being taken on either side; and the French fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Brest. Of the English, 133 were killed in the action and 373 wounded; and the loss of the French is supposed to have been great. Lord Sandwich, who was at the head of the admiralty board, affirmed sometime after in the house of peers that the English fleet had been beaten.

In the East Indies an engagement happened between some English ships of war under the command of Sir Edward Vernon, and some French ships under the command of Mons. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of August, 1778, in which the former obliged the latter to

retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry surrendered to the arms of Britain. In the course of the same year the island of St. Lucia, in the West Indies, was taken from the French; who in return made themselves masters of Dominica, and during the following year they obtained possession of St. Vincent's and Grenada. At the close of the year 1779, several French ships of war and merchant-ships were taken in the West Indies, by a fleet under the command of sir Hyde Parker.

By the address of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage in the war against England, and assembled forces to besiege Gibraltar, which was defended by the garrison with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was also added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets for a time rode triumphant in the British channel. The nation was under no inconsiderable apprehensions of an invasion; and had not sir Charles Hardy escaped into Plymouth, with the British fleet, there is the strongest reason to imagine that the naval power of England would have received a very severe shock. On the 8th of January, 1780, admiral Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured seven Spanish ships and vessels of war belonging to the royal company of Caracas, with a number of trading vessels under their convoy; and in a few days after he engaged, near Cape St. Vincent, a Spanish fleet, consisting of eleven ships of the line and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. The Spaniards fought with the greatest bravery; but were overpowered by numbers; four of their ships were taken, and carried into Gibraltar; two others were driven on shore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the English. A Spanish 70 gun ship, with 600 men was also blown up in the action. In April and May, three actions likewise happened in the West Indies, between the English fleet under admiral Rodney, and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but no ship was taken on either side. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ships from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of August, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five English East Indiamen, and fifty English merchant ships, bound for the West Indies, which was one of the most complete naval captures ever made, and a very severe stroke to the commerce of Britain.

The summer of the year 1780 was distinguished by one of the most disgraceful exhibitions of bigotry that had ever appeared in any country. An act of parliament had been lately passed for relieving Roman Catholics from certain "penalties and disabilities imposed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the reign of king William III." This act was with reason approved by men of sense and of liberal sentiments, by whom the laws referred to were generally detested. 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 Catholics in Scotland; one of their chapels was burned, and the houses of several of them 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, and they assumed the title of the Protestant Association. They continued to hold frequent meetings; lord George Gordon, a young man, discontented at not being promoted from a lieutenant to a captain in the navy, became their president, and they increased in numbers. At a time when the nation was surrounded with real dangers, the heads of these weak men were filled with nothing but the fear of imaginary evils; and they even seemed to fancy, that they were contending for religious liberty, when they were labouring to excite the legislature to prevent some of their fellow-subjects from worshipping God according to the dictates of their consciences. The protestant association at length agreed to a petition, which

was said to have been subscribed by more than an hundred thousand persons. It was then resolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it should be attended by great numbers of the petitioners in person; and a public advertisement was issued for that purpose, signed by lord George Gordon. Fifty thousand persons are supposed to have assembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cockades in their hats, to the house of commons, 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 whom the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's inn fields, and another catholic chapel in Warwick-street, were entirely demolished. A party of the guards was then sent for, to put a stop to the farther progress of these violences; and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed to Newgate, escorted by the military. On the Sunday following, another mob assembled, and destroyed a catholic chapel in Ropemaker's-Alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demolished a school-house, and three dwelling-houses, in the same place, belonging to the catholic clergy, with a valuable library of books, and a chapel in Virginia-street. They also destroyed all the household furniture of sir George Savile, one of the most respectable men in the kingdom, because he had brought in the obnoxious bill. 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: great part of it, though a new stone edifice of uncommon strength, was consumed; and more than three hundred prisoners made their escape, many of whom joined the mob. The protestant association, as they thought proper to style themselves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; but 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 on the same evening. The following day, the king's bench prison, the new bridewell, some Roman catholic chapels, several private houses of persons of that persuasion, besides many 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 came to see the necessity of a vigorous opposition to the rioters; large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; 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 London was at length restored to order and

* Gordon was himself committed to the Tower, and tried for high treason, but acquitted, to the regret of every friend of justice.

tranquillity. It is pretended, that no member of the protestant association was executed, or tried, for any share in these riots. What truth there may be in that assertion, we cannot determine; the fact can only be ascertained, by comparing the names of the persons tried or convicted, with the numerous names on the petition, to which few persons have had access; and there can be no doubt, but that many who were engaged in the riots, were neither tried nor convicted. At all events, it was manifestly the bigotry of a few leaders of this combination, to which these tumults were indebted for their origin.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was disturbed by these commotions, there appeared reason to apprehend an increase of its foreign enemies. The American war had occasioned various disputes between Britain and Holland. Complaints were made by the Dutch, that their ships were seized by the English cruizers, without just cause. On the other hand, 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 Britain were supplied with naval and military stores by the Dutch. These disputes continued to increase; and on the first of January, 1780, commodore Fielding brought to Spithead several ships laden with naval stores, which were under the convoy of a Dutch admiral. The states-general alleged, that the naval stores, which had been seized, were not contraband goods, according to the express tenor of the treaties between Britain and Holland, and that the conduct of the English commodore, which was approved by his sovereign, was a direct insult upon the Dutch flag, and a violation of the treaties subsisting between the two nations. Previous to this transaction, the British minister had demanded of the states-general the succours which were stipulated in the treaty of 1678, and others; and which were now claimed on account of the dangers with which Britain was threatened, and particularly the invasion with which she was menaced by her enemies. Repeated applications were made to the states-general on this subject; but they delayed giving any answer. On the 17th of April, a declaration was published by George the third, by which it was announced, that repeated memorials had been presented by his ambassador to the states-general, demanding the succours stipulated by treaty; to which requisitions they had given no answer, and had thereby deserted the alliance that had so long subsisted between Britain and the republic, and had placed themselves in the condition of a neutral power; and that he would consider them henceforth as standing only in that distant relation. He therefore declared, that the subjects of the united provinces were thenceforward to be considered upon the same footing with other neutral states, not privileged by treaty; and he suspended provisionally, and till farther orders, all the particular stipulations respecting the subjects of the states-general, contained in the several treaties subsisting between Britain and the republic.

An incident happened, which showed how well founded this declaration was. On the third of September, the Mercury, a congress packet, was taken by the Vestal, captain Keppel, near Newfoundland. On board this vessel was Mr. Laurens, late president of the congress, who was bound on an embassy to Holland. Among his papers was found the sketch of a treaty of amity and commerce between the republic of Holland and the United States of America. Indeed it did not appear, that the states-general were at all consulted upon the transaction; so that it was more properly a provisional treaty with the states of Amsterdam, or of the province of Holland, than with the United Provinces at large. This treaty appeared to be approved by Mr. Van Berckel, counsellor and pensionary of the city of Amsterdam. In consequence of this discovery, the king of England demanded a formal disavowal of the whole transaction, and the exemplary punishment of

the pensionary Van Berckel and his accomplices, as disturbers of the public peace, and violators of the rights of nations. The states general not giving an immediate answer to this requisition, fresh applications were made on this subject by the British minister; who received for answer, that his memorial had been taken *ad referendum* by the deputies of the respective provinces, according to their received custom and constitution of government; and that they would endeavour to frame an answer to his memorial, as soon as the constitution of their government would permit. This answer gave so little satisfaction, that the British ambassador was ordered to withdraw from the Hague; and a declaration of hostilities against Holland was published on the 20th of December, 1780. This measure seemed at first to be applauded by the British nation; but many considered it as a very rash and impolitic step, and that a war with Holland ought not to have been so much precipitated, at a time when Britain was involved in hostilities with so many enemies.

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 third of February, 1781. When admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, who arrived there with a large fleet and a considerable body of troops, summoned the place to surrender, the inhabitants were in such a consternation, that no resistance was made. The private property, goods, merchandize, and specie of the inhabitants, were seized, as well as the public military and naval stores. The capture of shipping was also very great; upwards of 200 vessels being taken, besides a 60 gun ship, and a frigate of 38 guns. The islands of St. Martin and Saba likewise surrendered. The seizure of the private property, English, as well as French and Dutch, at St. Eustatia, was a very rigorous and piratical measure, altogether unprecedented among civilized nations, and disgraceful to the British name. The inhabitants of the island of St. Christopher remonstrated against it as a dangerous precedent; it was observed that the French nation had acted in a much more humane manner in their late captures. The British West India planters petitioned the king on this occasion, representing to him, that they had always conceived it to be a maxim among nations, and established in humanity and sound policy, that war should be carried on with the least possible injury to private property. But their petitions were disregarded.

On the fifth of August in the same year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an English squadron of ships of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch squadron, under the command of admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. According to the English accounts, the Dutch squadron consisted of eight ships of the line, and the English only of seven; but the Dutch represent their force to have been inferior to that of the English. On both sides they fought with great gallantry, and the victory was claimed by both of the contending squadrons. All the ships were greatly shattered, and a Dutch 74 gun ship sunk after the action. The English by their own account had 104 men killed, and 339 wounded; and their historians are, in the common style, prompt to suppose that the loss of the Dutch was much greater.

The war continued to be prosecuted with various success; the French made themselves masters of the island of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Pensacola, and the whole province of West Florida.

The surrender of the British army under lord Cornwallis, on the 19th of October, 1781, may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in America. The immense expence of carrying it on at such a distance from the seat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt which it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effusion of blood it had occasioned; the diminution of trade, and

the vast increase of taxes, were evils of such a magnitude, as could scarcely be overlooked even by the most insensible and stupid. Accordingly, on the first of March, 1782, after repeated struggles in the house of commons, that assembly addressed the king, requesting him to put a stop to any farther prosecution of the war with America. This event rendered a change of measures 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 27, 1782, under the conduct of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed first lord of the treasury.

Peace was the first object of attention with the new ministry. Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was also directed to propose the independency of the thirteen united provinces of America, in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were also directed to acquaint the congress with the pacific views of the British court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independence of the united states.

The new ministers also applied themselves to make some retrenchment in the public expenses, and to reform some of the various abuses which they had inveighed against when out of office. A bill was carried for excluding custom-house and excise officers from voting at the elections for members of the house of commons; another for excluding all contractors from being members; and by a third bill, which also received the royal assent, the board of trade, the board of works, the great wardrobe, and the different offices of third secretary of state, treasurer of the chamber, cofferer of the household, the lords of the police in Scotland, the pay-master of the pensions, master of the harriers, master of the stag-hounds, and clerks to the board of green-cloth, were abolished, which, with other savings specified in the bill, were computed to amount to 72,368*l.* per annum.

A series of losses had agitated the minds of the people. January 14th, 1782, the French took Nevis. On the 5th of February, the island of Minorca surrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the same month, St. Christopher's was given up to the French. Jamaica would have shared the same fate, had not the British fleet, under admiral Rodney, fallen in with 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, was taken, with two seventy-fours, and one 64; a 74 gun ship blew up by accident soon after she was captured, and another 74 sunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the same fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the design against Jamaica was frustrated. The new ministry had superseded Admiral Rodney, and intended to have prosecuted the enquiry into his transactions at Eustatia; but this victory silenced all, and procured him the rank of an English peer.

May 8th, the Bahama islands surrendered to the Spaniards. But the defence of Gibraltar, by general Elliot, reflected honour on the British arms. The formidable attack, on the 13th of September, with floating batteries of 212 brass cannon, &c. in ships from 1400 to 600 tons burden, ended in disappointment, and the destruction of all the ships and most of the assailants. The garrison was at length relieved by lord Howe, in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though twelve sail of the line inferior. The military operations after this, were few and of little consequence. Negapatnam, a settlement in the East Indies, and

Trincomale on the island of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the British forces; but the French, soon receiving considerable succours from Cuddalore, retook Trincomale, engaged the British fleet in several actions, but none decisive, and enabled Hyder Ally to resist the efforts of sir Eyre Coote and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham on the 1st of July, occasioned much commotion in the cabinet. Lord Shelburne succeeded him as first lord of the treasury, and, it is said, without the knowledge of his colleagues. This gave great offence to some, particularly to Mr. Fox, and lord John Cavendish, who, with others, resigned their places, and commenced a fierce opposition in the house of commons. Mr. Fox declared, "that the principles on which the ministry first came in, were abandoned by lord Shelburne and his adherents; that the *old system* was to be revived, most probably, with the *old men*, or indeed with any men that could be found. They were persons whom neither promises could bind, nor principles of honour secure: they would abandon fifty principles for the sake of power, and they would now strive to strengthen themselves by any means which corruption could procure; and he expected to see, in a very short time, they would be joined by those very men whom that house had precipitated from their seats." The duke of Richmond, gen. Conway, and others, maintained, that there was no deviation in the present cabinet from the principles on which they had entered into office; and they continued to act with lord Shelburne, till, under his auspices, the preliminaries for a general peace were settled. The public soon after beheld Mr. Fox and Cavendish coalescing with the old ministers, lord North particularly; embracing the men whom they had driven from their seats, and threatened with impeachments; and continuing to join with them in reprobating the peace as making too great concessions to the enemies of England, that they might storm the cabinet, drive lord Shelburne and his friends from it, and seat themselves and the men whom they had despised, in their places.

By the treaty of peace between Britain and France*, the former restored to France the island of Tobago, in the West Indies, and the river Senegal, in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few districts in the East Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry, and Karical; it restored also the islands of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the island of Goree, with Pondicherry, Karical, Mahe, Chandernagore, and the Factory of Surat. To prevent disputes about boundaries, in the Newfoundland fishery, it was agreed, that the French line for fishing should begin from Cape St. John on the eastern side, and, going round by the north, should have for its boundary Cape Ray on the western side; and Britain renounced every claim respecting the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to restore to Britain the islands of Grenada, and the Grenadines, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montserrat; and guaranteed Fort James in the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade should remain in the same condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each state in the East Indies were to be invited to accede to the pacification; but if they were averse to peace, no assistance on either side was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Britain gave up to that power East Florida, and ceded West Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all causes of complaint and misunderstanding in future, it was agreed, that British subjects should have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the district lying between the river Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the

* Preliminary Articles settled Jan. 20, 1783.

course of the said rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to restore the islands of Providence and the Bahamas, to Britain; but they had been retaken before the peace was signed.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties arose; but at length it was stipulated that Britain should restore Trincomale in the island of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it, and that the Dutch should yield to England the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies, in the East Indies.

The terms of peace were, to many persons in Britain, a subject of great regret; but had the war continued, it would have been necessary for her to borrow annually seventeen millions and a half, by which a million per annum would have been added to the taxes, and twenty-five millions at least to the capital of the public debt, according to the usual modes of funding. The cessions made on the part of Britain cannot be esteemed worth the expence of one year's war, especially considering the exhausted state of the country and its revenues and of the national spirit, through the rage of parties and the lust of ambition. Yet when the preliminary treaties with France and Spain, and the provisional articles with America, were presented to parliament, they met with violent opposition, and were reprobated as highly injurious to the dignity and interest of the nation. The address of thanks for the peace was carried, however, in the house of lords, by a majority of 72 to 59, but lost in the house of commons, by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons, having thus enlisted under the banner of the *famous coalition leaders*, Mr. Fox and Lord North, a ministerial revolution became inevitable unless the cabinet should call a new parliament. As they did not, the authors of the peace were obliged to withdraw from power. North and Fox were made secretaries of state, and the Duke of Portland first lord of the treasury, April 2, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preserving the nation, which Lord Shelburne had proposed, seemed now to be dropt. Mr. Pitt's motion for correcting the defects in the representation of parliament, was lost by a majority of 293 to 149; and the motion of Mr. Sawbridge, that leave be given to bring in a bill for shortening the duration of parliaments, was rejected by 123 to 56. Mr. Pitt also proposed a bill for reforming the boards of the treasury, admiralty, ordnance, excise, stamps, and other offices, which was opposed by Mr. Burke and other members of administration, who had most strenuously contended for that measure, before they themselves had obtained lucrative places. This bill was suffered to pass through the house of commons, to amuse the public, but was rejected by the lords, 40 to 24. Every thing went on just as the coalition administration pleased, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for regulating the government of the East India company, and their commercial affairs and territories. This bill being rejected in the house of lords, on the 17th of December, 1783, by a majority of 19, occasioned a great ferment in the cabinet and in both houses of parliament. It was asserted in the lower house, that George the third had empowered Lord Temple to report the following message, "that he will not only consider as not being *his friend*, every person who votes for the present India bill, but he will look upon those who support it, as *his enemies*; and if Lord Temple can find stronger words to convey his wishes to that effect, he is at liberty to use them." After long debate, the commons resolved by a considerable majority, "That it is now necessary to declare, that to report any opinion, or pretended opinion, of his majesty, upon any bill, or other proceeding depending in either house of parliament, with a view to influence the votes of the members, is a high crime and misdemeanor, derogatory to the honour of the crown, a breach of the fundamental privileges of parliament, and subversive of the constitution of this country."

This and other resolutions, with some words which dropped from Mr. Fox and Lord

North, the next day in the house of commons, in support of a motion for adjournment to the next week, which was thought to be intended merely to protract the business of parliament, and prevent granting the supplies, occasioned their dismissal from the ministry. A royal message was sent between twelve and one on the morning of the 19th of December, to desire the two secretaries to resign the seals of their office; and Mr. Pitt succeeded the duke of Portland as first lord of the treasury, bringing with him his friends into the respective departments, which formed the tenth administration since the present king's accession.

A dissolution of the house commons being now feared by the coalition, they voted and carried an address to the king, "to represent the dangers which appeared to them likely to follow from a prorogation or dissolution of the parliament in the present arduous and critical conjuncture of public affairs, and humbly to beseech him to hearken to the advice of his faithful commons, and not to the *secret advices* of persons who may have private interests of their own, separate from the true interests of him and the people." The king assured them, that he would not interrupt their meeting by an exercise of his prerogative, either of prorogation or dissolution. Before the house adjourned over the holidays, it resolved, on the 24th of December, "that the lords of the treasury ought not to consent or authorise the East India directors to accept any more bills, or to a greater amount than three hundred thousand pounds, unless they shall be able to prove to parliament, that they have sufficient means to provide for the payment of them, after they shall have made their dividend and discharged the debt due to government, or unless they had the direction of that house." This was thought to convey an imputation, as if Mr. Pitt intended to make a bad use of the power vested by law in the treasury.

As soon as the house met, it was evident that the two great rival parties, who had coalesced and forgotten their former differences and anathemas against each other, intended to monopolise all the power in the country. On the 12th of January, 1784, the coalition majority, in a committee on the state of the nation, resolved "that an administration should be formed, which possessed the confidence of that house, and the public; and the present administration being formed under circumstances *new and extraordinary*, such as were not calculated to conciliate the affections, or engage the confidence of the house; and the *present ministers* still holding high and responsible offices, after such a declaration, were *contrary to true constitutional principles*, and injurious to the king and his people."

It was a new doctrine, that the king should discharge those who had by no one act as yet rendered themselves undeserving confidence as ministers, and appoint new ones, out of compliance to one part of the house of commons only; and it was impossible for him to comply with the resolution, that he should appoint such as might have the confidence of the house, and of the public; for the majority of that house was composed of the members of the coalition, striving for places and power, and the public, by their numerous addresses, were, in general, evidently averse to their conduct, and incensed at every thing belonging to the "Coalition." A dissolution of parliament was the only possible method to appoint an administration which had the confidence of the house of commons and the public; sending the members to their constituents for approbation or rejection, and for fresh credentials. On the 23d of January, Mr. Pitt's East India bill was rejected in the house of commons, by 222 against 214, on the second reading, without sending it to a committee for discussion and amendment, and leave was given for Mr. Fox to prepare and bring in another. Some independent gentlemen, as they styled themselves, interposed to unite the contending parties, which had filled parliament and the country with distractions; but their endeavours to form what they called a firm, efficient, extended, and united administration, proved unsuccessful.

At last, February 4th, the house of lords took up the affair, and particularly adverted to the resolution of the commons respecting the East India bills. It was contended, that the house of commons had arrogated to itself that power which the constitution had refused, for it denied to the lords of the treasury that right which the legislature in its complete capacity had invested them with, namely, the power of permitting the East India directors to accept bills to such an amount as the discretion of the treasury board should admit; that no one branch of the legislature could in any manner supersede a specific statute of the three constituent parts; that it was an usurpation in any one branch of the legislature, the king, lords, or commons, to assume a power of suspending or dispensing with an act of the legislature; and that the resolutions of the commons assumed a control, pointing out a specific conduct. Accordingly by a majority of 100 to 53, they resolved, that for any branch of the legislature to assume a power to direct or control an authority vested in any set of men by act of parliament, and to be exercised by them at their own discretion, is unconstitutional and illegal. They next resolved, that the constitution vested in the crown the right of appointing its ministers.

From these proceedings it was evident that a war would arise between the two houses, which could only be terminated by a dissolution of parliament. The commons exclaimed against the lords, and proceeded to vindicate themselves to the public by a long series of resolutions.

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 some weeks before, or even at the first forming of the coalition. Many laboured for a conciliation between mr. Pitt and mr. Fox, and their confidential friends; and lord North, at length, consented to be left out in the forming a new administration; but the coalition insisted on mr. Pitt's resignation as a preliminary, without which there could be no treaty. This being refused, a majority of 21 out of 333 members of the house of commons voted a strong address to the king.

His answer brought matters to a crisis: the opposition now talked of with-holding all supplies till George dismissed his ministers, and proceeded, March 1st, to vote another address of more length and greater freedom, which was carried by 201 to 189. The answer of the king was firm and decisive.

The gentlemen who led the house of commons, or the small majority of it, into those resolutions and addresses, began now to see their mistake. Their arguments justified all the evils that had attended North's administration, since he had for many years the full confidence of the house, and would justify every other corrupt ministry. But they had advanced too far to retreat with decency, and accordingly proceeded to postpone the mutiny bill, as a means of protracting their political existence, which they carried by only a majority of nine. On March 8th, mr. Fox made his last effort, and moved for a third address, or rather *remonstrance*, the strongest presented to any king since the days of Charles I.

This production was voted by a majority of *one*, 191 to 190, and requiring no answer, terminated the dispute between the different branches of the legislature. The coalition-party gave up the contest, and looked forward to a speedy dissolution of the house. The national business went on regularly and quietly; the necessary bills were forwarded in both houses, and the session ended on the 24th of March 1784.

The next day a proclamation was issued for dissolving the parliament and calling a new one, agreeably to the desires and addresses of a great part of the kingdom. On the 18th of May, the new parliament assembled, in which Pitt had a majority of more than two to one.

Still opposition threw many difficulties in the way of administration. On the 14th of June, mr. Burke, in a long speech, expatiated on the merits of the last parliament, reprobated the speech of George III. at the opening of the new one, and the address of

thanks for it, and stated that his purpose was to move, "That an humble remonstrance should be presented to the king, asserting the rights of the house of commons, and reprobating the conduct of the king's ministers in having advised him to break his royal word, and dissolve his parliament, after he had pledged his faith to the last house of commons that he would not make such an exercise of his prerogative, before they had got through the arduous business upon their hands; and likewise for having advised him to make a speech to the new parliament from the throne, full of doctrines the most unconstitutional and alarming." The motion consisted of many pages, which the speaker was above an hour in reading to the house, containing a defence of the last house of commons, a detail of their rights, and a reprehension of the ministers for having violated them in various instances. It was negatived without a division; but as the main question was suffered to be put, the whole of the motion was of course entered on the journals of the house, which seems to have been the mover's only intention. The minister now went on with his ways and means for supplies, and by lowering the tea duty, which he thought would ruin the smugglers, he was forced to devise other taxes, which are found very heavy and burdensome to the public. The smugglers are not yet ruined, and the window tax especially is both partial and oppressive, screening the aristocracy, who are to pay but for two houses, and the highest sum for each is only 20*l*.

Mr. Pitt brought in his East India bill, which was carried, on the 5th of July, with very little opposition. All the system of new bills and taxes was passed through both houses, and the parliamentary campaign closed on the 20th of August, with a complimentary speech from the king, wishing that his faithful subjects might meet the new and heavy burdens with fortitude.

On the 25th of January, 1785, the parliament assembled. Amongst a variety of matter which pressed on their attention, none seemed of more consequence than the state of parliamentary representation, the system of fortifications proposed by the duke of Richmond, the affairs of India, and the propositions for a trading intercourse with Ireland. The business of parliamentary reform was adopted by Mr. Pitt as a ministerial measure; he accordingly introduced a specific plan for that purpose on the 18th of April. This plan was to give one hundred members to the popular interest of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thousand persons, who by the existing provisions of law, were excluded from it. This accession to the popular interest was to be principally obtained by the suppression of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their representatives to the counties; so that the number of the house of commons would remain the same. After a debate of considerable length, it was rejected by a majority of 74; the noes being 248, and the ayes 174.

From the terrors of the nation, during the late war, for the safety of the dock-yards, whilst the combined fleets were in the channel, and no adequate naval force could be mustered to oppose them, the duke of Richmond conceived the idea of fortifying them, as the best protection from future insult. Considerable sums had been annually granted for this purpose; but the greatness of the expense at length attracted the attention of the house of commons, and after a full discussion of the utility of the plan, it was in the following session finally determined to discontinue the works as useless, and in some respects as dangerous.

The Irish propositions were another subject which engaged parliament. This new system of intercourse between Britain and Ireland was first introduced into the parliament of the latter kingdom, by Mr. Orde, on the 7th of February, in the form of ten propositions; these were increased to eleven. They received the assent of both houses in that kingdom, and on the 22d of the same month, were communicated to the parliament of Britain by Mr. Pitt. The leading principle in this plan, was to equalize the duties on the produce and manufactures of both countries;

and, for the benefits communicated thereby to Ireland, she was in return to give a portion of her revenue towards the maintenance of the navy of the empire.—The subject had received but little discussion, when the fears and prejudices of the manufacturers were roused in every part of Britain; innumerable petitions were presented and evidences heard; committees were formed from assemblies of these manufacturers, who were directed to oppose the passing of the propositions into a law. It is needless to give any farther particulars, as the business came to nothing.

Amongst the variety of new taxes imposed in this session, that called the shop-tax received the strongest opposition; and by the persevering applications of those who were particularly aggrieved, its repeal was at length obtained about three years after. Mr. Pitt opened a negotiation with France for a more liberal commercial intercourse between the two countries, and appointed Mr. Eden, formerly a commissioner to the united states, and since created lord Auckland, as envoy for that purpose. A treaty was concluded, and ratified by both houses of parliament.

On the 24th of January 1786, the house met, and amongst the various measures agitated, the plan for establishing a sinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, engaged their most immediate attention. This million is produced by the yearly income of the state exceeding the permanent level of its expenditure by a sum of 900,000. This measure was passed into a law, which created commissioners for carrying the purposes of this act into execution. Experience has discovered its futility.

We come now to the impeachment of Warren Hastings, late governor general of Bengal. On the 17th of February, Mr. Burke explained, in some degree, the mode of proceeding that he was desirous to adopt in this business; and, in the course of the session, he moved for a multitude of papers to ground and substantiate his charges upon. These were at length produced, and Mr. Hastings was heard in his defence at the bar of the house of commons. The debates which arose on the subject terminated in resolutions, that certain of the charges contained matter of impeachment against the late governor general of Bengal. This important business is still undecided.

The trade carried on by England, and other European nations, upon the coast of Africa, for the purpose of purchasing negro-slaves, does not appear till of late years to have been considered with general attention. The first public attempt, we believe, that was made to put a stop to that traffic, was by the quakers in America, who, soon after the establishment of its independence, not only presented a strong and pathetic address for this purpose to the several legislative assemblies, but actually, in many instances, emancipated the slaves in their possession. The humane measures taken by the American legislatures, in consequence of this application, are before the public. In Britain the same society appears also to have taken the lead, and, after the example of their American brethren, presented a similar petition to the parliament of that kingdom. The cause soon became extremely popular. A great number of pamphlets were published upon the subject; and petitions were presented to the legislature against the trade from the two universities, and from several of the most considerable towns and corporations in the kingdom.

Ministry thought it proper to institute an enquiry, before a committee of the privy council, into the facts and allegations contained in the representations of both parties upon the subject. The first public notice that was taken of this affair was an information communicated by Mr. Wilberforce, soon after the meeting of parliament, of his intention to introduce the subject of the slave-trade. That gentleman being much indisposed, Mr. Pitt came forward on the 9th of May, 1788, in the name of his friend, and moved the following resolution, “That this house will, early in the next session of parliament, proceed to take into consideration the circumstances of the slave-trade,

complained of in the petitions presented to the house, and what may be fit to be done thereupon;" which was unanimously carried. After this, on the 21st of May, sir William Dolben moved the house for leave to bring in a bill to regulate the transportation of the natives of Africa to the British colonies in the West Indies*. By the bill now proposed, the number of slaves to be transported in any ship was to be regulated according to its bulk or tonnage, allowing nearly one ton to each man. This was only intended as a temporary relief, until some more permanent expedient could be devised by the legislature. Having passed through the commons, it was carried up to the lords, where it also passed, after having received several amendments; some of which being thought to interfere with the privileges of the lower house, a new bill was brought in, which passed both houses, and received the royal assent.

In the autumn of 1788, George the third was attacked by a distemper, which reduced him to a state of lunacy. A species of interregnum took place. The parliament having assembled, Mr. Fox laid claim to the vacant throne for the prince of Wales. Both the nation and their representatives were disposed to have granted as a matter of choice, what they were determined to refuse as a matter of right. A contest ensued, which was, by the ingenuity of Mr. Pitt, protracted on various pretences during several months. In the mean time, when every previous circumstance had been adjusted, and the prince and his party were within a few days of attaining the object of their wishes, the recovery of the king, in February 1789, put an end to their hopes. The conduct of some of the members of opposition had been, upon this occasion, remarkably illiberal, and that of Mr. Edmund Burke, in particular, had been grossly indecent. This behaviour, as imprudent as unprincipled, excited universal detestation against the party, and universal sympathy for the situation of George the third, at the mercy of his personal and inveterate enemies, embattled under the standard of filial ingratitude. The indignation entertained at this conspiracy, the profligate character of many of the adherents of the prince of Wales, and pity for the king's misfortune, produced a remarkable change in the public opinion. George III. who, before this event, had been unpopular almost from the commencement of his reign, became afterwards as popular as any prince in Europe.

During the revolution that soon after took place in France, the British ministry at first observed a neutrality. The king of Sweden had rashly engaged in a very unequal contest with the empress of Russia, and it has been said that he was betrayed into this measure by the promises of aid from Prussia, and from Britain. Mr. Pitt restrained Denmark from joining the court of Peterburgh against him, and a peace was not long after concluded. An expensive armament, however, was found or fancied to be necessary to sustain the importance of Britain, when interposing between the Russians and Turks; and this fleet had scarcely been dismissed, when they were once more assembled on account of a quarrel with Spain. The object of dispute related to an alleged right, on the part of Britain, to kill whales in the South Seas, and wild cats at Nootka Sound. It is at the first glance

* That there was a necessity for adopting this proposition will most clearly appear from the facts which were proved in the course of the debate. It appeared that five feet six inches in length, and sixteen inches in breadth, was the space allowed on an average to each slave. The lower deck of the vessels was entirely covered with bodies, and the space between the floor of that deck and the roof above, which seldom amounted to five feet eight inches, was divided by a platform also covered with bodies. Five persons in every hundred perished at the lowest computation in a voyage of six weeks continuance, which, according to the most accurate estimates of human life, was seventeen times the usual rate of mortality. It was, indeed, much more, because, in the estimate of mortality, persons of every age are included, while, in an African voyage, the aged were entirely excluded, and few infants were admitted. Such is the ruinous nature of the trade in its most favourable circumstances; but, in the voyage to the more distant parts of Africa, the mortality was stated to be twice as great; and consequently, thirty-four persons perished, at the lowest estimation, for one that would have died in the course of nature.

evident, that neither party could possess any title of this kind superior to the rest of mankind. The Spaniards committed some acts of violence against the English adventurers at Nootka Sound. They proposed a negociation, and that in the mean time neither people should put themselves to the unnecessary expense of an armament. This plan was rejected by Mr. Pitt. An immense fleet was manned with thirty thousand sailors, drawn from the commerce of the country. Four millions sterling were squandered in providing for a war. At last a kind of convention was agreed to in very equivocal terms.

The sequel of this business has been worthy of such a commencement. When this fleet was going to press, we received from Europe fresh accounts concerning the conduct of Spain. It appears that her commanders on the north west coast of North America have refused to make any concessions in consequence of the convention; and an English governor, who had been sent out to see its fulfilment, after staying in that inhospitable region for about two years, has found it necessary to return home. The whole transaction is therefore to begin over again.

The revolution in France had excited uncommon attention and interest in the British islands. The celebrated author of the pamphlet entitled *Common Sense*, illustrated and defended its principles in two pamphlets, entitled "*Rights of man*." The sale of these pamphlets far exceeded whatever had been heard of in the English language. In the preface to the second part, Mr. Paine tells us, that at least forty or fifty thousand copies of the first had been sold in Britain and Ireland. Cheap editions of both pamphlets were afterwards printed and sold at a reduced price. Five piratical editions, if not a greater number, were printed in Scotland only. The circulation lasted for about eighteen months, when effectual measures were adopted by the government of England to put an end to it. In that time, at least an hundred thousand, but more probably an hundred and fifty thousand copies of each of the two pamphlets were sold. Political reformation became the sole topic of discourse in every company. Immense numbers of publications appeared on both sides of the question; but the disciples of Mr. Paine bore away the palm of popularity. Scotland had been long and justly regarded as more servilely devoted to the will of government, than any other part of the British dominions. Their recent proceedings have been marked with the serious but decisive character of the nation. They assembled in numberless societies all over the country, and though their publications breathed the spirit of loyalty, the disguise was too transparent to conceal their ultimate object. Two conventions were held at Edinburgh in the course of last winter. In London, affairs were equally hastening to a crisis; above eighty thousand people entered into combinations for a parliamentary reform, and "*no church! no king!*" was the common stile of those meetings. The court took the alarm. Proclamations were issued against the printing of seditious writings. Some hundreds of prosecutions were entered into by the attorney general, against authors, printers, booksellers, presidents of reforming societies, and others. Counter associations were formed by the aristocracy, for the avowed purpose of harassing with prosecutions, all persons who thought differently on this subject from themselves. The parliament was abruptly summoned to meet; the fortifications of the tower of London, were put in immediate repair, and a variety of other expedients were employed to alarm the people. A farce of the same kind was acted at Edinburgh: the castle underwent additional improvements, and the gunpowder belonging to the merchants of the city was seized and deposited in the castle. The aristocracy in both kingdoms made no scruple of declaring that nothing but a French war could divert the people at large from adopting French principles, and from reducing them to practice. Accordingly war has been declared, and we have in a former part of this work stated its extraordinary commencement. Every vessel that arrives from Britain, brings over a

fresh catalogue of bankruptcies ; while it is becoming every day more evident that the combined powers cannot make the smallest impression on the territories of the republic. They have attempted to lay siege to Conde, a strong town on the frontiers of French Flanders ; and from the first to the tenth of May, it appears that the republicans attacked them on at least three or four different days, with great bravery, and with some degree of success.

The brave French general Dampierre expired of a wound received May 8th ; but a succession of hard fought battles of necessity forms a body of able officers, as well as of veteran soldiers to supply their places. In a word, the prospect of the allies becomes every day darker : but of the rise and progress of this war we must defer a regular account, till we reach the article France ; as the present one has already, in spite of our utmost endeavours to condense it, extended to an uncommon length.

W A L E S.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has a distinction in language and manners, we have assigned it a separate article.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.	
Length	130	between	{	51 and 54 North latitude.
Breadth	96			2.41 and 4.56 West longitude.
Area in square miles, 7011.				

NAME AND LANGUAGE.] The Welch are the descendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a settlement in England about fourscore years before the first descent of Julius Cæsar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles, that is, *Strangers*. Their language has a strong affinity with the Celtic, or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and descriptive powers.

BOUNDARIES.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present, being then bounded only by the Severn and the Dee ; but after the Saxons had made themselves masters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were obliged gradually to retreat westward. It does not, however, appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country, than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which formerly belonged to Wales, but now form part of England. The country is divided into four circuits, comprehending twelve counties. See ENGLAND.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND RIVERS.] The seasons are pretty much the same as in the northern parts of England, and the air is sharp, but wholesome. The soil of Wales, especially towards the North, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-stone and slate, several mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well supplied with wholesome springs ; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Allen.

MOUNTAINS.] It would be endless to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonshire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery, and partly in Cardiganhire, are the most famous. Their mountainous situation greatly assisted the natives in making so long and so noble a struggle against their Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman adversaries.

VEGETABLE, ANIMAL, AND MINERAL } In these particulars, Wales differs little
 PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. } from England. Their horses are smaller,
 but can endure vast fatigue; their black cattle are small likewise, but excellent beef,
 and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of
 goats feed on the mountains. Some very promising mines of silver, copper, lead, and
 iron, have been discovered in Wales. The Welch silver may be known by its being
 stamped with three ostrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, } The inhabitants of Wales are supposed to amount
 MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS. } to about 300,000, and though not in general wealth,
 they are provided with all the necessaries, and many of the conveniences of life. The
 land-tax of Wales brought in, some years ago, about forty-three thousand seven hundred
 and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are jealous of their liberties, and irascible, but
 their anger soon abates; and they are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. They
 are very fond of tracing 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 coe-
 val with the incarnation. It is, however, certain that great part of their history, espe-
 cially the ecclesiastical, is more ancient, and better attested, than that of the Anglo-
 Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards and poets, particularly Thalieffin,
 who lived about the year 450. Some of his works have appeared in an English transla-
 tion, but they can bear no parallel with the tenderness and sublimity of the poems ascrib-
 ed to Ossian, with whom we are naturally tempted to compare them. The Welch
 bard has perhaps been injured in the modern version. Poetical genius seems to have
 influenced the ancient Welch with an enthusiasm for independency, for which reason
 Edward I. is said to have made a general massacre of the bards. The Welch may be
 called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hospitality,
 and their strict adherence to their 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 higher classes of the Welch speak the English language; though numbers of the
 lower understand the Welch only.

The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the
 country congregations, they preach both in Welch and English. Their poverty was
 formerly a discouragement to learning; but the measures taken by the society for propa-
 gating christian knowledge, have 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 school-
 masters were employed to remove from place to place, for the instruction of the inhabi-
 tants; and their scholars amounted to 72,264. No people have distinguished themselves
 more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of
 national munificence. They print, at a vast expense, bibles, common prayer 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 some ancient
 families among them are still Roman Catholics. The principality contains great numbers
 of Protestant Dissenters.

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. Wicklif-
 fism took shelter in Wales when it was persecuted in England. Giraldus Cambrensis,
 whose history was published by Camden, was a Welchman; and Leland mentions several

learned men of the same country, who flourished before the Reformation. The burying-place of Arthur and his queen was discovered by some lines of Thalieffin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Wales has produced several excellent antiquaries. Rowland, the learned author of the *Mona Antiqua*, was a Welchman; as was the lord keeper Williams, archbishop of York, in the time of king Charles I. 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 supplied the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonstrated by mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his *Archæologia*, and is confirmed by various monumental inscriptions of undoubted authority, cited in Rowland's *Mona Antiqua*. We have an excellent history of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert, of Cherbury, a Welchman.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER }
EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Wales contains no cities or towns remarkable for populousness or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of Anglesey, and has a good harbour. 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. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradesmen; and part of the country is fertile and pleasant. The other towns of Wales, have nothing particular. Wales, in ancient times, was more populous than it is at present; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old castles are so strongly built, and so well situated, that they might be turned into strong forts at a small expense: witness the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, }
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } 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 Druidical institutions, and places of worship, are chiefly discernible in the isle of Anglesey, the ancient *Mona*, mentioned by Tacitus, who describes it as being the chief seminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Many Roman altars, antiquities, and utensils, have been discovered in Wales. Among the other artificial curiosities, is king Offa's dyke, which is said to have been a boundary between the Saxons, and the Welch or Britons. Cherphilly-castle, in Glamorganshire, is said to have been the largest in Britain, excepting Windsor; and the remains of it show it to have been a most beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy.

Near the town of Flint are the remains of a large castle, in which Richard II. was confined for some time before his deposition and murder. A variety of Roman antiquities have been found in this town, which is supposed to have been a Roman station.

Among the natural curiosities of this country are the following. At a small village called Newton, in Glamorganshire, is a remarkable spring near 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, called St. Winifred's well. The spring boils with vast impetuosity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, supported by pillars, and the roof is exquisitely carved in stone. Over the spring is also a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous state. 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 cast out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, and varies but little in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greatest rains; but in consequence of the latter is discoloured by a wheyish tinge. In Caernarvonshire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, across the edge of which the public road lies, and occasions no small terror to travellers; from one hand the impending rock seems ready every minute to crush them to pieces; and the great precipice below, which hangs over the sea, is so hideous, and, till very lately, when a wall was raised on the side of the road, was so full of danger, that one false step was of dismal consequence. Snowdon hill is, by triangular measurement, 1240 yards of perpendicular height.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Welch in commerce and manufactures are not inferior to many of the western and northern counties of England. Their trade is mostly inland, or with England, into which they send numbers of black cattle. Milford-haven, which is reckoned the finest in Europe, lies in Pembrokeshire. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ships, and its inhabitants carry on an extensive trade. In Brecknockshire are several woollen manufactures; and Wales, in general, carries on a great coal trade with England and Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united and incorporated with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form; all laws, customs, and tenures, contrary to those of England, being abolished, 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.

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, we have already mentioned the land-tax; and the crown has a certain, though small property, in the product of the silver and lead-mines: but it is said, that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8000l. a year.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by the three different tribes of Britons, the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices. These people made such courageous opposition to the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely subdued; though part of their country, as appears from the ruins of castles, was bridled by garrisons. The Saxons conquered 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. 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 brave attempts to maintain their liberties against the Norman kings of England. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a pretence for the future conquest of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellyn, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his undutiful son Griffyn, having put himself under subjection and homage to Henry III. of England.

But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of his worthless son, Edward I. who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellyn, prince of Wales, disdaining the subjection to which old Llewellyn had submitted, Edward raised an army at a great expense, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking possession of the isle of Anglesey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them

to submit to pay tribute. The Welch, however, made several efforts under young Llewellyn: 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 hanged, with the wonted barbarity of that atrocious tyrant. Edward, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time probably, that he perpetrated the inhuman massacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not sufficient to complete the conquest, he sent his queen, in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon castle, that the Welch, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has ever since descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England became thenceforth 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 all the affairs of the principality. This was thought so necessary a piece of policy, that when Henry VIII. had no son, his daughter Mary was created princess of Wales.

I S L E O F M A N.

SOME think that Man takes its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among), because, lying in St. George's Channel, it is almost at an equal distance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland. Its length from north to south is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the island is fifty-four degrees sixteen minutes north. It is said, that on a clear day the three Britannic kingdoms may be seen from this island. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. The ridge of mountains, which, as it were, divides the island, of which Snafield is the highest, rising 1640 feet above the level of the sea, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good pasturage. The wealthier sort of inhabitants have good large horses, and a small kind which are swift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any 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. Castletown is the metropolis of the island; and the seat of government; Peele 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; Ramsay has likewise a considerable commerce on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds except the north-east. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may see how conveniently this island is situated for being the storehouse of smugglers, which it was till within these thirty years.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the seas, who have been already mentioned, this island was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, 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 undoubtedly were for some ages masters of those seas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, 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, to the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. ; and the kings of England, from that time, exercised the sovereignty over the island ; 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 bishopric, 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. The customs and the island were purchased from the Athol family by the crown of England ; and the bargain was completed by 70,000*l.* being paid to the duke in 1765. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the island, though the form of its government is altered ; and the king has now the same rights, powers and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants also retain many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

The established religion in Man is that of the church of England. The bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of other bishops, but does not sit in the British house of peers ; his see never having been erected into an English barony.

The ecclesiastical government is well maintained in this island, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is spoken by the common people, is radically Gaelic, or Irish, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Testament and Common Prayer Book have been translated into the Manks language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffensive, charitable, and hospitable. The higher class live in stone houses, covered with slate, and the lower 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 which they may have occasion for from other countries. 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, adorned with pure gold.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS island is opposite to the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to seven miles : it is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length extends, from east to west, twenty-three miles ; its breadth, from north to south, about thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly in the southern parts ; the soil is various, and so great is its fertility, that more wheat grows here in one year, than can be consumed by the inhabitants in eight. A range of hills, which afford fine pasture

for sheep, extends from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts, 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 bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ships and vessels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly supply 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 beautiful country 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 the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each a little garden.

The town of Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. The river Medina empties itself into the channel at Cowes harbour, distant about five miles, and, being navigable up to the quay, is very commodious for trade. The three principal streets of Newport extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, all of which are spacious, clean, and well paved.

Carisbrooke 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 coasts of England.

THE ISLANDS OF JERSEY, GUERNSEY, ALDERNEY, SARK, LUNDY, &c.

JERSEY, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, are situated in the English channel, and are subject to England. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed distance between Jersey and Sark is four leagues; between that and Guernsey, seven leagues; and between the same island and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans; and lies farthest within the bay, in forty-nine degrees seven minutes north latitude, and in the second degree twenty-six minutes west longitude, eighteen miles west of Normandy, and eighty four miles south of Portland. The north side is inaccessible, through lofty cliffs; the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and sheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of stockings. The honey in Jersey is remarkably fine: and the island is well supplied with fish and wild-fowl 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 Camlen's time, it was said there was here no business for a physician. The inhabitants are in number about 20,000, and are divided into twelve parishes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains about 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 recognize him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which most of them intermingle English words; yet French is most generally the language of the pulpit and the bar. Knit stockings and caps form their staple commodity; but they carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England; but the civil administration rests with the bailiff, assisted by twelve jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which forms a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from south-west to north-east, and twelve and a half where broadest, east and west; has only ten parishes, to which there are about eight ministers. Though this is naturally a finer island than that of Jersey, yet it is far less valuable, being poorly cultivated and thinly inhabited. It abounds in cyder: the inhabitants speak French.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compass. It is healthy, and is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a small island depending on Guernsey: the inhabitants are about 300. The inhabitants of the three last-mentioned islands together, are thought to be about 20,000.

SCILLY ISLANDS AND ROCKS, anciently called the SILURES, are a cluster of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about thirty miles from the Land's End, in Cornwall, of which county they are reckoned a part, and to which they are supposed to have been formerly joined, but separated from it, and from each other, by some violent eruption of the sea, which is here between 40 and 60 fathoms deep.

LUNDY ISLAND, though 50 miles from land off the north-west coast from Devonshire, has springs of fresh water. It is five miles long, and two broad, but so encompassed with inaccessible rocks, that it has but one entrance to it, so narrow that two men can scarcely go abreast: it had once a fort and chapel.

HOLY ISLAND is situated ten miles south-east of Berwick upon Tweed; it was anciently a bishop's see, and had 22 bishops successively. It has plenty of fish and fowl, but the air and soil are bad. It is three miles in compass, and has a town, a church, and castle, under which is a commodious harbour.

I R E L A N D.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

THE island of Ireland is situated on the west side of England, between 6 and 10 degrees west longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth climate, where the longest day is 16 1-2 hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the 10th climate, where the longest day is 17 1-2 hours.

The extent or superficial contents of this kingdom, is, from the nearest computation and survey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north to Miffenhead 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 make 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 159 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 square miles. From the east part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, 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, to Dublin, about 52 miles.

DIVISIONS.] The modern division of this island is into four provinces, viz. 1. Leinster; 2. Ulster; 3. Munster; 4. Connaught; and these again into 32 counties, 267 baronies, and 2293 parishes. The following table will show the principal town and the contents, in acres, of each county:

Provinces.	Counties.	Acres.	Chief towns.
LEINSTER, 12 counties,	Carlow, - -	116,900	Carlow,
	Dublin, - -	123,784	Dublin,
	Kildare, - -	228,590	Naas and Athy,
	Kilkenny, - -	287,650	Kilkenny,
	King's County, -	257,510	Philipstown,
	Longford, - -	134,700	Longford,
	Louth, - -	111,180	Drogheda and Dundalk,
	Meath, - -	326,480	Trim,
	Queen's County, -	238,415	Maryborough,
	Westmeath, - -	249,943	Mullingar,
	Wexford, - -	315,396	Wexford,
	Wicklow, - -	252,410	Wicklow.
		<hr/>	
		2,642,958	
ULSTER, 9 counties,	Antrim, - -	383,020	Carrickfergus,
	Armagh, - -	170,620	Armagh,
	Cavan, - -	274,800	Cavan,
	Down, - -	344,658	Downpatrick,
	Donnegal, - -	630,157	Lifford,
	Fermanagh, - -	224,807	Inniskillen,
	Londonderry, -	251,510	Derry,
	Monaghan, - -	170,090	Monaghan,
	Tyrone, - -	387,175	Omagh.
		<hr/>	
		2,836,837	
MUNSTER, 6 counties,	Clare, - -	428,187	Ennis,
	Cork, - -	991,010	Gork,
	Kerry, - -	636,905	Tralee,
	Limerick, - -	375,320	Limerick,
	Tipperary, - -	599,500	Clonmel,
	Waterford, - -	259,010	Waterford.
		<hr/>	
		3,289,932	

CONNAUGHT, 5 counties, Galway, - -	775,525	Galway,
Leitrim, - -	206,830	Carrick on Shannon,
Mayo, - - -	724,640	Castlebar,
Roscommon -	324,370	Roscommon,
Sligo, - - -	241,550	Sligo.

2,272,915

In all Ireland, 11,042,642

NAME.] The Irish antiquarians generally agree, that the ancient name of Ireland was *Scotia*, and that, at different periods, it has also been called *Ierne*, *Juverna*, *Hibernia*, &c. Much critical learning, and national partiality, appeared for several ages between the writers of Ireland and Scotland on this subject, and on the sources from whence their respective countries were peopled; but the concurring sentiments and testimony of the most respectable authors have decided the controversy in favour of Ireland on the former point; and the opinion of Hume, in confirmation of other authorities, nearly puts an end to the discussion of the latter, by a declaration in support of the pretensions of Ireland.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The climate of Ireland, though it does not generally differ much from that of England, is, however, found to possess an atmosphere more moist, with more frequent returns of rain. This has been accounted for by observing, that “the westerly winds, so favourable to other regions, and so benign even in Ireland, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the extreme. Meeting with no lands on the west side of the island, to break their force, and proving in general too powerful for the counteraction of the shifting winds from the eastern and African continents, they waft thither the vapours of an immense ocean. The sky is thereby much obscured; and, from the nature of rest and condensation, these vapours descend in such constant rains, as in some seasons threaten destruction to the fruits of the earth. This unavoidable evil from natural causes, is aggravated by the increase of it from others, which are absolutely 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, equally hurtful to the prosperity and manners of every nation. 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 of Ireland into mossy morasses, and near a tenth part of that 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 frosts, the deep snows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are so frequently observed in the latter kingdom, are never experienced there.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES.] Perhaps no country of the same extent is more bountifully watered by the finest rivers and lakes, or more perfectly indented by the noblest harbours; it possesses, in an eminent degree, those great requisites for agriculture, manufactures, and the most extended commerce. The rivers, besides abounding with an infinite variety of fish, communicate uncommon fertility to the lands which they beautify, and afford a multitude of the best situations for the machinery of manufactures. The harbours are not only numerous, but, in some instances, capable of containing, in the utmost security,

* O'Connor's Dissertations.

the greatest fleets. They, however, have been long solitary and unfrequented, as the illiberal spirit of trading jealousy, which Britain has unfeelingly and incessantly exercised, has rendered all these distinguished blessings of providence of little value, except to the adventurous mariner, whom distress or tempest has driven to experience their seasonable protection.

The principal rivers are the Shannon, Barrow, Nore, Suir, Bann, Lee, Liffey, and Boyne. 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, falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Kerry-point and Loop-head.

The Lee rises in the county of Cork, below which city it falls into the sea, after an easterly course of about twenty-six miles. The Liffey rises in the county of Wicklow; and, pursuing a course of some length, falls into the Irish sea below Dublin. The Boyne rises near Edenderry in King's County, and falls into the sea at Drogheda. The Barrow, Nore and Suir, have their sources in different branches of the mountain, Slieu-Bloom, and fall, after having united their streams, into the sea, at Hook-point, at the mouth of the haven of Waterford. The Bann, famous for a pearl and salmon fishery, rises in the county of Down, and falls into Lough Neagh, in the county of Armagh.

It would be difficult to enumerate the many bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which indent every part of the coast, and, from their various situations in respect to other countries, render this, above all others, the most admirably accommodated for universal commerce; the following are the principal: Waterford, Carlingford, and Strangford-havens, the bay of Carrickfergus, on the east; Lough-Foyle and Lough-Swilly, Ship-haven, Killybegs-harbour, Donegal-haven, on the north; Galway-haven, the mouth of the Shannon, Sherwick, or St. Mary-wick-haven, Dingle-bay, on the west; Kenmare-bay or river, Bantry, Dunmanus, and Baltimore-bays, Castle-haven, Glendore-haven, Kinfale and Cork-havens, on the south and south-east. These are the principal unbarred havens. There are likewise a great many barred havens, some of which have been much improved at public expense, particularly that of Dublin.

The lakes or loughs of Ireland have so many properties, in some respects peculiar to themselves, that their singularities, their extent, or their beauties, have long engaged the attention of the traveller and the poet; and have attracted the curiosity and excited the admiration of people of taste from every part of Europe. The most remarkable are the Lakes of Killarney, Lough-erne and Lough-Neagh.

The lakes of Killarney are three in number. The northern or lower lake is six miles in length, and from three to four in breadth. The town of Killarney is situated on its northern shore. The southern is composed of lofty mountains, covered with fine timber. From the centre of the lake, the view is astonishingly sublime, presenting to the eye an extent of forest six miles in length, and from half a mile to a mile and an half in breadth, spreading on the sides of two mountains, whose naked summits, rising above the whole, form a striking contrast to the verdure of the lower region. O'Sullivan's cascade falls into the lake, from a height of more than seventy feet. The isle of Inisfallen lies opposite to this cascade, containing eighteen acres, and, for that extent of land, can exhibit more picturesque elegance, than perhaps any other spot in Europe.

The promontory of Mucrufs, divides the upper from the lower lake. The upper lake is four miles in length, and from two to three in breadth. The two lakes are connected by a narrow winding passage round the promontory. In its streight is the famous rock called the Eagle's Nest, from the number of those birds, which build their nests in that place. It rises abruptly from the water to an astonishing height,

The base for some distance up is covered with trees; but the part, which appears above the wood, is covered with immense blocks of marble, heaped one over the other almost perpendicularly. This rock produces those wonderful echoes, which have so often excited the admiration of travellers, when visiting the lakes of Killarney. A French horn, sounded there, raises a concert superior to an hundred instruments, and the report of a single cannon is answered by a succession of peals resembling the loudest thunder, which seems to roll over the surrounding scenery, and die away among the distant mountains. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmare, has obligingly placed some cannon, in the most proper places for the amusement of travellers.

The upper lake is almost surrounded with mountains, in some places bare and wild, even to rudeness; in others, covered with woods hanging down to the water. From the mountains descend a number of streams, some of them forming beautiful cascades, which, in a clear day, glitter to the sun beams, and give a high degree of animation to the whole scenery. The third of these lakes is inferior in point of beauty to the other two; yet, by a variety of striking views, it commands the attention of every traveller.

Lough Erne is the largest lake in Ireland, being forty miles in length, and in some places fifteen in breadth. Near the middle it contracts itself for a considerable way, and in the centre of this contracted body of water, there is an island, on which stands the town of Inniskillen; the communication with the main land being preserved by two bridges.

Lough Neagh is of an oval figure, but considerably indented on its sides. It is near twenty miles in length, and about ten in breadth; it abounds with a variety of fish, and in particular, the pullein, or fresh water herring, admired for the uncommon delicacy of its flavour. This lake is not so remarkable for picturesque beauties, as Lough Erne, and the lakes of Killarney; but the water, or the shore around it is possessed with a petrifying quality. Frequent petrifications of wood are found in the neighbourhood.

MOUNTAINS, CAVES, AND GLENS.] 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; *Slieve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually ascending and continued in several ridges; a *bienn*, or *binn*, signifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the first magnitude, ending in a sharp or abrupt precipice. The two last are often seen and compounded together in one and the same range. Ireland, 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 Slieu-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. Part of these mountains contain in their bowels beds of minerals, coals, stone, slate and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

About two miles from the town of Kilkenny, in the neighbourhood of the park-house of Dunmore, is a number of caves, which are supposed to rival any in the world, except that of Antiparos. A description of them has been written on the spot by a gentleman, whose account we shall here abridge. After a difficult descent of about an hundred feet, you gain an entrance into this subterranean world. The appearance of the first cavern is uncommonly awful, and strikes you with the idea of a grand Gothic structure in ruins. The sides are composed of ragged rocks in some parts covered with moss, and in others curiously frosted. The circumference of this cave is not less than two hundred feet, and its height is about fifty.

On entering this place, you are stunned with the noise of a multitude of wild pigeons. Hence there is an ascending passage to the left, by which you enter a large cavity. Here a thousand vast rocks rudely piled on each other, compose the sides, which bend in, while a multitude of a lesser size hang from the roof. The place is totally dark; and the passage across the rocks at the bottom dangerous to the traveller. This cavern leads to another more curious than the rest. The floor is covered with a crystalline substance, and the roof with inverted pyramids of the same materials. Here are three congelations of particular beauty, which, by the help of a strong imagination, may be taken for an organ, a cross, and an altar. When you leave this apartment, you return to the first cavern, at the distance of a quarter of a mile. Several other passages branch off, by which you may proceed, till the noise of a subterranean river strikes your ear. No adventurer has yet attempted to approach it.

Amongst the numerous glens in Ireland, distinguished for beauty, are two in the county of Wicklow. The Glen of the Downs is a pass between two vast ridges of mountains, covered with wood, which have a noble effect. The vale is no wider than to admit the road, a small rivulet running almost by its side; the scenery is of a most magnificent nature.

The Dargle is a narrow vale formed by the sides of two opposite mountains; the depth is immense, and the bottom thickly spread with oak. The channel of the river covers the whole space between the two mountains, and tumbles from rock to rock. The extent of wood that hangs to the eye in every direction, is great, and the depth of the glen immense, which, with the roar of the water, forms a scene truly interesting. In less than a quarter of a mile, the road, passing through the wood, leads to another point of view, to the right; it is the crown of a vast projecting rock, from which you look down a precipice absolutely perpendicular, and many hundred feet deep, upon the torrent. To describe this glen with the minuteness which it deserves, would far exceed our limits: these slight sketches may give some idea of the picturesque beauty of the whole.

FORESTS OR WOODS.] Ireland, like most other countries, was originally covered with wood, which presented an asylum to the natives, from the ferocity of their English invaders. Hence it became an object with the latter, to destroy the forests as soon as possible. This inauspicious undertaking has been attended with the most unfortunate success, and woods, which might have supplied an inexhaustible source of national wealth, have been totally extirpated. The patronage of the Dublin Society, and the exertions of numerous individuals, offer the distant prospect of some kind of relief to this great calamity.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY LAND AND SEA. } These are in general similar to those of Britain. The unimproved state of Ireland for ages prevented the introduction and cultivation of the numerous tribes of the vegetable kingdom; but peace and settlement have now diffused these, as well as other blessings, through the nation. The wolf-dogs, once so useful and celebrated, were perhaps peculiar to Ireland; but that species is now nearly extinct. Although the coasts of the neighbouring islands may be furnished with the same varieties of fish, yet those of Ireland have them in much greater abundance, and of a larger and more excellent quality.

METALS, MINERALS, AND } MEDICINAL WATERS. } The mines of Ireland, until the destruction of the woods, were worked to a very great extent. At present, although abundance of the various species of iron, lead, silver, and copper ores are to be found in every direction through the kingdom, yet the want of capital, or skill, or enterprize, is such, that few are worked to any important extent or profit, except the great copper-mines in the county of Wicklow.

In several counties are noble quarries of the finest marble; those of Kerry are of

various colours, green, red, yellow, and white; and those of Kilkenny, black and white; both of which take the most elegant polish, and are calculated for all the purposes of building or ornament.

Many parts of the kingdom abound with free stone, some of a bright sparkling colour, others of a gray or ash colour, and some approaching to a blue.—Those of Ardrachan, Garrycorris, and the mountains of Wicklow and Dublin, are particularly admired, and much used in public buildings.

Various species of coal, and in the greatest abundance, are to be found in different parts of the kingdom. The pits of Kilkenny yield a coal possessing many peculiar properties; it is very hard, burns freely, emits little or no smoke, is of a bright black, and is found to be admirably adapted for malting, and various purposes of manufacture.

There are great numbers of mineral springs in this kingdom, of various classes, recommended for medicinal purposes: of these, the most generally resorted to, from their experienced good effects, are the waters of Swanlinbar and Drumasnave, in the north-west quarter, and of Lucan, six miles from the capital. It appears necessary to mention, under this head, that there are several petrifying lakes and springs in this island, of which Lough Neagh, already described, in Ulster, is the most remarkable.

ANTIQUITIES.] Some of the most singular monuments of antiquity in this country, are the round towers. Fifty-one remain dispersed in different parts of the island. Their original use is unknown; but they are generally situated in the neighbourhood of the ruins of abbies or monasteries, which affords a presumption that they were erected for religious purposes.

Of the natural curiosities of Ireland, none has excited such attention as the Giant's Causeway. This is a mole or quay formed by the hand of nature, projecting from the base of a steep promontory, some hundred feet into the sea. It is formed of perpendicular pillars of basalt, which stand in contact with each other, exhibiting an appearance not much unlike a solid honeycomb. The pillars are irregular prisms of various denominations, from four to eight sides; but the hexagonal columns are as numerous as all the others together. On a minute inspection, each pillar is found to be separable into several joints, whose articulation is neat beyond expression. The sides of each column are unequal among themselves; but the contiguous sides of adjoining columns are always of equal dimensions, so as to touch in all their parts. Though the angles are of various magnitudes, yet the sum of the contiguous angles of adjoining pillars, always makes up four right ones. Hence there are no void spaces among the basalt, the surface of the causeway exhibiting to view a regular and compact pavement of polygon stone.

POPULATION.] Sir William Petty, in his Political Anatomy, informs us, that in the year 1641, Ireland contained one million four hundred and sixty-six thousand inhabitants; but that in 1652, its population extended only to eight hundred and fifty thousand. So great a havoc, as the loss of almost one half of its population in eleven years, has hardly ever happened to any people, unless perhaps the Jews, or the subjects of the British East India company. It is certain that Cromwell and Ireton made large strides towards extirpating the whole people, and were restrained, not by motives of humanity, but by the difficulties of the undertaking. In 1672, the author above quoted raises the population to eleven hundred thousand.

In spite of the worst species of bad government, the nation has continued to multiply. In 1786, the collectors of hearth money having laid their accounts before the house of commons, it appeared that Ireland contained at that time four hundred and seventy-four thousand two hundred and thirty-four houses. Since that period, it is reasonable to suppose that the number has increased, as the progress of society has not, till last Spring, been interrupted by the destructive waste of war. Many houses may likewise have been omitted by the surveyors; and from this double source of

addition to the former estimate, it is probable, that there are not less than five hundred thousand houses in the whole island.

From a great variety of calculations it seems to be a moderate statement, that the houses in town and country average eight persons each. By this rate the total population of Ireland amounts to four millions of people, of whom three-fourths are Roman catholics.

LANGUAGE.] The dialects peculiar to the Welch, the Scots Highlanders, and the old Irish, are all collateral branches from the stock of the Celtic language, spoken in Gaul, in the days of Julius Cesar, and most probably well known in other parts of the continent of Europe. In mr. Macpherson's Introduction to the history of Britain and Ireland, he has printed a copious list of Latin and modern Gaelic words, by which it appears, that the language which has been employed by the Scots Highlanders, is intimately connected with the Latin; and consequently, the Irish and Welch dialects have the same relation to that tongue. We have seen a manuscript of the very learned and ingenious colonel Vallancey, in which he affirms that this relation or resemblance may be traced in, he believes, every language of the old continent, not excepting the most isolated of them all, that of China. There is the greatest probability, that Ireland was visited, at a very remote period, by the Phœnicians, who are supposed to have introduced the use of the alphabet. There is not, in the whole range of literature, any department more curious, than a variety of tracts inserted in the *Archæologia*, published at London by a society of gentlemen, respecting the monuments of antiquity which have been discovered and described in Ireland by governor Pownall and others; and of these, the inscriptions on some of the tombstones of old warriors, which can still be read by antiquaries, are not the least extraordinary.

As to the language itself, there is no doubt, that it must, at a remote period, have been one of the most simple, beautiful, and emphatic in the world. We have been intimately acquainted with several gentlemen, who had acquired, in their infancy, the Scots Gaelic, and all agreed in speaking of it with rapture.

AGRICULTURE.] The agriculture of Ireland has been extended and improved within the last thirty years; but it is still in a very backward state. A sufficient quantity of corn is now raised for home consumption, and even to support a considerable exportation; yet the mode of cultivation is still very defective, as the Irish have not hitherto introduced those improved systems of husbandry, which have long been pursued in Britain, and in some other parts of Europe.

The landlords neglect to instruct or encourage their tenantry. The country gentlemen who never reside on their estates, are very numerous, and are for the most part utterly ignorant or indifferent as to the state of agriculture. The soil is considered by too many landlords, merely in the light of a species of property, from which as much rent is to be drained as possible, and the shortest and most productive methods are regarded as the best. In Turkey, the taxes or contributions are raised exactly on the same principles; and there, as in Ireland, and indeed in every other country, where such maxims are adopted, desolation and distress stalk hand in hand over the ruins of civilized life. The consequence is, that immense numbers of the Irish peasantry are poor, ignorant, and wretched. Some regulations have of late years been adopted, which are supposed to promote the interests of agriculture. When wheat sinks in price below twenty-seven shillings per barrel, there is a bounty on exportation, of three shillings and four pence, per barrel, and no foreign grain is suffered to be imported. By this regulation, the farmer is encouraged to raise wheat, from the certainty that he will have an open market abroad, and no rival at home: on the other hand, when the price rises to thirty shillings, the exportation is prohibited, lest the price of grain should become too high, and the ports are thrown open for the importation of foreign wheat and other kinds of grain.

Some advantages have been derived from this plan; and the Dublin Society have proposed numerous and liberal premiums, for the improvement of agriculture. But all these laws and premiums will serve as little purpose as the same endeavours did under the old monarchy of France. The execrable form of government blasted every blossom of rural industry. In Ireland, the same causes have produced the same effects.

FISHERIES.] Ireland has advantages in the several fisheries, at least equal to those of any other country in Europe, particularly in her situation, and in her numerous creeks and harbours. Her shores are stored with all the varieties of fish, her fishermen a hardy and adventurous race, and the opportunity of curing on contiguous shores, gives them important advantages. The parliamentary bounties are on a liberal scale; are in general judicious, and, under regulations by which they may be obtained with ease and expedition by the fair claimants, will probably operate to the establishment of fisheries, which, instead of being a minor object, will become, perhaps, the first in the trade of Ireland.

These advantages must be greatly aided, when large private capitals are employed, and when the proper markets, the habits of trade, and correspondences shall be better known and established.

The north-west and western coasts of the kingdom, abounding in a superior degree with herrings, have long attracted the national attention and legislative encouragement.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Ireland, for more than a century past, has been fertile of learned and ingenious authors. The name of archbishop Usher is familiar to every reader. Dr. Berkeley is an entertaining though desultory writer. Sir Hans Sloane was no less remarkable for his museum than his abilities. Dr. Hutcheson is the principal ethic philosopher of Ireland. Dr. Leland is known to the world as author of the "Life of Philip of Macedon;" a translation of Demosthenes; and a history of Ireland. Dr. Crawford's history of Ireland is distinguished by liberality of sentiment and fidelity of research. O'Halloran's ancient history of Ireland deserves a perusal; but Dr. Curry appears with advantage superior to that of any other writer on this subject. As a historian, he is accurate, intelligent, and instructive. He has vindicated, in a way which admits of no answer, the national character of Ireland, from innumerable slanders, the offspring of ignorance, malevolence, and fanaticism. David Hume adopted and embellished the crowd of falsehoods, which had been invented respecting the massacre of the protestants in Ireland, in the reign of Charles the first. He was politely requested to examine the evidences on this melancholy subject, and either to vindicate or retract his assertions. He returned an evasive answer; and did neither. This mean instance of self-conceit reflects no great honour on his memory; and to those who peruse his history of England, his refusal to correct its errors on this head, makes an acquaintance with Dr. Curry's work necessary. Of elegant poets, Ireland can boast an ample share. Roscommon, Parnell, Congreve, and Cunningham, author of some exquisite pastoral pieces, are universally admired. Mr. Ogle, who modernized a part of Chaucer's tales, deserves to be better known than he has hitherto been, in the literary world. The tale of Grisselda is one of the most pathetic in any language. It is indeed by far superior to any other in the collection: the version of this affecting narrative by Mr. Ogle is, in correctness, elegance, and sublimity of versification, nothing inferior to the best of Dryden's performances inserted in the same publication.

Dr. Goldsmith is equally pleasing in verse and prose. His Traveller is extremely beautiful, but above all his Deserted Village commands the unlimited admiration of every person possessing the slightest degree of sensibility. Wood published Ruins of Palmyra and Balbec, and an essay on the genius and writings of Homer; two per-

performances which deserve a place in the best libraries. Sterne, who was born in the barracks of Dublin, is another writer whose volumes are in every hand; and had he possessed the fortitude to expunge the jargon and obscenity which deform his pages, he might have aspired to unfulfilled, as well as to unrivaled fame. It would far exceed the bounds of this publication to enter into a critical review of a great number of modern authors, natives of Ireland, and whose works though not in the first rank of genius, are yet for the most part respectable and useful. Lord Orrery, sir Richard Steele, mr. Webb, author of an enquiry into the beauties of painting, Johnson, author of *Chrysal*, Brooke, author of the *Fool of Quality*, a well known novel, dr. Sheridan, author of the *Pronouncing Dictionary*, dr. Dunkin, and mr. Southerne, the tragic poet, come all under this description. Farquahr will be long remembered by the patrons of comic genius; and indeed, for the last twenty years, the majority of the dramatic writers, who have obtained any kind of popularity on the English stage, have been indebted for their birth to Ireland.

“When Swift is considered as an author,” says dr. Johnson, “it is just to estimate his powers by their effects. In the reign of Queen Anne, he turned the stream of popularity against the Whigs, and must be confessed to have dictated for a time the political opinions of the English nation. In the succeeding reign, he delivered Ireland from plunder and oppression; and showed, that wit, confederated with truth, had such force as authority was unable to resist. He said truly of himself, that Ireland *was his debtor*. It was from the time that he began to patronise the Irish, that they may date their riches and prosperity. He taught them first to know their own interest, their weight, and their strength, and gave them spirit to assert that equality with their fellow subjects, to which they have ever since been making vigorous advances; and to claim those rights which they have at last established. Nor can they be charged with ingratitude to their benefactor; for they revered him as a guardian, and obeyed him as a dictator.

“In his works is found an equable tenor of easy language, which rather trickles than flows. His delight was in simplicity. That he had in his works no metaphor, as has been said, is not true; but his few metaphors seem to be received rather by necessity than choice. He studied purity; and though perhaps all his strictures are not exact, yet it is not often that solecisms can be found.”

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one university, which is called Trinity college, at Dublin. It was founded in the year 1591, in the reign of Elizabeth; but its original constitution being found imperfect, it received in 1637 a new charter. The government of the college was placed in the provost, and major part of the senior fellows. The whole number of fellows was sixteen, viz. seven senior, and nine junior. The number of scholars was augmented to seventy. The present number of fellowships is twenty-two, seven senior, and fifteen junior. The emoluments of a senior fellowship are supposed at present to exceed six hundred pounds yearly. Besides the fellowships, there are on the foundation five royal professorships, divinity, common law, civil law, physic, and Greek. The salary of the divinity professor is five hundred pounds per annum; that of the law three hundred and sixty pounds. The other royal professors have one hundred pounds per annum each. There are, besides, professors of the mathematics, Oriental tongues, modern languages, oratory, history, natural philosophy, of the theory and practice of physic, of surgery and midwifery, and of pharmacy and the *Materia Medica*.

The university itself is perhaps one of the noblest edifices of the kind in Europe. It extends in front above three hundred feet, and in depth six hundred; and is divided nearly into equal squares. The principal front, opposite College Green, which was erected in 1759, is in the Corinthian order, and built of mountain stone, as are all the buildings in the first square, the east side of which

is intended to be ornamented with an elegant steeple and spire an hundred and fifty feet high.

The library is very superb; a great part of the books were collected by archbishop Usher. In the museum, is a set of figures in wax, representing females in every state of pregnancy. They are executed upon real skeletons, and are the labours of almost the whole life of a French artist.

The ROYAL IRISH ACADEMY of science, polite literature, and antiquities, was incorporated by letters patent in 1786, under the patronage of the king, and is composed of some of the most learned and ingenious men in the kingdom. They have published two volumes of their transactions, which consist of several curious and valuable papers on various subjects, presented by different members; which have been received by the literary world with applause. This institution forms an era in the history of Irish literature, and will probably be productive of auspicious consequences, in the promotion of science and general erudition.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The chief work of this kind, hitherto undertaken in Ireland, is the grand canal. It was begun in the year 1756, and has been chiefly executed under the inspection of mr. Richard Evans. No great progress was made for several years. In 1772, a company of undertakers was incorporated by act of parliament; and in 1786, the communication was completed from Dublin to Monastereven, comprehending a course of thirty-one miles and a half. At Monastereven it falls into the river Barrow. It is navigated by boats of thirty to forty tons burden, and is supplied with water from numerous rivers and streams. There are twenty-six locks on this navigation, six double, and twenty single, the falls in which vary from four feet three inches to nineteen feet seven inches. The summit level is only two hundred and two feet four inches above the harbour of James's street, eighty-two feet nine inches above the river Barrow, at Monastereven, and two hundred and sixty-five feet above the tide, in the Liffey, at Dublin.

The completion of this canal has communicated the most essential advantages to the country through which it passes, and its vicinity. Large tracts of barren land and bog have been reduced to a state of cultivation, as the canal increases the value of the ground in its neighbourhood, by affording an easy and expeditious conveyance to the metropolis of flour, corn, coal, turf, &c. for which it transports in return, manufactures and articles of consumption of infinite variety.

Several other works of this nature are at present executing in Ireland; and there is hardly a country in the world better adapted for improvements with respect to inland navigation, or which would reap more substantial advantages from it. For example, immense quantities of coal are annually imported from Whitehaven and other towns in the north of England, to Dublin. In the Spring of 1793, between forty and fifty vessels entered the harbour of Dublin, freighted with coals only, in the course of less than a week. It is commonly believed that abundance of coal may be found within about fifty miles of Dublin, which cannot be conveyed to the metropolis, at the requisite degree of cheapness, for want of water-carriage. The royal canal, a work which has made some progress, will, it is supposed, complete this navigation, and thereby save prodigious sums, which are annually transmitted to England.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS.] Notwithstanding the baleful effects of various political causes; though luxury enervates; though corruption dissolves and effaces; though extreme misery distorts and deforms; and though a revenue is made to depend, in Ireland, on the consumption of ardent spirits, which directly tend to blast the vigour of mind and body; still are the great features, which have at all times characterized Irishmen, plainly discernible by the attentive and impartial observer.

The moisture, the temperature of the climate, the genial breezes of the west, are here very favourable to animal as well as vegetable growth. The Irish are inferior

to no nation in bodily strength and beauty; they are perhaps superior to any in pliability and agility of limbs.

Always inclined to manly and martial exercises, they readily confront any undertaking; their bodies are fitted to any climate, or to any difficulty; and from the same source, might perhaps be derived that spirit of heroism, which has characterized them.

What peculiarly distinguishes the Irish character, is, a comprehension of qualities which are seldom found compatible; sudden ardour—unabating perseverance; universal aptitude—firm adherence; impatience of injury—a long remembrance of it; strength of resolution—tenderness of affection. These outlines of the Irish character may be filled by the full-grown lineaments, which the writers of different ages, and of different countries, have affixed to it. The Irish have been represented, strongly actuated by a thirst of glory, prodigal of life, impetuous, vindictive, generous, hospitable, curious, credulous, alive to the charms of music, constant in love or hatred.

Qualities so powerful, so various, and so opposite, if properly tempered, would exhibit human nature in its highest perfection; but when discomposed, sometimes by too much internal energy, and often by external, adventitious circumstances; they have invariably produced a spirit of discord, which has uniformly led this unhappy people to misery and ruin. This spirit, embittered by a numerous train of evils, has here deformed the general view of nature; so that we must descend from public to private life; from the statesman to the citizen; or, on the other side, arise from the vassal to the independent man, in order to find those glowing tints which strongly mark the manners of the people. In some sequestered spot, untainted by luxury, undisturbed by low ambition, and not distracted by the agitating hand of oppression, the Irish are hospitable in an extreme. The stranger among them forgets his home; his desires are anticipated, and are gratified by a pleasing variety.

To enable the reader to compare this character with the light in which Irishmen are viewed by the colder judgments of foreigners, we shall present the following touches from the pencil of a respectable English traveller*.

“It is but an illiberal business for a traveller, who designs to publish remarks upon a country, to sit down coolly in his closet, and write a satire on the inhabitants. Severity of that sort must be enlivened with an uncommon share of wit and ridicule, to please. Where very gross absurdities are found, it is fair and manly to note them; but to enter into character and disposition is generally uncandid, since there are no people but might be better than they are found, and none but have virtues which deserve attention, at least as much as their failings; for these reasons, this section would not have found a place in my observations, had not some persons, of much more flippancy than wisdom, given very gross misrepresentations of the Irish nation. It is with pleasure, therefore, that I take up the pen, on the present occasion, as a much longer residence there enables me to exhibit a very different picture: in doing this, I shall be free to remark, wherein I think the conduct of certain classes may have given rise to general, and, consequently, injurious condemnation.

“There are three races of people in Ireland, so distinct, as to strike the least attentive traveller: these are the Spanish, which are found in Kerry, and a part of Limerick and Corke, tall and thin, but well made, a long visage, dark eyes, and long black hair. The time is not remote when the Spaniards had a kind of settlement on the coast of Kerry, which seemed to be overlooked by government. There were many of them in Queen Elizabeth’s reign; nor were they entirely driven out till the time of Cromwell. There is an island of Valentia on that coast, with various other names, certainly Spanish. The Scotch race is in the north, where are to be found

* Mr. Young, in his late Tour in Ireland.

the features which are supposed to mark that people, their accent, and many of their customs. In a district near Dublin, but more particularly in the baronies of Bargie and Forth, in the county of Wexford, the Saxon tongue is spoken without any mixture of the Irish, and the people have a variety of customs, which distinguish them from their neighbours. The Milesian race of Irish, which may be called *native*, are scattered over the kingdom, but chiefly found in Connaught and Munster; a few considerable families, whose genealogy is undoubted, remain, but none of them with considerable possessions, except the O'Briens and Mr. O'Neal. O'Hara and M'Dermot are great names in Connaught; and O'Donoghue a considerable one in Kerry; but the O'Connors and O'Driscals; in Corke, claim an origin prior in Ireland to any of the Milesian race.

"The only divisions which a traveller, who passed through the kingdom, without any residence, could make, would be into people of considerable fortune, and mob. The intermediate division of the scale, so numerous and respectable in England, would hardly attract the least notice in Ireland. A residence in the kingdom convinces one, however, that there is another class, in general of small fortune,—country gentlemen and renters of land. The manners, habits, and customs of people of considerable fortune, are much the same every where; at least there is very little difference between England and Ireland: it is among the common people that one must look for those traits by which we discriminate a national character. The circumstances which struck me most in the common Irish, were, vivacity and a great and eloquent volubility of speech. They are infinitely more cheerful and lively than any thing we commonly see in England, having nothing of that incivility of fullen silence, with which so many Englishmen seem to wrap themselves up, as if retiring within their own importance. Lazy at *work*, but so spiritedly active at *play*, that, at *burling*, and other manly exercises, they show the greatest feats of agility. Their love of society is as remarkable as their curiosity is insatiable; and their hospitality to all comers, be their own poverty ever so pinching, has too much merit to be forgotten. Pleased to enjoyment with a joke or witty repartee, they will repeat it with such expression, that the laugh will be universal. Warm friends, and revengeful enemies; they are inviolable in their secrecy, and inevitable in their resentment; with such a notion of honour, that neither threat nor reward would induce them to betray the secret or person of a man, although that man were an oppressor. Hard drinkers and quarrelsome; but civil, submissive, and obedient. Dancing is so universal among them, that there are every where itinerant dancing-masters, to whom the cotters pay six pence a quarter for teaching their families. Besides the Irish jig, which they can dance with a most luxuriant expression, minuets and country dances are taught; and I even heard of cotillons coming in.

"But I must now come to another class of people, to whose conduct it is almost entirely owing, that the character of the nation has not that lustre abroad, which, I dare assert, it will soon very generally merit: this is the class of little country gentlemen* tenants, who drink their claret by means of profit rents; jobbers in farms; bucks; your fellows with round hats, edged with gold, who hunt in the day, get drunk in the evening, and fight the next morning. I shall not dwell on a subject so infinitely disagreeable, but remark, that these are the men among whom drinking, duelling, ravishing, &c. &c. are found as in their native soil; once to a degree that made them the pests of society: they are growing better; but even now one or two of them introduced by accident (where they have no business) into

* This expression is not to be taken in a general sense. God forbid I should give this character of all country gentlemen of small fortunes in Ireland: I have myself been acquainted with exceptions.—I mean only, that, in general, they are not the most liberal people in the kingdom.

better company, are sufficient to derange the pleasures that result from a liberal conversation. A new spirit; new fashions; new modes of politeness exhibited by the higher ranks, are imitated by the lower, which will, it is to be hoped, put an end to this race of beings; and either drive their sons and cousins into the army or navy, or sink them into plain tradesmen or farmers, like those we have in England, where it is common to see men with much greater property, without pretending to be gentlemen. I repeat it from the intelligence I received, that even this class are very different from what they were twenty years ago, and improve so fast, that the time will soon come, when the national character will not be degraded by any set.

“That character is upon the whole respectable: it would be unfair to attribute to the nation at large the vices and follies of only one class of individuals. Those persons, from whom it is candid to take a general estimate, do credit to their country. That they are a people learned, lively, and ingenious, the admirable authors they have produced will be an eternal monument; witness their Swift, Sterne, Congreve, Boyle, Berkeley, Steele, Farquhar, Southerne, and Goldsmith. Their talent for eloquence is felt and acknowledged in the parliaments of both kingdoms. Our own service both by sea and land, as well as that (unfortunately for us) of the principal monarchies of Europe, speak their steady and determined courage. Every unprejudiced traveller, who visits them, will be as much pleased with their cheerfulness, as obliged by their hospitality; and will find them a brave, polite, and liberal people.”

RELIGION.] The established religion of Ireland is the protestant; its ecclesiastical discipline is similar to that of England, and is under four archbishops and eighteen bishops. The four archbishoprics are Armagh, Dublin, Cashel, and Tuam; and the eighteen bishoprics are Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Corke, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Killaloe, Kilmore, Leighlin and Ferns, Limerick, Meath, Ossory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

The dissenters are almost as various as in England; but the most prevailing are the Roman catholics, presbyterians, quakers, anabaptists, Moravians, and methodists, all of whom are tolerated by law.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Ireland is at present a distinct kingdom, governed by its own parliaments. From the time of the accession of the kings of England to the sovereignty of Ireland, until the tenth year of the reign of Henry VII. the mode of enacting laws within the English pale in the parliaments of that country, was nearly the same as in England; the king's viceroy summoning and holding parliaments at pleasure, in which were enacted such statutes as were then thought expedient or necessary. But ill use, as it was then termed, having been made of this power, in particular by lord Gormanstown, deputy lieutenant in the reign of Edward the fourth, a set of acts was introduced by sir Edward Poynings, lord deputy in the reign of Henry VII. thence called Poynings' laws, and passed; one of which, viz. 10 Henry VII. c. 4. provided, “That no parliament be hereafter summoned or holden, unless the king's lieutenant then being shall previously certify to the king, under the great seal of Ireland, the causes and considerations thereof, and the articles proposed to be passed therein; and that after the king, in his council of England, shall have considered and approved, or altered said acts, or any of them, and certified them back under the great seal of England, and shall have given licence to summon and hold a parliament, then the same shall be summoned and held, and the said acts so certified, and none other, shall be therein introduced, passed, or rejected;” in exposition of which, by statute 3d and fourth of Philip and Mary, it was afterwards enacted, “That any new causes or considerations might be certified, even during the session of parliament.” But the usage till lately was, that bills were framed in either house under the name of “heads of a bill or

bills," and thus were offered to the lord lieutenant and privy council, who, on the usual application, transmitted them to the king, or rejected them without any transmission.

By another of Poynings' laws, viz. 10 Henry VII. c. 22. it was enacted, that "all statutes before that time passed in England, should be in force in Ireland." From the making of which law, all subsequent English statutes were absurdly supposed to have bound* Ireland, if therein named or included under general words.

About the beginning of the reign of George I. in consequence of its being a question, whether England had a right to make laws to bind Ireland, which was ready to be disputed by the Irish; an act was passed in the British parliament (6th of Geo. I. c. 5.) whereby it was declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be subordinate to, and dependent upon, the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inseparably annexed and united thereto, and that the king's majesty, with the consent of the lords and commons of Great Britain in parliament assembled, hath power to make laws to bind Ireland."

However, this atrocious and insolent usurpation of the legislative rights of Ireland was of short duration. For, after the emancipation of the trade of that kingdom in the year 1779, the 10th statute of Henry VII. c. 4. before mentioned, was very much altered, by an act passed in the Irish parliament, in the twenty-first and twenty-second years of George III. namely, statute the twenty-first and twenty-second George III. cap. 47. by which it was enacted, "That the lord lieutenant and council of Ireland shall certify under the great seal of the same, to his majesty, without addition, alteration, &c. all such bills, and no other, as the parliament of Ireland shall judge to be expedient; that all bills so certified and returned back again under the great seal of England, without any alteration whatever, and none other, shall pass in the Irish parliament." "And that no bill shall be certified into Great Britain, as a cause or consideration of holding any parliament. Provided always, that no parliament be summoned or holden, until a licence be obtained from his majesty for that purpose." And this act of the Irish legislature was followed by a declaration of rights, under the form of an address to the throne, not a little strengthened by the spirited and united efforts of the whole Irish nation, who, with one voice, and with the very arms in their hands, with which they defended themselves from the enemies of the empire, when destitute of their own established forces, who at that time were bleeding in every quarter of the world in the support of the British standard, firmly demanded and insisted on, from the British parliament, the restoration of those rights, which the tyrannic oppression of their predecessors had wrested from them. While, on the other hand, that senate restored to the Irish their legislative, as they had before done, their commercial rights; not only repealing the 6th Geo. I. c. 5. but passing an act renunciatory of their former groundless claim to what they now declared to be the rights of their hitherto oppressed and injured neighbours.

At present, therefore, as has been mentioned, the Irish nation is governed by parliaments of its own, which consist of the king in his legislative capacity, the lords spiritual (22) and lords temporal (now 165) who, together with the king, or his viceroy, sit in one house; and the commons (300) composed of knights, citizens, and burgesses elected by the people, who sit in another; and these in conjunction form the Irish parliament, which alone is invested with the privilege of making new laws, or altering or repealing those already made for the government of Ireland. In which the manner of proceeding, from the first introduction of the

* This act has been extended since to all those subsequent British statutes relative to property and trade in Ireland, by statute 21st and 22d Geo. III. c. 48. (Irish) passed in order to quiet and settle possessions.

bill into either house, till it is transmitted to England, by the lord lieutenant, in order to receive the royal assent, is nearly the same with that of the British parliament.

In respect of duration, the parliaments of the two countries differ; the parliament of Ireland before the beginning of the reign of George the third was perpetual, and is at present, octennial: whereas that of Britain is septennial.

The common law of England was adopted in Ireland by the council of Lismore, in the reign of Henry II. and has ever since been the common law of Ireland; between which and that of England, there is hardly any difference, except where the alterations made in it by the statute law of either country, may have produced a slight variation. But, to speak generally, the principles of both are the same, and the decisions of the courts at Westminster are of high authority, in guiding the determinations in similar cases of the courts at Dublin, which, in number, and extent of jurisdiction, are similar to those at Westminster, some few and trivial deviations, in the peculiar practice of each court, excepted.

There are likewise ecclesiastical and admiralty courts in Ireland, as in England. The kingdom is divided into five circuits; the principal county town in each of these is visited twice a year by two of the twelve judges, who sit as judges of assize and jail delivery, alternately, for the hearing and deciding of suits by *Nisi Prius*, and for the trial of prisoners.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] This subject has at length become of consequence to the people of Ireland. Through the concurrence of various favourable circumstances, the revolution in America, and the embarrassment of Britain, Providence, seconding the courage and virtue of the people, broke the chains, which trading jealousy and national injustice had so long imposed upon that oppressed nation. Whilst the sun of commerce and power in Venice, in Genoa, in Holland, the Netherlands, and other countries, rose and set; the kingdom of Ireland, more fruitful in soil, more powerful in people, more fortunate in situation, and more strong in natural resources, was compelled, for several hundred years, to look on these events, a joyless and indifferent spectator. During that long night of misery to Ireland, her fields were stained with the blood of insurrections rapidly treading on the heels of each other; raised either by a sense of the most horrible oppression, or fomented by the interested artifices of English ministers and their despotic minions, who drove the people to desperation and revolt, in order to riot on the spoils of confiscation. These produced perpetual change and consequent insecurity of property. In a country so distracted, manufactures could not take root, and commerce could not flourish. They are the offspring of peace and settlement, which were there experienced but for short intervals till the revolution.

The linen and woollen manufactures seem to be indigenous in Ireland. The former is spoken of in the earliest period of its history, and the materials of flax and yarn, were even protected from exportation by duties laid thereon so early as the 11th of Elizabeth; the woollen appears not only of equal antiquity, and probably anterior to that of England, but was encouraged and regulated by various acts of Edward III. Henry VIII. &c. However, with the commencement of the seventeenth century, may be dated the first appearance of tranquility, and the perfect cultivation of the arts of peace; which arose principally from the attention bestowed upon Ireland by James I. inasmuch, as sir John Davies observes, that the "strings of the Irish harp were all in tune; effected," says he, "by the encouragement given to the maritime towns and cities; as well to increase the trade of merchandize, as to cherish mechanical arts." During this reign, and until the fatal period of 1641, the progress of trade and manufactures was sensible, and the shipping is said to have increased an hundred fold; but the disorders which arose at that time were long felt; manufactures were eradicated, and the manufacturers had fled; so that the principal

source of the national wealth, for some time after the restoration, was the export of live cattle to England; which the English, in the year 1666, prohibited as a "common nuisance*."

In the 12th year of Charles II. the original English navigation act was passed, in the benefits of which Ireland had an equal participation; but subsequent English statutes of that reign not only unjustly excluded her, but imposed many severe restrictions on the plantation trade, by which she experienced great commercial hardships, till partly removed by the liberation of her trade in 1779; much of its evils, however, yet remain, particularly in being precluded from landing West India produce, &c. in England from Ireland, which is one of the numerous and gross inequalities of trade between the two countries.

Deprived of the export of cattle, which was the only source of her wealth at the time above mentioned, the nation, driven to the utmost distress, had no resource but in working up her own commodities, to which she applied with the greatest ardour. She increased the number of sheep, and pursued the woollen manufacture with such success, that, in 1687, it became of considerable importance. In that year there were exported 11,360 pieces of new draperies, and 1,129,716 yards of frizes; but the troubles which arose at the revolution, gave a severe check to the growing prosperity in this line, from which, however, it began to recover in a few years, when it experienced an almost complete annihilation, by one of the severest and most unjust strokes of trading despotism ever exercised over a nation.

In 1698†, the lords and commons of England addressed king William to employ his influence in Ireland to "suppress the woollen manufactures therein;" to which he answered the lords, "His majesty will take care to do what their lordships have desired"—and to the commons he answered, "I shall do all that in me lies to discourage the woollen trade in Ireland‡"—and indeed so successfully was this baneful influence employed upon the Irish legislature, that they passed an act laying heavy duties on the export of their woollens to England, where a law was also made in the following year, prohibiting the Irish exports to other countries, so that between the two legislatures, the manufacture was as completely annihilated as it could be by law.

It would be absurd to pay any attention to the reasons which were assigned in justification of this proceeding; it was in fact the argument of strength and union over weakness and division; and the affectation of giving the Irish exclusive possession of the linen manufacture as a compensation, was only the offering of insult in lieu of rights. They possessed that manufacture, as has been shown, for ages before, not as the principal, but as second to the woollen, which was considered as the staple; a staple that employed the greater portion of the nation, that clothed her people, and supplied a great and valuable export. "The immediate consequence to Ireland showed the value of what she lost; many thousand manufacturers were obliged to leave the kingdom for want of employment; many parts of the southern and western counties were so depopulated, that they have not yet recovered a reasonable

* The words of sir William Petty (than whom none knew the state of the kingdom better at the time) are very strong: "Why should they breed more cattle, since it is penal to import them into England? why should they raise more commodities, since there are not merchants sufficiently stocked to take them of them, nor provided with other more pleasing foreign commodities, to give in exchange for them? and how should merchants have stock, since trade is prohibited and fettered by the statutes of England?"

† In this year, petitions were presented to the English parliament, stating a singular grievance suffered from Ireland, "by the Irish catching herrings at Waterford and Wexford, and ruining the petitioners' market." Eng. Com. Jour. vol. 12.

‡ Perhaps the most complete instance of Irish folly that can be met with, is the veneration for the memory of William entertained by so many Irishmen, notwithstanding the above circumstance, which has laid the foundation of most of the distresses since experienced by that oppressed and harrassed nation.

number of inhabitants; and the whole kingdom was reduced to the greatest poverty and distress*.”

In consideration of this loss, Ireland was to enjoy full and unrivalled possession of the linen trade; as if one manufacture was sufficient for the employment of a whole nation, especially where a large majority of it were totally ignorant of the process or habits of the trade, and possessed but little of the necessary materials; whilst, in the other, the hands were formed even to enviable perfection, and the *primum* was possessed at home in abundance.—The women of Ireland were to become spinners for the English manufacturers, and the richer were to become the clothiers for the poorer nation.

Several years had elapsed before the promised encouragement to the linen was granted; and so wretched was its state, in the year 1700, that the exports of that article amounted in value but to 14,112l. At length, in 1705, on the remonstrance of the Irish house of commons, representing the ruinous state of the country, the English ports in Asia, Africa, and America, were opened to Irish white and brown linens. Little advantage could be derived from this concession, as the Irish were prohibited by an English act of 1670, and another of William III. from bringing in plantation goods, without first landing them and paying duties in England; but indeed the principle of exclusive patronage to the manufacture was soon abandoned; “for the encouragement of this trade in England and Scotland has been long a principal object to the British legislature; and the nation that encouraged Ireland to the undertaking, is now become her rival in it.”

The duty laid on the importation of Irish sail-cloth into Britain, in 1750, violated the imposed contract, cut short that branch of the manufacture, and sends a large sum to foreigners for the same article: such is national faith. Linen is now the staple of Scotland; and the extent of the manufacture in England is said to be equal to that of the other two kingdoms together†.—The bounties granted on the exportation of Irish linens from England, in 1743, professed to be intended as a favour. This has proved more specious than solid: it insures so much of the carrying trade to her, and the extension of the same bounties to her own linens has so far fostered them, that she sends them to market on better terms than the Irish linens, which are encumbered with double freight, commission, &c. amounting to fourteen per cent. which is so much in favour of English linens out of English ports at a foreign market.

Such was the memorable contract, as it was called, forced on Ireland in 1699.—It was not to prevent the Irish from underselling at foreign markets, but to prevent their selling at all; and the measure has proved as injurious to England as it was unjust. The manufacturers were forced into France, Germany, and Spain. The two latter now supply themselves with many species of the manufacture; and such has been the progress of the French, that they undersell the English.

Having thus given a short detail of the remarkable occurrences which led to the commercial slavery of Ireland, we shall now turn from a subject, which, however necessary to be known, has ceased to be interesting; and shall take up a view of the Irish trade and manufactures, when they became less restricted and of more consequence.

It has been already shown, that the people of Ireland, restricted in the woollen, were obliged to direct their chief attention to the manufacture of linen. As with individuals, so with nations, when the public mind is exclusively bent to one object, it can hardly fail to succeed in its pursuit to a considerable degree. An act of parliament having passed in Ireland in 1709, empowering the lord lieutenant to ap-

* Com. Rest. of Ireland. † Com. Rest. of Ireland. ‡ Lord Sheffield on the trade of Ireland. p. 62.

point trustees for the disposal of the revenue granted for the encouragement of the linen manufacture; he accordingly appointed such trustees, composed of an equal number of the principal persons in each of the four provinces, and assembled them on the 10th of October, 1711, when the deed of their appointment was read; and they proceeded to the execution of their trust. From this board, called the *Trustees of the linen and hempen manufactures in Ireland*, has the important object of their appointment received the most zealous and unremitting attention; and to them is Ireland principally indebted for the flourishing state to which the manufacture has attained, and for the character it maintains in all countries. The province of Ulster was the first wherein it was extended; here it was actively undertaken by the industrious descendants of the hardy Scotch colonies settled therein, and it still continues the principal seat of the manufacture. To this it is indebted for the possession of those blessings, which general industry bestows upon a people; superior wealth, superior civilization, superior knowledge, and that independence of mind which such advantages naturally inspire. This is a lesson to a wise legislature, to stimulate them to the universal employment of the people; and must convince them, that the prosperity and happiness of a nation do not depend more on its numbers, than its general industry. The other provinces have but a small comparative share. Connaught has, however, been making considerable advances in the coarser branches, for some years.

To give the reader a more perfect idea of the progress and importance of this manufacture, we have annexed a view of the quantities exported at different periods; and, as the export of linen yarn is in some degree connected with the subject, we have also given a similar view of it.

E X P O R T S.

Years.	Linen cloth.	Linen yarn.		
	Yards.	Cwt.	qrs.	lbs.
1713	1,819,816	11,802	2	17
1723	4,378,545	15,672	3	17
1733	4,777,076	13,357	2	21
1743	6,058,041	14,169	1	10
1753	10,493,858	23,238		4
1763	16,013,105	34,468		7
1773	18,450,700	28,078	3	25
1783	16,039,705	35,812	3	23
1784	24,961,898	33,013	2	15
1785	26,677,647	28,842	1	5
1786	28,168,866	31,062		20
1787	30,728,728	31,049	2	0

A view of this table, extracted from the Irish custom-house accounts, proves two material points, first, that the increase of the manufacture has been steady and progressive; and secondly, that the export of yarn has not increased during the last twenty-four years. To these observations we must add another, that the exports of Ireland have increased considerably to other countries, as well as to Britain; as may be seen by contrasting the two following periods.

1783— 826,737 Yards.
 1787—2,745,412 Do.

The Irish have long desired to be independent of foreign countries for their supply of flax-seed, and therefore the trustees have paid particular attention to that object for many years, in the application of bounties on its growth; the effect of which will be seen by comparing the number of acres sown and claimed for bounty at two periods—premising, that the legislature judged proper to discontinue the bounty of five shillings per hoghead to foreign flax-seed imported, and enlarged the bounties on home produce.

	A.	R.	P.
1780—	1264	2	22
1787—	9765	2	00

Under this head comes properly our notice of the lawn, cambric, and other finer branches of the manufacture, most of which are in a flourishing state.

The woollen manufacture next claims our attention. It has already been shown, that Ireland has been in possession of this manufacture from a very early period; but that the restrictions under which it had laboured for above a century, confined its extent to little more than the clothing of the peasantry: and although the emancipation of her trade was expected to produce powerful effects upon this manufacture, yet the unrestrained export of wool and yarn, and the home market remaining unprotected, have caused, and must continue to cause, this valuable trade to remain in a very torpid state. However, considering the number of difficulties under which the manufacture struggles, it is surprising to observe the excellence to which it has arrived.—The best Irish broad-cloths are little inferior to the English, and the druggets are much admired. Blanketing and flannels are in high esteem, and the worsted branches have been brought to great perfection, and may afford fit articles for extensive exportation.

Another branch of the trade of Ireland is in the produce of cattle, which brings very large returns into the kingdom, although the policy of giving it such unrestricted operation is much doubted and frequently disputed. Her exports in this line consist of beef, butter, cheese, candles, tallow, hides tanned and untanned, bullocks and cows, hogs, bacon, hog's lard, and pork.—The last article is one of her most increasing and valuable exports: it is the principal among the very few resources of her numerous poor peasantry, as it is almost the only article which brings them money; and, being reared without much expense, trouble, or attention, the returns must be considered as almost clear gain to the nation. The average export for five years, ending 1767, was about 40,000 barrels;—for five, ending 1774, was 46,924 barrels;—for five, ending 1782, was 87,085;—and, in the year 1787, it rose to 101,859.—The exports of beef, butter, and some other articles, though always considerable, fluctuate in times of peace and war: but that of bullocks and cows has risen of late years to a most alarming height, and is the more important in its consequences, as the Irish have become a manufacturing people; for thereby the tanneries, &c. must sustain the most essential injury, and the industry of the people be deprived of considerable employment.

The export of hides, tanned and untanned, and fundry species of skins, is considerable, but equally impolitic with the last mentioned; as the manufacture of all materials should be carried forward as many stages as possible. The complete manufacture of leather into shoes, saddlery, &c. ought to be of great magnitude in Ireland, from the possession of such abundance of the raw materials. It is therefore to be hoped, that the attention of the legislature will soon be turned to an object of such national consequence, and which of late years affords from England, in shoes, &c. an export of 500,000lbs.

It is impossible to review this part of our subject, without feeling the most poignant indignation. To see the materials of great manufactures transported without

restraint, whilst thousands of the natives, disposed to be industrious, want bread and employment, excites the strongest horror and detestation of such a blasting system of policy, as Ireland languishes under. It is a fact well known, that the French, American, West-India, and other markets are supplied with numberless articles of shoes, boots, saddlery, &c. manufactured in various parts of Britain, for which the Irish cultivate and supply all the necessary materials; and such are the baleful effects of British and ministerial influence in the Irish parliament, that this venal and corrupt body cannot be prevailed upon, by any exertions or remonstrances of the nation, to apply a remedy to so alarming an evil*.

The silk manufacture is of great importance, but principally confined to the metropolis, probably from its connexion with the fashions.—Several branches have been brought to the highest perfection; the damasks and lutestrings are excellent, and the handkerchiefs are not only superior to the English, but also unrivalled by any nation in Europe. The mixed goods, or tabinets and poplins, have been long celebrated; and the best proof of their superior taste and beauty is, that they are not less admired and coveted abroad than at home.

The cotton manufacture is of late introduction, but yet has arrived at great perfection and considerable extent, and proves, that there is a fund of industry and ingenuity in Ireland equal to any undertaking, when favoured by the patriotism and encouragement of the legislature. To these, and the zeal of several persons of property, is the indebted for the establishment of this new manufacture in several parts of the kingdom.—Considerable sums have been expended in the erection of mills and machinery. Her coarser articles are generally able to stand in competition with those imported, and the finer denominations of muslin, &c. are fast approaching to perfection. Several thousand hands are now employed in it, and there is every reason to believe that the manufacture has taken root in the country.

The glass manufacture has arisen to considerable consequence within a few years; and the degree of excellence to which it has arrived, has established it in the home and forced it into foreign markets. The average imports, of one article alone, may convey an idea of its general increase, viz. that of drinking glasses, which

For three years, ending 1773, were	209,222
Do. ——— 1783, —	22,248
Do. ——— 1787, —	4,648

This shows the decrease of importation, and the consequent increase of the home manufacture, which is also proved by the export since 1781, until which year none had been sent out of the kingdom.

The manufacture of paper has been advancing by silent but steady steps, to great improvement and importance; and, from the number of hands it employs, and the small proportion which the value of the material bears to the labour, it is certainly of the first consequence to a manufacturing nation.

These are some of the principal manufactures in Ireland, most of which appear, from the best evidence, to be daily increasing in extent and improvement. Much, however, remains to be done, to bring into action the numerous unemployed hands in every part of the kingdom. The manufactures of stockings, sail-cloth, leather, metals, &c. of which the materials are so abundant, are inexhaustible sources of industry, and earnestly claim the directing hand of the legislature to put them in motion. Ship-building is in a state of unaccountable backwardness. This is the more to be wondered at, when it is considered, that the materials can be brought in from the north of Europe, nearly as cheap as into any of the English ports.

* Yet nothing is more common, than to hear Englishmen, whose industry is fostered by the wisest laws, reproach and vilify the Irish for their idleness!

Having enumerated the leading manufactures, exports, &c. it is necessary to observe on the principal articles which compose the imports; these are brought generally from or through Britain*, and consist of her manufactures of various denominations, woollens, filks, cottons, mixed goods, haberdashery, manufactures of iron, steel, and other metals, groceries, hops, bark, earthen-ware, beer, coals, and an infinite number of other articles; besides the produce of the East and West Indies to a considerable amount.

Since the opening of the Irish trade, the intercourse with the United States of America, the British colonies, and also to the West-India islands, has been an accession of considerable consequence. To the latter the exports are principally composed of produce, and manufactures of various sorts; and form a trade that promises to increase to a great extent, if not restrained by the illiberal construction of the navigation laws, which prohibits Ireland sending the redundancy of her imports into the English markets. The trade to the British colonies is composed of similar exports as to the islands, and will probably arise to equal importance; but with the United States it is expected to be much superior.

The trade of Portugal is one of the most important to the kingdom, and constantly produces a considerable balance in her favour: in some years her export of butter alone has been equal to the whole of her imports from that country, which principally consist of wine, salt, oil, fruit, pot-ash, and cork; for which she sends in return butter, beef, pork, tallow, cheese, shoes, new and old drapery, and fine linens, &c. &c.

The trade with Spain consists of nearly the same articles of import and export as to Portugal, and the capability of improvement and extension is such, from the numerous wants of the great Spanish colonies, that an ample field presents itself to mercantile industry and enterprise.

The exports to France generally consist of beef, butter, pork, hides, candles, tallow, wheat, flour, biscuit, linens, woollens, shoes, and sundry other manufactures;—and the imports, of wine, brandy, paper, capers, oil, cork, salt, gloves, cambric, &c. The balance of this trade, though fluctuating, has been generally in favour of Ireland.

The trade with Holland and Flanders consists principally of an export of beef, butter, hides, tallow, linen, new and old drapery, frize, flannels, woollen yarn, &c. and the imports, of flax, thread, linseed, and linseed oil, paper, garden-seeds, Geneva, snuff, drugs, dying-stuffs, &c.

The trade with the east country, including Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Russia,

* The people of Ireland continue to complain of the want of reciprocity in their trading-intercourse with Britain, as well on the subject of malt and beer, as a multitude of other articles, not less remarkable; the following SCHEDULE OF DUTIES (extracted from Lord Sheffield's observations on the trade of Ireland) on the under-mentioned articles in both countries, is selected, in order to convey a more perfect idea of the subject. The operation of this odious system of inequality would be sufficient to account for half the distresses of Ireland.

	Import duties.	
	In Ireland.	In England.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
All woollen or old drapery, per yard, ———	0 0 5 .5	2 0 6 .2
Stuffs of all kinds, made or mixed with wool, or new } drapery, per yard, ———	0 0 1 .5	0 5 11 .5
Cotton and linen manufactures, and cotton mixed, for } every 100l. value on oath, ———	9 18 5 .4	29 15 10
Linen cloth, printed, for every 100l. value on oath,	9 18 5 .4	65 10 10
Leather manufactures, for every 100l. value on oath,	9 18 5 .4	35 15 0
Checks, the piece not above 10 yards, besides in Bri- } tain, for every 100l. value on oath, ———	0 1 3 .85	0 3 11 .65
Sugar, refined, per cwt. ———	1 13 11 .75	5 6 9 .95
Starch, per cwt. ———	0 6 5 .6	4 12 1 .85

Note. The Irish duties above stated are in English money, and to all of them, except that on sugar, an additional duty of 5 per cent. is added.

and the Baltic, consists of an export nearly similar to the preceding, and the imports, of iron, timber, deals, tar, train-oil, hemp, flax, bark, &c.

It is to be observed, that while the balance of trade is generally in favour of Ireland with most countries, it is the reverse with the East country.

We cannot close this subject without a few observations, which naturally arise from a review of it. It has been seen, to what malignant causes we must impute the long restrictions on Irish trade and manufactures, and how much injury ensued to Ireland from them; and that, however they may have improved and extended since their liberation, she has still to complain of the jealousy and want of reciprocity in her intercourse with England. Ireland is a fruitful source of materials, but these are all laid at the feet of English manufacturers, whom she seems anxious to prefer to her own, although England jealously reserves all similar returns at home. Whoever will examine the majority of the articles which compose Irish exports in the foregoing pages, will conclude, that the support of foreign industry is more interesting to Ireland than the promotion of her own.

COINS.] The coins of Ireland are at present of the same denominations and the like fabric with those of England; but 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.

BANK OF IRELAND.] The subscribers to the national bank were incorporated by charter in 1783, by the name of the governor and company of the Bank of Ireland, and proceeded to business on the 25th of June in the same year, upon a capital stock of 600,000*l.* which consisted of 4 per cent. government debentures, deposited at par. These debentures were cancelled by government, agreeably to an act of parliament, and an annuity, at the rate of four per cent. granted in lieu thereof. In addition to their capital, they borrowed 60,000*l.* previous to the opening of the bank, for which they issued debentures at five per cent. and, in 1784, a further sum of 40,000*l.* on the like terms.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The military establishment of Ireland consists of

Four regiments of dragoon guards,	684 men
Eight regiments of dragoons,	1416
Twenty eight regiments of foot,	13132

Total	15,232
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To this is to be added the ordnance, which is on a distinct establishment, and is composed of six companies of fifty men each, making in the whole 300.

Of this force, Britain may employ seven regiments, (or 3283 men) on foreign service, at the expense of Ireland; but, during the late war, the principal part of the army was withdrawn, so that, in the year 1777, there were little more than 3000 men left for the protection of Ireland.

Thus deprived of the national defence, and in expectation of foreign invasion, she adopted the expedient of volunteer associations. This measure, produced by the necessity of the moment, might have ultimately raised Ireland to an ability of setting English despotism forever at defiance. The opportunity was neglected, and the nation is now, in the literal sense of the word, governed by English dragoons.

CITIES, PUBLIC EDIFICES, &c.] Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is, in extent, elegance, and number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions. It is situated on the east side of the island, on the river Liffey, near its junction with the sea, in latitude 53° 20', and is about 270 miles N. W. of London.---To trace out the origin of Dublin, or to point out the time when it was first built, would be a task as difficult as uncertain. The earliest accounts mention it as a place of considerable

importance. Ptolemy, who flourished in the reign of Antoninus Pius, about the year of Christ 140, calls it *Eblana Civitas*: this, without having recourse to fable, gives Dublin a just claim to an antiquity of more than sixteen hundred years. In the preface to king Edgar's charter, dated in the year 964, he mentions Ireland, with its most noble city of Dublin.

At the commencement of the seventeenth century, the river Liffey was not embanked by quays on the north side, and only a part of it on the south. The ground now called the Bachelor's-walk, the two Ormond-quays, east and west of Essex-bridge, the Inn's-quay, Arran-quay, and Ellis's-quay, taking up, in the whole, an extent of ground about a mile and a half, on which is erected a number of handsome houses, inhabited mostly by merchants, was then covered with ooze, and overflowed by the tides, except a small part about the king's-inns, which had been a monastery of Dominican friars, where the intended extensive and elegant public offices are now erecting.

DUBLIN is equal in magnitude to above one-fourth of London and Westminster.--- From the Royal Hospital at Kilmainham, the western extremity of the city, to the east end of Lazar's-hill, it is two miles and a half long, and its greatest breadth is nearly equal; so that the circumference may be about eight Irish miles: but, on account of the irregularity of the buildings in the suburbs, it is impossible to be exact. It lies mostly on a level, or rather low, in respect to the adjacent country; a great part of the old town being built on a marshy foundation. Its increase during the last twenty years, is almost incredible: in the year 1754, the return of houses was 12,857, and in 1766, it was 13,194. It now contains at a moderate computation, about 15,000 houses, mostly full of inhabitants, who are estimated at 200,000 souls; and is daily increasing both in extent and population.

Dublin would have had a commodious and secure station for shipping, if the entrance of the bay had not been so choaked up, that vessels of great burden cannot come over the bar: but the defects of the harbour are greatly remedied, by a prodigious work of stone, and piles of wood, extending about three miles into the bay. This great and laudable work was undertaken in consequence of a statute made in the 6th of queen Anne, chap. 2. called the ballast act; but by subsequent statutes and aids, this work has been pursued with more alacrity and effect. At the end of the piles, there is a light-house erected, curiously constructed of hewn stone. The approach to the city, from the harbour, exhibits one of the most beautiful prospects imagination can form an idea of: it is a spacious amphitheatre, bounded mostly by a high shore; and the country all around is spangled with white villas. When the city is viewed from the water, the landscape is highly picturesque, the horizon, upon the south, being bounded by mountains, exactly conical, called the Sugar-loaf-hills; and, on the north, by the pleasing contrast of an extensive plain, clothed with the most liberal productions of nature, and enriched by the united efforts of art.

The river Liffey, though navigable for ships of a moderate burden, as far as the old custom-house, is but narrow, the breadth being in some parts 250 feet, in others only 140. It runs for two miles almost straight through the city, dividing it nearly into two equal parts, forming spacious quays, walled-in the whole length of the city. At the breadth of a wide street from the river on each side, the houses are built opposite each other, which has a pleasing effect. Over the Liffey are erected six bridges; three of them, Essex, the queen's, and Carlisle are elegant structures; the other three, Ormond, Arran, and Bloody bridges, have little to recommend them, besides affording the convenience of passage.

This city is the see of an archbishop, and sends two members to parliament; the university sends two more. Besides two cathedrals, there are eighteen parish-churches, eight chapels of ease, two churches for French, one for Danish, and one for Dutch protestants; six meeting-houses for presbyterians, one for baptists,

three for methodists, one for Moravians, two for quakers, fifteen Roman-catholic chapels, three nunneries, one Jewish synagogue, and fourteen hospitals. There are, also, the linen and yarn halls, fifteen public markets for every species of provisions, of which Ormond market is perhaps the first in Europe.

The castle of Dublin was originally built in the beginning of the thirteenth century. In the reign of king John, it was a place of strength, moated and flanked with towers; but the ditch has been long filled up, and the old buildings taken down, except the wardrobe tower: Birmingham tower, at the western extremity of the castle, was left standing until the year 1775, when it was taken down, and re-built in 1777, and is now called Harcourt tower. It was formerly a place of confinement for state prisoners, and is at present a repository for preserving the antient records of the kingdom. The upper castle yard is an oblong square, and has little to recommend its external appearance in architecture or beauty; the apartments, however, which are occupied by the viceroy, the council-chamber, the Hall of St. Patrick, &c. are worthy a viceregal palace. In the lower castle-yard, are the treasury, ordnance, and other offices; and near them are the buildings for keeping the military stores, with an arsenal, and an armoury for 40,000 men.

The foundation stone of the parliament-house was laid in 1729, and the building completed in 1739, after the plan of mr. Caffel, at an expense of near 40,000*l*. This superb pile deserves praise.

The courts of justice, or four courts, and public offices, are situated on the Inn's quay; and form an elegant and extensive pile of buildings. The new custom-house, from its extent, the multitude and variety of its parts, the ingenuity and comprehension of its design, and the beauty and correctness of the execution, would deserve a more elaborate detail than the limits of this work can indulge. It is two hundred and nine feet deep, by three hundred and seventy-five feet in extent, and has the singular advantage of four fronts. The whole building consists of large and striking features, forming a novel and agreeable assemblage of well contrasted lines. This edifice is composed partly of Portland, and partly of white mountain stone; it was founded in 1781, and has cost upwards of two hundred thousand pounds sterling.

The royal exchange, the lying-in-hospital, the blue-coat hospital, the linen and yarn halls, the royal hospital, and the military hospital, are all buildings of uncommon beauty and elegance. The royal hospital is intended for the reception of superannuated veterans; but the number was very lately (May 1793) much inferior to what it ought to be; and it was understood that government paid for the support of at least an hundred pensioners who existed only upon the governor's list. The poor men are under subjection to a system of rules, which are hung up in the room where they all dine together. These rules are drawn up in that harsh stile, which is usual in the army, and the slightest fault is almost inevitably punished with instant expulsion. At the same time, they are pilfered with impunity by their superiors, as follows: they enjoy a certain allowance of clothes, which are made up for them by a tailor employed by the governor, or some other persons, who enjoy the benefit of the job. This man is suffered to finish the work in such a manner, that the invalids must engage and pay a second tailor out of their own pockets, before a suit of these clothes can be put on. A few useless officers engross a great part of the annual expense of the hospital into their own pockets. Such is the method in which the public money is wasted under the farcical pretence of charity! Greenwich hospital is a business of the same kind. Some years ago, sir Cecil Wray offered to produce documents in the house of commons, that the invalids in that hospital cost the nation more than twice the sum which was necessary for their subsistence; but he could not obtain attention. No opportunity should be omitted

to expose, in their genuine infamy, those miscreants, who thus riot on the spoils of want and wretchedness.

Dublin abounds with charitable institutions of every imaginable description; a circumstance which reflects honour on the benevolence of the citizens. Immense sums, perhaps not less than fifty thousand pounds sterling, are annually raised by charity sermons. Religious animosities, the most stupid and fantastical species of human folly, are fading fast; and, did the nation enjoy a better and honest system of government, would be very soon extirpated.-----The inhabitants in general are social, liberal, and benevolent, and, as we formerly remarked, despise the vulgarity of national farcafins. No subject has ever been more grossly misunderstood or misrepresented than the character of the Irish nation.

CORK is the second city in the kingdom, and capital of the province of Munster. It is seated on an island in the river Lea, which being intersected by several canals, ships are brought up almost to every street. The city is three miles long, and near two broad, containing above 80,000 inhabitants. Formerly the streets and houses were narrow and inelegant; but the public and private buildings of late years are in the stile of modern elegance, and alike declare the improved taste, spirit, and riches of the inhabitants. The trade of Cork is very considerable, and its exports are in some articles much superior to those of the metropolis. In the time of war, it is the great market for provisions, from whence the British navy draw an inexhaustible supply. The other articles of export consist of corn, wool, bay and woollen yarn, camlets, ferges, hides, butter, candles, soap, tallow, herrings, &c. Wool-combing is carried on to such extent in this county, that half the wool of Ireland is said to be combed there; the manufactures consist of camlets, ferges, ratteens, frizes, druggets, narrow cloths, coarse linen, stockings, &c.

LIMERICK is a cheerful and flourishing city, large, populous, and regular; three miles in circumference; and supposed to contain above 40,000 inhabitants. It is 92 miles S. W. by W. from Dublin, and about sixty miles from the sea.

BELFAST, though, a few years since, of inferior or second rate consequence, now ranks amongst the first towns in Ireland; to which importance it has arrived by the most rapid extension, and for which it is indebted to the enterprising activity of its merchants, the uncommon industry of its people, and its situation, being the medium through which are conveyed the imports and exports of a populous and great manufacturing country. Belfast is in the county of Antrim, on the river Lagan, at its junction with the Lough of Belfast, is supposed to contain at least 30,000 inhabitants, and sends two members to parliament. Its trade has risen, and is daily rising, into considerable value; the exports of linen, manufactured cotton, glass, corn, beef, pork, and sundry other articles, are great; and its various manufactures form some of the most important in the kingdom.

WATERFORD stands on the south side of the Suire, a broad and rapid river without any bridge, and about four miles and a half from its junction with the Nore and Barrow, all which, united, form the harbour. The trade it carries on with Newfoundland, and of which it enjoys the principal share, is of the utmost importance, as upwards of seventy sail of shipping are employed in the supply of the banks with provisions, &c. and return from thence and the West Indies with fish, rum, sugar, cotton, &c. Some idea of the provision-trade here may be formed by the vast number of large hogs killed, which amount to upwards of 3000 per week, for many weeks together; and of butter there have been exported from hence from 60 to 80,000 casks a year.

KILKENNY is one of the best inland cities in the kingdom, pleasantly situated on the river Nore, distant fifty-seven miles south-west from Dublin. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants: this city was once of great consequence, as may be seen by the number of venerable ruins yet remaining of magnificent churches, monasteries, and abbies,

which, even now, in their dilapidated state, exhibit such exquisite taste in architecture, as may vie with any modern improvements.

GALWAY is the most considerable town in Connaught, and the capital of the county of the same name. It is seated on the noble bay of Galway, on the Western Ocean, and is 120 miles west from Dublin. It is surrounded with walls, and, including its suburbs, contains about 15,000 inhabitants.

LONDONDERRY is one of the most conspicuous cities in Ireland, as well for its extent and trade, as for its ever-memorable siege. It lies 115 miles north-north-west from Dublin, in the province of Ulster, and is the capital of the county of the same name. It is seated on an eminence or declivity, of an oval form, being almost a peninsula at the bottom, on a narrow part of Lough Foyle, which surrounds, for a quarter of a mile broad, two thirds or more of the eminence, and by which it has an open navigation to the sea, on the very north of the kingdom. Its trade is considerable. The exports consist of grain, &c. and the exertions of the inhabitants in the Greenland and other fisheries have been successful.

NEWRY is in the county of Down, 50 miles N. from Dublin, and seated on the Newry Water, which is rendered navigable for large vessels into the bay of Carlingford; and, by a noble canal, which joins the Bann river, this town has a communication with Lough Neagh and all the circumjacent neighbourhood.

DROGHEDA is seated on the river Boyne, which is navigable for ships of burden to the quay; it is 23 miles N. from Dublin, is large, and the streets generally spacious, neat, modern, and well-built.

WEXFORD is capital of the county of the same name, 67 miles S. from Dublin; it is built near the sea, upon the river Slaney, which empties itself into the ocean here; the haven is very large, and the entrance is defended by two narrow necks of land, each forming an isthmus, that stretch forward to meet each other, leaving an opening of about half a mile.

SLIGO is a sea-port town, capital of the county of the same name, and is 103 miles N. W. from Dublin. Its situation on a great bay opening into the Atlantic ocean, and which abounds with innumerable shoals of fish, gives it many advantages, and renders it a fishing station of the first importance, as it is no less eligible for the trade of the western world. The quantity of linen and linen-yarn exported from Sligo is very considerable, those manufactures having spread themselves through this part of the kingdom with great rapidity.

ARMAGH, HILLSBOROUGH, LISBURN, COLERAIN, and several other towns in different parts of the kingdom, claim more attention than the limits of our work can afford. Armagh is not only one of the greatest markets for linens, but is perhaps unrivaled by any other in Ireland, of equal extent, for the beauty of its public buildings. Hillsborough claims its share of praise on the same account; and Lisburn and Colerain, beside possessing a large portion of the linen business, merit equal notice for their extreme neatness, and the spirit and industry of their inhabitants.

NATIONAL DEBT*.] The debt of Ireland is considered as having originated in 1715, when a vote of credit for 50,000*l.* was passed, on a threatened invasion of the kingdom.—From that period, its progress, though irregular and fluctuating, was considerable; and, in the year 1749, it amounted to 205,117*l.*—However, through the exercise of unusual economy, or an increase of revenue, this debt was extinguished, and the nation was afterwards in credit as follows:

C R E D I T.		
In 1751	—	£.22,370
1753	—	205,173

* Extracted from the journals of the house of commons.

1755	—	471,404
1757	—	249,422
1759	—	84,396

Again the nation engaged in debt, the rapid accumulation of which will appear from the annexed table.

D E B T.		D E B T.		
Years	1761	£.223,438	Years 1777	£.834,086
	1763	521,161	1779	1,067,565
	1765	508,874	1781	1,551,704
	1767	581,964	1783	1,919,386
	1769	628,883	1784	2,123,343
	1771	789,569	1785	2,181,501
	1773	994,890	1786	2,052,766
	1775	931,690	1787	2,302,146

It appears that this debt has increased ten-fold in twenty-seven years.

HISTORY.] The history of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater justice than that of almost any other country, be distinguished into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulster prince boasted to the pope of an uninterrupted succession of one hundred and ninety-seven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Irish antiquaries carry their history up to about 500 years before the christian era, at which time, as they assert, a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, settled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into that country; but, as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and contested part of the Irish history, we shall only observe, that it was about the middle of the fifth century, that the great apostle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of christianity in that kingdom, though christian missionaries had been there long before, 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 Normans, or, as they were called, the Easterlings, invaded the coasts of Ireland, and were the first who erected the stone edifices there. The common habitations of the Irish, till that time, were of hurdles covered with straw and rushes, and but very few of solid timber. The natives defended 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 a great part of Ireland. It is certain, that Dublin was, about that time, a considerable 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 patronised by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered, about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Lienster, an oppressive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Roirk. A confederacy being formed against him, under Roderic O'Connor, who, it seems, was the paramount

king of Ireland, he was driven from his country, and took refuge at the court of Henry II. who promised to restore him, upon his taking an oath of fealty to the crown of England, for himself and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cause to the English barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz Stephen, and Maurice Fitz Gerald. These noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the same principles as the Norman and Breton lords had done 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, appeased Henry by swearing fealty to him and his heirs, and resigning into his hand all the Irish cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's absence, Mac Turkil 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 nobility, landed near Waterford. Not only all the petty princes of Ireland, except the king of Ulster, but the great king, Roderic O'Connor, submitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's submission included that of Ulster, and that, consequently, he was the paramount sovereign of Ireland. Be that as it might, he held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the estates in Ireland, as William the conqueror had done in England, to his English nobility. He then settled a civil administration at Dublin, as nearly as possible similar 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, say 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 the princes or leaders. These conquerors, it is to be observed, behaved with the most consummate barbarity. Sir John Davis informs us, that, even in time of peace, it was adjudged no felony to kill a mere Irishman. A very small number only of that people had been admitted to the protection of the laws of England. Three hundred and fifty years elapsed, before they were advanced to this equality. Yet the English affect to suppose, that, as conquerors, they enjoyed a hereditary title to legislate for that injured nation.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his son John, who, in 1185, went over in person to that island; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill use of their power, and rendered themselves odious to the Irish, who were otherwise very well disposed towards the English. Richard I. was too much engaged with the crusades, to pay much regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his accession, made amends for his behaviour towards the Irish. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland English laws and officers, and erected that part of the provinces of Leinster and Munster, which was within the English pale, into twelve

counties; but the descendants of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal subjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exercised all acts of sovereignty within their own states; and indeed this was pretty much the case so late as the reign of James I. The unsettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity, gave the Irish a very mean opinion of the English government; 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, almost proved fatal to the English interest, and suggested to the Irish the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he repeatedly defeated the English governors and armies; and, being supported by his brother in person, was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and nearly became master of Dublin. The younger Bruce seems to have been violent in the exercise of his sovereignty, and 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 great progress, but did not entirely accomplish it. It appears, that, at this time, the Irish were in a very flourishing condition, and that one of the greatest grievances of which they complained, was, that the English sent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his despotic schemes in England, must be abortive without farther support, passed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no use of force, the Irish regarded his presence as a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and bestowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In short, his wife conducted entirely won their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very despotic manner in England, he undertook a fresh expedition into Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord-lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the Irish. His army inspired the natives with consternation, and they threw themselves upon his mercy. During this expedition, the duke of Lancaster landed in England; and Richard, upon his return, being deserted by his English subjects on account of his tyranny, and finding that he could not depend upon the Irish, surrendered the 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 Simnel, but were defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them somewhat cautious of joining Perkin Warbeck, who 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 unfortunate partizans, and was contented with requiring the Irish nobility to take

a fresh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the desired effect, during the administration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by supporting its chiefs against each other; but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural son, the duke of Richmond, 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 seduced by the emperor; but, being taken prisoner, he was at last executed at Tyburn. After this, the house of Austria derived a great advantage, in her quarrels with England, from having 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 powerful 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. It produced a more perfect submission of the native Irish to Henry's government, than ever had been known; and even O'Nial, who pretended to be successor to the last paramount king of Ireland, swore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

At the accession of this prince, the pale consisted of no more than four counties. Though Munster had been, in former days, nominally divided into counties, the people, to use sir John Davies's expressions, had become so degenerate, that no justice of assize durst execute his commission among them. The answer of Mac-Guire, chief of Fermanagh, to the lord-deputy, who was proposing to him to accept a sheriff in his district, has been recorded: "Your sheriff shall be welcome to me; but let me know the price of his head (his Eric) in order that, if my people cut it off, I may fine them accordingly."

The pope, and the princes of the house of Austria, by remitting money and sometimes sending over troops to the Irish, 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 considerable 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 in that of her successor, the reformation excited great discontent.

This disposition of the public mind offered a favourable opportunity to Philip II. king of Spain, for promoting his hostile designs against England. Partial invasions of Ireland had been attempted by the Spanish government several years before the equipment of their armada. A Spanish colony, we may even observe, was supported from remote times, on the south-west part of the Irish coast. An army of several thousand Spaniards was actually landed, attended by a pope's nuncio, who gained possession of Kinfale. And England thus found herself in danger of being beset, on east and west, by the power of Spain, so formidable in those days, and of lying in the middle between the land forces of the Spaniards, then centered in the Netherlands, and their naval strength and armaments, stationed in the harbours of Ireland.

These considerations determined the English government to make uncommon efforts to secure the possession of Ireland. Very considerable subsidies were voted by parliament for that purpose; and an army of twenty thousand men, well provided, was sent, which, assisted by the advantages and power already possessed by the government in the country, by successive reinforcements from England, and by other favourable circumstances, effected a complete reduction of all the different lords and

chiefs who till then had ruled in the island, after a war which continued about seven years.

However, queen Elizabeth did not live to see Ireland entirely reduced. The final capitulation with the great chieftain O'Nial, was not signed till a few days after her death.

The disturbances in the reign of Elizabeth will not appear surprising, if we reflect on the severity which the English exercised on every occasion upon the original inhabitants of Ireland. In the year 1583, when the garrison of Smerwick, in Kerry, surrendered upon mercy, upwards of seven hundred prisoners were butchered in cold blood. This massacre was perpetrated by sir Walter Raleigh. For such exploits, he was rewarded with forty thousand acres of land in the county of Cork. Walter, earl of Essex, father to the famous favourite of the "maiden queen," on the conclusion of a peace, invited Brian O'Nial, chieftain of Claneboy, with a number of his relations, to an entertainment, where, after an hospitable reception, which lasted for three days and nights, O'Nial, with his wife and brother, were arrested. His friends, with their women and children, were butchered before his face; and himself, his wife, and brother, were sent prisoners to Dublin, where they were cut in quarters. The whole history of English supremacy in Ireland, consists in great measure of a succession of such enormities.

In the year 1589, sir William Fitzwilliam entered upon the government of that wretched country. In 1590, M'Mahon, the chieftain of Monaghan, having died, his brother came up to Dublin to obtain the investiture of his estate. The title of this claimant neither was nor could be honourably denied; but, to arrive at justice, a bribe was necessary. He promised the deputy six hundred cows. He failed in payment, and was imprisoned. The deputy, not long after, went with him to Monaghan, to secure the prey. But, either finding it impracticable to collect the number of cattle, or being tempted by a sight of the estate, his lordship put the chieftain in Irons, constituted a jury of his own private soldiers, indicted, tried, and executed him before his own door. The pretence was, a crime said to have been committed about two years before. His lands were portioned out among his assassins.

In 1594, Fitzwilliam was recalled, and his successor, sir William Russell, had private orders to apprehend O'Nial, earl of Tyrone, a powerful nobleman in the north of Ireland. A safe conduct was sent to him, and he arrived at Dublin. A debate ensued in the council, with respect to arresting him. He gained intelligence of the design, and fled. O'Donnell, another chieftain in the same part of the island, had been seized, when a boy of about thirteen years of age, and confined for seven years in the castle of Dublin. At last he made his escape, and joining with Tyrone, and other discontented noblemen, they erected in Ulster the standard of revolt.

Elizabeth was exceedingly chagrined at the escape of Tyrone, and safe conducts were repeatedly proffered, to induce him to pay a second visit to Dublin. He was too well acquainted with the treacherous character of his enemies, to be deceived by such proposals. He soon gave them battle, and fifteen hundred, or, by other accounts, two thousand five hundred, of the English forces were killed. So great an advantage had never before been obtained by the Irish over their oppressors, from the first invasion of Henry the second, and it seems to have been hastened by an accident. The gunpowder barrels of the English, in the front of their line, took fire, and the explosion destroyed whole ranks.

The young earl of Essex was soon after dispatched to Ireland with an army of twenty thousand foot, and two thousand horse. After various expeditions, in which he lost a very great part of his army, he at last set out for the north of Ireland in search of Tyrone. His soldiers had by this time been so exceedingly reduced, that, though

reinforced by two thousand fresh troops, from England, Essex could muster only four thousand men to attend him in this expedition. He could not bring Tyrone to an engagement; and the campaign ended with a conference between the two commanders, and a truce till the month of May succeeding. Without attempting a regular detail of the subsequent military transactions, it is sufficient here to observe, that Tyrone never could be completely subdued. His obstinacy, his success, and the immense and ruinous expenses which his revolt imposed on Elizabeth, have been, by some writers, ascribed as the cause of that secret melancholy which shortened her life. In the beginning of the reign of James the first, he submitted in person to that monarch, and was honourably received at court.

The guilt of the English nation, in their government of Ireland, could be equalled by nothing but their folly. "Most of the English institutions," says Mr. Hume, "were to the last degree absurd, and such as no other state had ever thought of, for preserving dominion over its conquered provinces."

"The usual revenue of Ireland," says he, "amounted only to six thousand pounds a year; the queen (Elizabeth) though with much repining, commonly added twenty thousand pounds more, which she remitted from England." Thus the boasted supremacy was, even in times of peace, a losing bargain. In war, affairs were, of consequence, an hundred times worse. Sir John Sinclair says, that the rebellion of Tyrone, which lasted for eight years, cost four hundred thousand pounds a year. In 1599, six hundred thousand pounds were spent in the space of six months; and Sir Robert Cecil affirmed, that, in ten years, Ireland had cost England three millions and four hundred thousand pounds sterling. The reader will observe, that all this profusion of treasure and of blood was expended in maintaining the conquest of an island, which did not yield a shilling of revenue to England, and was not able to defray even a fourth part of the expense of its government in time of peace! While Tyrone was in rebellion, as the court of England termed it, Ireland was ravaged by a most exterminating famine. The miserable natives were often reduced to the necessity of devouring each other. These distresses are described, with circumstances too shocking to be repeated, by Morriſon, an Englishman, and an eye witness. "No spectacle," says he, "was more frequent in the ditches of towns, and especially in wasted countries, than to see multitudes of these poor dead people with their mouths all coloured green, by eating nettles, docks, and all things they could rend up above ground." Such were the fruits of English supremacy! Yet so infatuated were these Irishmen, that, while they met with every imaginable species of bad treatment from their tyrants, they composed a great part of that English army which at last reduced Tyrone to the necessity of submission! Even these soldiers were distinguished from the English by inferior pay for subsistence, and were clothed at their own expense.

James the first is to be considered as the first English sovereign, who possessed the dominion of Ireland. At this time, opposition to the English government was at an end. He pursued the business of reformation: but as the king's power in Ireland was now so far increased beyond what it had formerly been, so, the measures for altering the religion of the country, were attended with more important effects. The directions concerning the reformation, sent by the preceding sovereigns, had only been enforced in the districts and churches within the pale: the orders sent by the council of James I. now extended to the whole island.

The principal measures that were adopted at the time of that prince, for raising the protestant, on the ruins of the catholic religion in Ireland, were the following:

In the first place, the colony that was sent from Britain, to settle on those lands which had been seized by the crown, as has been above mentioned, was formed of protestants and presbyterians. A small colony, formed on the same principle, had

also been sent in the reign of queen Elizabeth, to settle on the lands that were taken from the earl of Desmond, when he was subdued and attainted some years before the great war against the native Irish. The protestant party by those means acquired that kind of strength and weight, which results from considerable numbers. For it is to be observed, that there were scarcely any protestants among the old English inhabitants of Ireland; and there were still fewer among the native Irish; as the reformation had made very little progress in Ireland.

In the second place, the majority in the Irish parliament was allotted to the protestant party, through the manner in which the parliament was now composed, and in which the right of election was conferred on new-erected counties, corporations, and boroughs.

There had been no parliament held in Ireland for twenty-seven years before the time we are speaking of, which was the eighth year of the reign of king James I. The protestants were so few in Ireland, in queen Elizabeth's time, that the government of the colony could not venture upon calling a parliament: there was too little probability of procuring a majority on the protestant side, even with the power possessed by the crown, of erecting new counties, corporations, and boroughs: this had been the cause of the long intermission of parliaments that has been above mentioned. The council of James I. in the eighth year of his reign, [1611,] had a more advantageous scope, now that the island was universally subdued, and a numerous colony of protestant settlers had been introduced, who were in possession of extensive tracts of land. New boroughs were erected in those quarters occupied by the new settlers. Even then the government found themselves, at first, disappointed, through the remarkable ardour with which the catholic party exerted themselves, especially in the elections for counties: the elections were lost where there was thought to be no danger; and even privy-counsellors were sometimes excluded. The disappointment was made up by speedily erecting fresh corporations, or boroughs, and conferring upon them the right of electing members. Hence arose the complaints made afterwards by the catholics, that several new corporations which had sent members, had been erected, in order to the sending of precepts to them for elections, after the first issuing of the writs for calling the parliament.

By this exertion of all their resources, the government in Ireland obtained a majority in the lower house. On the first day of meeting, the members of the catholic party were found to be 101; and those in the protestant interest were 125. The catholic party, being both greatly surprised and disappointed at finding themselves the minor number, at first refused to recognize those new brethren that had been sent to them by the new erected corporations; a fracas even took place in the chairing of a speaker; each party appointing a different person. But, as the place of the meeting was in the castle, as they were surrounded by a protestant garrison, and all attendants had been dismissed, as well as swords left at the gate, the catholic party were obliged to submit. In the house of lords, there were four earls, five viscounts, and sixteen barons; in all twenty-five: to them were added twenty-five protestant bishops and archbishops.

In order to complete the superiority of the protestant party, the penal statutes that had been passed in the reign of queen Elizabeth, were put in force. By virtue of these statutes, no man, who refused to take the oath of supremacy, could be invested with an office in a corporation, or be a justice of peace or a magistrate. He was not to be a privy-counsellor, nor to be preferred to any post in the government. If a lawyer, he was not to be admitted to plead at the bar, or to fill the office of judge. All the higher dignities of the church, together with church livings, and church emoluments, were allotted to the protestant clergy. A weekly

fine was also to be laid upon every person who should neglect to attend the church service.

By means of these measures and ordinances, the protestant was completely established, to the exclusion of the catholic religion. And at that period arose those formidable party distinctions, of catholics, and protestants, into which the inhabitants of Ireland have since been divided.

The protestant party was, on the one hand, formed by those colonies that had, of late years, been settled in Ireland. They had on their side the strength of the colonial government, which was formed only of themselves, and the majority of the parliament of the island.

On the other hand, the catholic party was formed of the whole mass of the inhabitants of Ireland, previous to the settling of the new colonies: for, as has already been observed, there were few or no protestants in Ireland before that time.

At the period we are speaking of, the old distinctions of native Irish, degenerate English, English of blood, and English of the Pale, were forgotten, and lost in the denomination of catholics. An union was now formed between the Irish chieftains and tribes, who, after losing their lands and their laws, were now to lose their religion, and the whole of the old English colony, whose lords and men of influence were now to be deprived of their consequence, whose lawyers and priests were thrown out of employment, while the numerous commonalty had their churches taken from them, and were insulted by penalties for not conforming to the religious rites of their opponents. All were now united together under the common banner of the catholic faith, and justly turned their eyes towards the protestant party, as a common aggressor and an enemy.

The resources of the protestant party for maintaining their ground, in the midst of so formidable a confederacy, could not be in their numbers; for, though considerable in itself, it bore no proportion to those of their catholic opponents. And the advantage they possessed of forming the colonial government, and of having a majority in the parliament, was only a strength of an artificial kind, which, without farther support, could not subsist long. Their real, effectual resources ought to have been in their moderation, and in the support of the English government. This moderation was not exercised, as appears by the state to which, as we have said, the catholics had been reduced; and the English government was at this period so distracted, by the contest between the king and parliament, that little attention was paid to the preservation of order, or the steady and equal distribution of impartial justice in Ireland.

It may not be improper to enter into a particular detail of some of those numerous acts of tyranny committed by Strafford, while he was deputy of Ireland, and which in some measure paved the way for the dreadful scenes that ensued. During the two first years of the reign of Charles the first, the catholics of Ireland had enjoyed some degree of tranquillity. But lord Strafford having, in 1633, been appointed deputy, every rigorous measure was renewed. On landing at Dublin, he summoned a council, and proposed to them the calling a parliament. This was agreed to: and it may be worth while to remark some of the measures, which he took to insure an ascendancy in that body. "I shall labour," said he, "to make as many captains, and officers, burgesses in this parliament, as I possibly can; who, having immediate dependence on the crown, may almost sway the business between the two parties, which way they please*." One example may serve as a specimen of his method of obtaining seats in parliament, for his minions.

Strafford had resolved to make Cateline, recorder of Dublin, one of the representatives for that city. The catholics had exerted themselves to exclude him, as being

* Curry's Review, vol. I. p. 124.

a protestant, and as they were with reason apprehensive of violent measures in the course of the session. The deputy cut the struggle short by sending for the sheriff of Dublin, on whom he imposed an arbitrary fine of two hundred pounds, for "having carried himself mutinously," and of five hundred pounds more, because he refused to sign a paper "disabling himself from ever bearing that office in the city." Upon this, Cateline and another protestant were instantly elected. By dint of fair promises, mixed with menaces, he obtained considerable grants of money from parliament, which were at that time very necessary for the government.

One of the great engines of oppression in the English administration was, to commence an enquiry into the titles of estates. As the country had been in a situation of the most deplorable anarchy, it was evident that enquiries and forfeitures could be multiplied without end. Much had been accomplished in this way by the preceding deputies; but Strafford exceeded the worst of them. When a jury in Galway did not return a verdict agreeable to his lordship, he fined the sheriff in a thousand pounds, and each of the jurors in four thousand pounds. Their estates were seized, and themselves imprisoned till these fines were paid. It appears, that, on other occasions, jurors were sometimes pilloried, with the loss of their ears, sometimes bored through the tongue, and at others, branded on the forehead with a hot iron.

"The gentlemen of Connaught," says Mr. Carte, "laboured under a particular hardship on this occasion." The defect in their titles arose from the treachery of a clerk, who had been employed to enrol their patents, obtained in the reign of James the first. They had advanced three thousand pounds to the offices at Dublin, for enregistering these deeds. It had been omitted, a circumstance which presented an unbounded field for plunder to the vultures of confiscation. The omission was a mere matter of form. They had paid largely for these very patents to the exchequer, were peaceably settled in their lands, and paid the composition to the king better than any other part of the kingdom. It was the wildest outrage of despotism to turn them out of their estates upon a legal quibble. So great were the terrors of the gentry of the county of Galway, that, in 1637, they offered to surrender at once their estates to the crown, and for that purpose sent a letter of attorney to the earl of Clanrickard, then at London, signed by an hundred and twenty-five persons of the best quality in the county. At the same time, the sheriff and jurors, *who were still in prison*, petitioned, but in vain, for their pardon. They offered to acknowledge the deputy's justice, and their own errors of judgment, upon condition only that they and the rest might be put upon the same footing with the other planted counties. In the end, one half of their lands were confiscated; and the petition of the jurors was rejected, because Strafford insisted on their making an explicit acknowledgment that they had been guilty of perjury, which concession they refused to make.

Strafford himself was guilty of an action which plainly showed, that he saw his own conduct in its true light. In the preamble to the act of parliament, by which the subsidies were granted, there was inserted a series of thanks to Charles the first, for having placed over Ireland so wise, vigilant, and just a governor, who had augmented the public revenue without oppressing the people, and who had been anxious to relieve the distressed. Mr. Carte has, on the credit of this preamble, pronounced a splendid eulogium on the administration of Strafford, and Mr. Hume has bestowed uncommon labour in composing a panegyric for this deputy. We advert to the mistake of these two distinguished authors, to prove how very imperfectly the history of Britain and Ireland has hitherto been written. The administration of Strafford, so far from being meritorious, was, as we have already seen, to the last degree tyrannical and odious; and as to the pretended attestation of its excellence, Mr. Carte ought to have taken proper notice of a protestation entered against it, in the journals of the house of commons; in which protestation

they were joined by the house of peers. They declare, "that this preamble to the act of subsidies was contrived, penned, and *inserted fraudulently, without the privity of the house*, either by the earl of Strafford himself, or by some other person or persons, advisers, procurers, or actors of or in the manifold and general grievances of his majesty's kingdom of Ireland."

The rebellion in 1641 has been strangely misrepresented. As to the provocations which made the Irish, or a part of them, prompt for insurrection, the treatment which they received forms a sufficient apology. Mr. Hume has represented the conspiracy as general; and had it been so, it would only have afforded an evidence of the just indignation of the people. But the gentlemen of Ulster were forced into an insurrection, by the wanton seizure of their lands; and the horrid detail of massacres, on which Mr. Hume has exhausted his rhetoric, has very little foundation. It was not the Roman catholic clergy, who excited these disturbances; for even Mr. Carte, who certainly was not their friend, declares, that, although this conspiracy was ascribed to them, "not more than two or three of them appeared to know any thing of it." Sir John Temple, who has been copied by a croud of succeeding historians, represents the revolt as long before concerted and resolved upon. But unfortunately he contradicts this idea by another passage, wherein he informs us, "that Sir Phelim O'Neal, and many others of the prime leaders in this rebellion, did, *not long before it broke out*, turn their Irish tenants off their lands, even to starve upon the mountains; while they took in English, who were able to give them much greater rents, and more certainly pay the same." This behaviour establishes the fact, that these insurgents had neither intended nor foreseen what was to happen. The same writer also remarks, that, at their rising, the revolvers had "not many better weapons, than staves, scythes, and pitchforks." This affords another presumption that the revolt was unpremeditated. As to the subsequent commotions in the other provinces, they resulted from the grossest oppression, and the prospect of relief, which the success of their countrymen in Ulster held out to them. Mr. Hume has enlarged upon the defenceless condition of the English colonies in Ulster; but Mr. Carte has quoted the manuscript journal of an officer in the royal service, which places the scene in a very different light. The veracity of this author, and his opportunities of authentic information, can hardly be disputed. If he had been disposed to violate the laws of truth, it certainly would not have been in favour of the Roman catholics of Ireland. He gives a minute and daily account of whatever happened in Ulster, during the first weeks of this insurrection; and it is remarkable, that he advances no charge of barbarity against the Irish. So far were the English colonies from being in that helpless situation which Mr. Hume has described, that, as this writer computes, the protestants of Ulster "had killed near a thousand of the rebels *in the first week* of the rebellion." In a skirmish that he mentions, two hundred of the people of Colerain repulsed a thousand of the insurgents. In another, sixty of them were slain, and of their adversaries, who did not lose a single man, only two were wounded. In all this we see nothing of that bloated picture of treachery, barbarity, and universal massacre, which Mr. Hume has been so anxious to illustrate. The idea is altogether absurd, when we reflect upon the actual state of the country. The earl of Clanrickard informs us, that "the Scots in Ulster were forty thousand well armed men, when the rebellion commenced; that the rebels were by one half less numerous, and furnished with few better weapons than staves, scythes, and pitchforks; and that the insurgents forbade any of their followers, on pain of death, to molest any of the Scottish nation in body or goods." Farther, Temple, an English writer already cited, acknowledges it "to be a truth, that those British, whom the rebels suffered to live among them, and such as they kept in prison, were not put to the sword by the Irish, until, in their several encounters with his majesty's forces, they suffered loss of their men,

and so were enraged." These are the words of an eye witness, who was himself a personal enemy to the rebels; yet even here we find no traces of the mournful rhapsody of Mr. Hume.

What sort of treatment provoked the insurgents to massacre their prisoners, we learn from the same authority. Sir Henry Tichbourne expelled Sir Phelim O'Nial from Dundalk. He boasted that for some weeks after, "there was neither man nor beast to be found *in sixteen miles*, between the two towns of Drogheda, and Dundalk; nor on the other side of Dundalk in the county of Monaghan, nearer than Carrickmacross, a strong pile, *twelve miles distant*."—After such havoc on the English side, is it wonderful that the Irish began to commit actions of similar barbarity? The *lex talionis*, the principle of retaliation, is engraved with indelible characters on the human heart. The melodious paragraphs which Mr. Hume has devoted to commemorate the ferocity of Sir Phelim O'Nial, might, with at least equal propriety, have recorded the butcheries committed by Tichbourne. This monster vaunted of these enormities as a glorious achievement; but O'Nial, in his last moments, declared, "that the several outrages committed by his officers and soldiers, in that war, contrary to his intention, then pressed his conscience very much." May we not now turn the declamation of Mr. Hume against his cause? When we hear a military ruffian boasting that he had left *neither man nor beast in an extent of twenty-eight miles*, we are justified, for describing such a scene, in adopting the language of this elegant, but unfaithful historian. "After rapacity had fully exerted itself, cruelty, and that the most barbarous that ever in any nation was known or heard of, began its operations. An universal massacre commenced of the English," (*Irish*, he might have said) "now defenceless, and passively resigned to their inhuman foes. No age, no sex, no condition was spared. The wife weeping for her butchered husband, and embracing her helpless children, was pierced with them, and perished by the same stroke. The old, the young, the vigorous, the infirm, underwent the same fate, and were confounded in one common ruin. In vain did flight save from the first assault. Destruction was every where let loose, and met the hunted victims at every turn." But, when we consider the business with impartiality, we shall find that the English were in an uncommon degree deserving of extirpation. They were unprovoked invaders, and unfeeling oppressors. The Irish had never disturbed England. As to the pretended right of supremacy derived from the conquest of Henry the second, that is at best but an atrocious and despicable sophism. The English had an equal title to have invaded and plundered any other nation in the world; and every such nation would have been entitled to exterminate them, as quickly as possible. Mr. Hume is perpetually appealing on Irish affairs to Sir John Temple. No credit is due to an author, who is himself ashamed of his performance. Temple would not suffer his book to pass through a second edition, as Mr. Crawford has informed us, in his history of Ireland. Yet Mr. Hume quotes him as an authority of distinction.

The practice of massacring in cold blood appears to have begun on the side of the established government. In the island of Magee, a number of Irish families, who had no concern whatever in the insurrection, were cut to pieces in their beds, by a party of assassins, who had for that purpose sailed out of Carrickfergus. Dr. Curry has rendered it at least highly probable, that this horrid action took place before any barbarities were committed by the rebels. Mr. Carte states these victims, at three thousand men, women, and children. Others make their amount much less; but, whatever was the extent of these operations, the principle that inspired them, was exactly the same.

As to the evidence of the massacres committed by the insurgents, the whole history of this rebellion has been written in such a manner, that our astonishment suffers no rest. Thirty-two folio volumes of manuscripts, containing

what is called evidence on this subject, are deposited in the University of Dublin. From this enormous mass of malignity, of falsehood, and of nonsense, Temple and Borlase, two of the principal historians cited by succeeding writers, have selected such testimonies as they considered to be least incredible, to support their tremendous narratives. Dr. Warner examined the original manuscripts; and he observes, that, though all the examinations, signed by the commissioners, are said to be *upon oath*, yet the fact is otherwise. Infinitely the greater number of them have the words *being duly sworn*, crossed out, with the same ink, in which these examinations are transcribed. In others, where these words remain, many parts of the examinations are crossed out. Hence it follows, that the bulk of this immense collection, is parol evidence. That is indeed a matter of small consequence, since many of the circumstances are in themselves utterly incredible, though they had been attested by the combined depositions of the whole human race. For example, numerous depositions attest, that crowds of protestant ghosts were seen in erect postures in a river where the persons themselves had been drowned, *shrieking out, revenge!* As a specimen of the style of Temple, so respectfully quoted above twenty times by Mr. Hume, in the last edition of his history, the reader may peruse the following passage. "Hundreds of the ghosts of protestants, who were drowned by the rebels at Portnadown-bridge, were seen in the river bolt upright, and were heard to cry out for revenge on these rebels. One of these ghosts was seen, *with hands lifted up*, and standing in that posture, from the 29th of December to the latter end of the following lent." It is not wonderful, that the writer of this book attempted afterwards to suppress it. But it is somewhat strange that a person like Mr. Hume, who had a character to lose, should have quoted such an extravagant and despicable scribbler, as an authentic historian. Borlase, in his performance, which bears a fraternal resemblance to that of Temple, has celebrated Dr. Maxwell, bishop of Kilmore, and one of these notable witnesses, as "a person, whose integrity and candour none ever dared to question." This bishop, in his deposition, describes these apparitions as sometimes having been seen, by day and night, walking upon the river; sometimes brandishing their naked swords; sometimes singing psalms; and, at other times, shrieking in a most fearful and hideous manner. He adds, "that he never heard any man so much as doubt the truth thereof; but that he obliged no man's faith, in regard he (the bishop) *saw them not with his own eyes*; otherwise he had as much certainty, as could morally be required in such matters." If this be not the language of imposture or insanity, we know not where to find it. If a bishop was not ashamed to countenance such atrocious fictions, what was to be expected from the herd of the species? Or what are we to think of persons, who sit down to compile ponderous volumes, and appeal to such a stupid assemblage of falsehoods, as a serious history?

With respect to the number of protestants, who perished by the hands of the rebels, Mr. Hume estimates them from forty thousand to two hundred thousand. This is another gross misrepresentation, and altogether correspondent to the story of ghosts, who *sang psalms, and stood bolt upright*, &c. &c. Dr. Warner appears very willing to believe the worst of the Irish rebels. Yet, after examining the manuscripts, he says, that "the number of people killed, upon positive evidence, collected in two years after the insurrection broke out, amounts only to two thousand one hundred and nine; on the report of other protestants, one thousand six hundred and nineteen more; and, on the report of some of the rebels themselves, a farther number of three hundred; the whole, both by positive evidence and by report, making four thousand and twenty-eight." He adds, that there is, in the same collection, evidence on the report of others, of eight thousand killed by harsh usage. This sort of testimony deserves no farther notice.

On the 5th of May, 1652, *ten years after the commencement of the rebellion*, the commissioners of the English parliament in Ireland, transmitted to the government

of England, a letter on this subject, which has been consulted by Dr. Warner—these partizans were undoubtedly disposed to make the most of the story; yet they state only eight hundred and forty-eight families, besides six thousand and sixty-two other persons, who were killed, hanged, or burnt. Yet Sir William Petty, who was secretary to Ireton, informs us, that thirty thousand British were killed, besides those who fell in battle, during the very first year of this insurrection. Clarendon, still more sanguinary, destroys forty or fifty thousand persons in the first two or three days of it; and Sir John Temple, with his wonted regard for truth, affirms, “that one hundred and fifty thousand protestants were massacred in cold blood, in the two first months of the rebellion.”

That dreadful murders were committed, is true; but these were chiefly by the English themselves. Borlase relates, that Sir William Cole, in the course of a year, with only a regiment of five hundred foot, and a troop of an hundred horse, killed two thousand four hundred and seventeen swordsmen, of the rebels. He likewise starved to death, “seven thousand of the vulgar sort; *whose goods were seized on by the regiment.*” Borlase adds, “after this rate, the English in all parts fought.” How could these merciless destroyers have the effrontery to speak of *Irish* barbarity! Colonel Gibson, an English officer, having taken a castle near Dublin, put to the sword several hundreds of people, sparing neither man, woman, nor child. An endless croud of such exploits renders the account of Sir William Petty, formerly quoted, perfectly credible, that Ireland, in the space of *eleven* years, had lost almost one half of her inhabitants. It is to be remarked, that these assassinations were perpetrated by a people, who, at that very time, were making the most vigorous exertions to support *their own* liberties against the tyranny of Charles the first. They completely understood the principles of government; so that no plea of vindication can be supported by the supposition of their ignorance.

As to the outrages committed by the inferior classes of the Irish insurgents, no reasonable accusation can be from thence inferred against the general character of the nation. With equal justice we might infer the character of the English nation, from the conduct of the incendiaries of Birmingham, or of the adventurers, who at this day desolate the plains of Indostan. When Owen O’Nial assumed the command of the Irish forces, he expressed the utmost abhorrence of the barbarities that had been perpetrated upon the opposite party; he told Sir Phelim O’Nial that he himself deserved the same treatment; he actually burnt the houses of some of the murderers, and protested that he would sooner join the English, than forbear to burn the rest. Dr. Maxwell, whose evidence has already been referred to, says, that the mother of this very Sir Phelim preserved twenty-four English and Scots men in her own house, and fed them at her own expense for thirty-seven weeks; and that when the approach of an English army made her flight necessary, she set both them and Maxwell himself at liberty. One of her sons conducted thirty-five Englishmen out of Armagh to Drogheda; though it was suspected, that he had private orders to murder them. He conducted twenty others in safety to Newry. Dr. Warner observes, that “all the gentlemen in Munster were exceedingly careful to prevent bloodshed, and to hinder the English from being pillaged and stripped, though it was many times impossible.” Lord Mountgarret, having detected one of his party, of the rank of a gentleman, plundering in his presence, shot him dead with his pistol. His lordship’s son, Colonel Edmund Butler, having taken possession of Waterford, Mr. Carte says, “that none of the inhabitants, of whatever country or religion, were either killed or pillaged; and such of the British protestants as had a mind to leave the place, were allowed to carry off their goods wherever they pleased.” Compare this generosity with the boasted exploits of Tichbourne, who had left neither man nor beast in an extent of twenty-eight miles!

The Irish leaders in the service of England seem to have been inspired with the

same diabolical inhumanity, as their masters. The castle of Ardmore, in the county of Waterford, surrendered *upon mercy*, to lord Dungarvan, and lord Broghill. An hundred and forty of the prisoners were put to the sword. On another occasion, lord Broghill declared, "that he knew not what *quarter* meant." Sir Frederick Hamilton, another Irish royalist, burnt Sligo, and slew in the streets three hundred people.

On the other hand, when the towns of Callan, Gowran, Clonmell, Carrickmagriffin, and Fethard were taken by the Irish, the inhabitants were treated with the utmost kindness. At Fethard, mr. Lowe, vicar of Cloyne, was murdered. The accomplices, three in number, were apprehended, confessed their crime, and were hanged. In the beginning of the revolt, sir Richard Everet, an Irish baronet, sent the richest of the English planters in his neighbourhood, with their property, into the English quarters. The poorer sort, consisting of eighty-eight persons, he kept and maintained, till the middle of June, 1642, a space of six or eight months; he then conveyed them to Mitchel's town, and when that place was reduced by his party, he brought some of these families back to his own estate. When Birr surrendered to the insurgents, the English garrison and inhabitants, to the amount of eight hundred persons, were conveyed, in a long march of two or three days, to a place of safety. This, and a profusion of anecdotes of the same nature, have been recorded by mr. Carte, an Englishman, who was nowise disposed to magnify the virtues of the Irish nation.

Among other falsehoods which have been crowded into the account of this event, there is one, upon which mr. Hume, and a thousand other writers, have expatiated with uncommon virulence. The Roman catholic religion has been reproached as the cause of a revolt, which was evidently the consequence of oppression and despair. To cast the blame of the excesses committed by the rabble, on their priests, is an act of the utmost injustice. In May, 1642, an assembly of the Roman catholic clergy was held at Kilkenny. Three titular archbishops, six bishops, the proxies of five others, and a number of inferior priests, were present. They denounced excommunication against every member of their communion, who should "murder, dismember, or grievously strike; all thieves, unlawful spoilers, or robbers of any goods; and such as favoured or received them." In this censure they comprehended "all such as had invaded, or should invade, the possessions or goods of any Irish protestant, not being their adversary, and should detain them." Their clergy were expressly prohibited from hearing the confessions of such offenders; and to administer the sacrament to them, was forbidden under the penalty of instant excommunication. It is indeed likely, that these injunctions were sometimes disobeyed, and that, as among other religionists, fanaticism would sometimes embitter the ferocity of the mob. But it is the climax of absurdity to calumniate a whole sect, or a whole nation, for the follies or the crimes of a few insignificant and worthless individuals. In spite of the slanders echoed by mr. Hume and others, it is attested, beyond all contradiction, and by writers of all parties, that the Roman catholic clergy did not confine their benevolence to a barren edict. Upon some occasions, they protected or concealed the English fugitives from the fury of the croud, in their places of worship, and under their altars. On the taking of Cashel, by the catholics, dr. Pullen, dean of Clonfert, with his wife and children, were preserved by James Saul, a Jesuit. Some Franciscan friars, at the same time, exerted their influence in a manner suitable to their profession. Dr. Bedel, bishop of Kilmore, when a prisoner among the Irish catholics, was never interrupted in the exercise of his religion, though his house and out-buildings, his church and church-yard, were full of people, who flocked around him for shelter. "From the 23d of October," says bishop Burnet, "to the 18th of December following, he, and all those within his walls, enjoyed, to a miracle, perfect

quiet." When he died, he was buried in consecrated ground; the chiefs of the insurgents attended his funeral; and one of his chaplains was directed to bury him according to the rites of the church of England. At his interment they fired a volley of shot, crying out, in Latin, *Hic requiescat ultimus Anglorum!* "May the last of the English rest in peace." Edmund Farilly, a catholic priest, who was present at the same time, exclaimed, *O sit anima mea cum Bedello!* "Would to God that my soul were with Bedel." In conduct of this kind, we trace none of that atrocity, with which the Roman catholics have been so loudly charged. We dwell with pleasure on these minute particulars, as displaying the bright side of human nature, as tending to place in a proper rank, in the moral scale, the character of a nation, which, by a singular fatality, has been more incessantly and more grossly calumniated, than any other people since the first origin of human society.

" On eagles' wings, immortal, scandals fly;
" While virtuous actions are but born, and die."

For almost six weeks from the beginning of this insurrection, it had been confined to Ulster; the other three provinces remained in peace. Even in the first design of the conspirators, that of seizing the castle of Dublin, not one of the catholics of that city was concerned, though that sect was fifteen times more numerous than the protestants, and though there was not one company of the army, at that juncture, in the metropolis. Even so late as June, 1642, the lords justices themselves, who were in an high degree bigoted, sanguinary, and vindictive, attested, that no particular crimes could be laid to their charge, and that there was no ground of accusation against them, besides bare suspicion. The causes why the revolt became general, are now to be explained.

We have already observed, that the landholders of Ulster had been driven into resistance, by that notable project of an enquiry into defective titles. Charles the first, who was, by this time, on the brink of hostilities with his English subjects, had become disposed to atone for the ravages of his favourite Strafford; and two bills had been suffered to pass through the parliament of Ireland, which were, in that country, considered as a barrier against the future inroads of government. In August, 1641, just about two months before the revolt began, the Irish parliament, having transmitted these bills to England for the royal assent, were in hourly expectation of the return of their agent. But, on the other hand, sir William Parsons, and sir John Borlase, the two lords justices, were determined to adjourn the two houses, before these bills should arrive. They had been forced into the offices, which they so much disgraced, by the parliament of England, in opposition to the will of the king. They were apprehensive, that, by passing these two bills, Charles would obtain the affections of the Irish nation; and they were sensible, that such a conjunction would have brought the cause they espoused in England, into the greatest danger. It was, indeed, only by the assistance of the Scots, that the parliament party were at last able to vanquish the royalists; and it is at once evident, that, had Charles succeeded in fixing the attachment of the Irish nation, he would have been at least not inferior in point of strength to all his enemies. The puritans perfectly understood the importance of fomenting divisions at this crisis between Charles and his Irish subjects; and, without this previous explanation, the proceedings of Borlase and Parsons would seem, at the first view, no less absurd than they were criminal. Besides this motive, of itself sufficiently powerful, the thirst after confiscation, which had afforded such immense fortunes to their predecessors, was an inducement to throw the nation into a state of revolt—and there was a still further reason to be found in the fanaticism

of the times; which prompted the prevailing party to seek the extermination of the catholics:—"Sir William Parsons, out of a strange weakness, or detestable policy, asserted before many witnesses, at a public entertainment, that, within a twelve-month, no catholic should be seen in Ireland*." "It is evident, from the lords justices' letter to the earl of Leicester, then lord lieutenant, that they hoped for an extirpation, not of the mere Irish only, but of all the old English families also, that were Roman catholics†."

From this digression we return to the transactions at Dublin. Charles, in the month of May preceding, had sent express orders to the lords chief justices, to pass the bills so necessary to the peace of Ireland, and their lordships must have been conscious, that they would receive the royal assent. Yet, in spite of the intreaties of both houses of parliament, who requested them to wait the return of the bills, they adjourned that assembly for three months. This measure, as no doubt was intended, cast the whole country into confusion, alarm, and distress; and must be regarded as the proximate cause of the revolt of Ulster. Soon after this baneful adjournment, the agents of the Irish parliament brought both bills, with the assent of Charles, to Dublin, and made application to Borlase and Parsons, that these acts might be published, by an official proclamation, to satisfy the minds of the people. But these artful men, who had long been in the habit of thwarting the designs of Charles, never gave this notice. On the 16th of November, the parliament met, according to the terms of its adjournment. But the justices, who were determined that no business should be done, once more prorogued the assembly, after a sitting of only two days; though the rebellion was, by this time, spreading all over the north of Ireland. They did not even deign to take the smallest notice of the two popular bills, which had received the royal assent, and which, consequently, were, for the time at least, annihilated. It is impossible to conceive a more glaring insult on the common sense of a people.

As it became evident, that the lords justices were rather disposed to excite than prevent disturbances; so it naturally followed, that they would decline any proper measures for putting a decisive stop to the rebellion, when once it had begun. Various offers were made for this purpose. The earl of Ormond, in particular, undertook to pursue and attack the insurgents, if the English government would supply his soldiers with provisions. This proposal was rejected, under pretence that there was a want of arms: "a pretence," says Mr. Carte, "so notoriously false, that it could only be made use of, to cover motives which their lordships were ashamed to confess; for there was, at this time, in the stores of the castle, a fine train of artillery, ammunition of all sorts, in great quantities, arms for above ten thousand men, tents, and necessaries of all kinds for the march and provision of an army." Lords Dillon and Taaffe, provoked at the trifling or perfidious conduct of the justices, addressed the king himself on this subject, in a letter, which was intercepted. These two noblemen were, by orders of the English house of commons, arrested, and, after a confinement of several months, made their escape to Charles, then at York. We can hardly question the assertion of Dr. Leland, that, "whatever were the professions of the chief governors, the ONLY DANGER THAT THEY REALLY APPREHENDED, was that of a *too speedy suppression of the rebellion*. Extensive forfeitures were their favourite object.

Borlase and Parsons had lent some arms to the nobility and gentry in the neighbourhood of Dublin, to enable them to defend themselves against the rebels. These arms were immediately recalled, and the disarmed and defenceless people fled for refuge to Dublin. The lords justices drove them back to the country. The houses of Sir Robert Talbot had been burnt by the insurgents; and his family had fought

* Carte's Life of Ormond, vol. I. page 235. † Warner's History of the Irish Rebellion.
Vol. I.

refuge in Dublin. His offers of assisting to quell the revolt were refused, and he was compelled, under pain of death, to quit the city. He was forced at last to join the insurgents; and his large estate was portioned out among the followers of Cromwell.

No signs of a general insurrection had yet appeared in any part of Ireland, except Ulster. But, upon a report of some disturbances in Wicklow, sir Charles Coote was dispatched from Dublin, with a body of troops to suppress them. He exceeded even the common measure of barbarity employed against the Irish. He was, in April, 1642, shot dead, and it was believed that he had been assassinated by his own soldiers. About a fortnight after the nobility and others had been expelled from Dublin, the "lords of the pale," as they were called, were abruptly summoned to assemble in that city. Suspicions of treachery on the part of the English government, induced them to decline obedience to this requisition. Their refusal afforded a pretence, or something like it, for the commencement, or rather for the continuation, of murder, within the pale. Sir Charles Coote was dispatched to burn the village of Clontarf, which he did, at the same time assassinating sixteen of the innocent, but helpless inhabitants. "These orders," says Borlase, "were *excellently well executed*." In the same week, another party of soldiers went from Dublin into the country. Fifty-six men, women, and children, affrighted at the fate of Clontarf, took boats, and went to sea. The party pursued, seized, and threw them overboard. By an order from the parliament of England, dated the 30th of November, 1641, the lords justices were directed to publish offers of a general pardon, and these orders were repeated by Charles himself on the first of January, succeeding. This was not what their lordships wanted. The orders were disobeyed; and, on the first of February following, the earl of Ormond, whose virtues have been so fondly, but so unjustly, applauded, was dispatched, with a body of troops, into the county of Kildare. "He burnt Newcastle and Lyons," says his biographer, Mr. Carte, "and gave up Naas to his soldiers to plunder; having sent out parties to burn Castle Martin, Kilkullen bridge, and, in short, all the country for *seventeen miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth*."

At Naas, one Higgins, a catholic priest, had surrendered himself to Ormond, saying that he had no concern in the rebellion, that he could bring ample proof of his innocence, and that he had even saved the lives of many Englishmen from the fury of the Irish. He was conducted to Dublin by Ormond, and committed to prison, whence he was taken by sir Charles Coote, and put to death, without farther ceremony. When Ormond complained of this affair to the lords justices, his remonstrances were treated with contempt. Mr. White, catholic chaplain to the countess of Westmeath, was likewise murdered, in spite of Ormond's promise of protection. A series of such achievements, as was, no doubt, foreseen and designed, drove the nobility and gentlemen of the pale to a state of utter desperation. They began, in great numbers, to join the rebels.

The insurrection of Munster commenced in the month of December, 1641. Some robberies had been committed in the county of Tipperary, and, among others, who were sufferers, one Mr. Kingsmill lost some cows and sheep. He was brother-in-law to sir William St. Leger, lord president of the province. This magistrate, in a letter which is still extant, dated on the 8th of November, 1641, had declared, that "*every thing was perfectly quiet in Munster, and that there was no manner of appearance of any commotion*." This robbery, however, was too valuable a pretence to be overlooked; and, in a few days after, he came into that part of the country with two troops of horse. He began his operations by burning several houses, and by the massacre of about thirty of the peasantry, men and women, whom he dispatched without trial, without provocation, and without resistance. Lord Dunboyne, with several gentlemen of the country, assembled, and, in a submissive tone, represented to St. Leger, the fatal consequences of such proceedings. His answer

was, "that they were all rebels, and that he would not trust one foul of them, but thought it more prudent to *hang the best of them*.*" As it was dangerous to remonstrate, his auditors retired in silence. He next entered the county of Wexford, and every step of his progress was marked with slaughter and devastation. "He gallantly pursued these rebels," says Temple; "after a long and tedious march, he came upon them unawares, and slew two hundred of them, besides several whom he took prisoners and hanged." What degree of *gallantry* was requisite for these exploits, we may judge from a passage in the letter of St. Leger himself, just quoted; in which, speaking of some of the insurgents, he says, that, "they were only a company of *poor, ragged, naked rogues*." It would be profaning the name of gallantry, to suppose, that the least spark of it had ever glimmered in the bosom of such a miscreant.

Whatever might be the poverty of the inferior ranks, it is certain, that the wealth of the nation at large was very considerable. For the earl of Corke, in a letter addressed to the speaker of the English house of commons, dated the 16th of August, 1642, relates, that his lordship had indicted eleven hundred persons in that part of the island; and that if the English parliament chose to proceed against them as outlaws, he could assure him, that their estates, at the beginning of the insurrection, were worth upwards of two hundred thousand pounds per annum. This sum is equal to, at least, eight hundred thousand pounds, in the present age. The prospect of such an immense plunder might have staggered the integrity even of more honest men, than the immaculate disciples of Cromwell. Among the persons indicted, were lord Dunboyne and lord Muskerry. This last nobleman was married to a sister of Ormond. At the commencement of the troubles, he had requested leave to raise a thousand men at his own expense, in order to suppress the insurrection. And, as it had been pretended, though falsely, that the English government at Dublin, were but scantily supplied with arms, he had offered to mortgage his estate for the purchase of what might be necessary for his troops. He only demanded, that the council of state would promise to repay him the price of them, at the end of the service, or suffer him to keep them as his own property. His proposals were addressed to persons, who dreaded nothing more than the suppression of the revolt, before it had advanced to a plausible maturity. Of this government, and of this outlaw, the sentiments of all mankind must be uniform.

The same causes which had excited disturbances in the other provinces of Ireland, impelled the people of Connaught into insurrection. The commander of the fort of Galway, in particular, and lord Forbes, captain of a ship of war, in the harbour of that town, kept the whole country in alarm, by incessant outrages and murders. In this political tempest, the lords justices themselves appear to have been distinguished by superior inhumanity and treachery. Sir John Read had been entrusted with letters for the king, by the nobility and gentry of the pale. The justices invited him to a friendly conference before he set out on his journey. He came to Dublin, was arrested, and put to the rack. The chief question with which they harassed him, was, whether the king had been privy to the rebellion? Patrick Barnwell, of Kilbrew, had surrendered himself to the earl of Ormond, and had ventured to come to Dublin, upon the safe-conduct of Parsons. He was also put to the torture. Immense numbers of people were apprehended, carried to Dublin, and treated with the most consummate insolence and barbarity. Three thousand indictments were, in a short time, put upon record against these miserable victims. It appears, that Ormond, whose subsequent loyalty has been so warmly celebrated, condescended, at this dreadful crisis, to become a prompt emissary of oppression. The conduct of the English soldiers was such, that no person endued with humanity, could have

* Curry's Review, vol. I. p. 252.

commanded them; yet Ormond made no scruple of acting as their general, while, under his eye, they committed cruelties worthy of Zingis or of Timour. To exterminate man, woman, and child, was a frequent practice; and sir Charles Coote would sometimes order his Irish prisoners to blow in his pistol, and then discharge it through their heads.

In the progress of this narrative, we feel a sensation unlike any other, of which we remember ourselves to have been sensible. We are always tempted, on the perusal of every new crime, to imagine that we have at last reached the climax of atrocity, while the ingenious tyranny of England incessantly strikes us with some still more flagrant example of guilt. The parliament of that kingdom outdid all these former achievements, in an act of the 8th of December, 1641, by which they declared, that “they would not give their consent to *any toleration of the catholic religion in Ireland.*” This resolution was equivalent to a bill for the extirpation of a million of people; a few weeks after, they voted the confiscation of two millions and a half of acres of arable, meadow, and pasture land. Suitable to these measures, the lords justices published the most sanguinary orders to the soldiers; and the whole island seemed to have been transformed into one immense slaughterhouse. Compared with such a tremendous mass of misery, the dungeons of the bastille, or the proscriptions of a Roman triumvirate, shrink into forgetfulness!

When Borlase and Parsons learned the design of confiscating such prodigious tracts of land, they, on the 11th of May, 1642, addressed the speaker of the English house of commons, in a private letter*, expressing their hopes of a reasonable share of the booty: So that their rapacity, as individuals, was exactly on a level with the enormity of their official characters.

We have thus given a statement of the origin of the rebellion in Ireland. We have been more full than is, in general, consistent with the limits of this work, because that period of the Irish history is but little known, and has been very generally misunderstood. We shall, therefore, only further add, that the contest was terminated by Cromwell and Ireton in 1652, by a series of confiscations and massacres, which almost destroyed the race of the ancient natives. The landed property was almost entirely transferred to the conquerors. Cromwell reserved, for his own share, the county of Tipperary. All the native Irish, who escaped the carnage, were commanded to retire into the county of Clare, and the province of Connaught, a province which had been almost reduced to a desert. A certain day was fixed for their retreat, under pain of death. At the restoration of Charles the second, some of the original proprietors were restored to their lands; but the number of these persons was extremely small.

The next remarkable event in the history of Ireland, was the civil war, which succeeded the revolution in 1688. In March, 1689, the pusillanimous James II. landed at Kinsale from Brest. He was defeated by William, his son-in-law, in the battle of the Boyne. The war was continued for about a year longer, by the generals of James, who had, on his defeat, fled back to France. The capture of Limerick put an end to the war. The celebrated “articles,” as they have been called, were subscribed on the 3d of October, 1691. The principal of these articles were, that the Roman catholics should exercise their religion in the same manner as in the reign of Charles the second; that they should enjoy the common privileges of subjects, being bound to take the oath of allegiance to the king, when required; and that they should have a right to carry arms about their persons, like other subjects.

In the reign of queen Anne, these conditions were gradually and perfidiously violated. At last, the Roman catholics were disarmed. They could not purchase land. If one son abjured the catholic religion, he inherited the whole estate, though he was the

* Carte's Ormond, vol. I.

youngest. If he made such abjuration, and turned *discoverer*, in the life-time of his father, he took possession of the whole estate, his father remaining a pensioner to him ; with many other restrictions equally abominable.

In 1698, mr. Molyneux published a pamphlet, entitled, " The case of Ireland being bound by acts of parliament in England, stated." This performance opened a controversy, which was long and violent. A committee of the house of commons of England, was, on the 21st of May, 1698, appointed to enquire into the nature of mr. Molyneux's book ; and, upon the report of the committee, the house passed some arbitrary resolutions against the book, and presented an address to the king, in which they enlarged both on the book and its pernicious assertions, and on the dangerous tendency of some proceedings of the Irish parliament. They concluded with " assuring his majesty of their ready concurrence and assistance, in a parliamentary way, to preserve and maintain the dependence and subordination of Ireland to the imperial crown of that realm." The answer of William to this address, was, " that he would take care, that what was complained of might be prevented and redressed, as the commons desired."

Thus was the political war between the two countries begun. In the year 1719, another public important case of controversy occurred. It was the English house of lords, who interfered at this time. A cause, relative to an estate, was tried before the court of exchequer in Ireland, who gave a decree in favour of Maurice Annesly against Hester Sherlock. The house of lords in Ireland was appealed to : they reversed the decree ; and Hester Sherlock was put in possession of the estate. Maurice Annesly applied to the house of lords, in England, for relief. The house, proceeding upon the principle, that the peers of Ireland possessed no power of jurisdiction, confirmed the decree : and an order was sent to the barons of the exchequer in Ireland, to cause the possession of the estates to be restored to Maurice Annesly ; which order they complied with. Hester Sherlock petitioned the house of peers in Ireland : they ordered the three barons of exchequer into custody ; and sent a representation of the case to George the first. This representation was laid before the English house of peers, who, after addressing the king, to desire that he would be pleased to confer some marks of his royal favour on the barons of the exchequer, framed a bill, declaratory of the subordination of Ireland to Britain, and annulling the appellate jurisdiction of the Irish house of peers. This bill was passed into a law.

Soon after, a circumstance occurred, too remarkable not to be noticed. A scarcity of copper coin prevailed in Ireland. The English government, in order to remedy it, granted a certain schemer, of the name of Wood, a patent for coining halfpence and farthings for that kingdom, which was to continue fourteen years ; and copper money was to be coined, pursuant to the patent, to the amount of 108,000l. A considerable quantity of such copper coin was accordingly coined in England, and sent to Ireland. It did not meet with a favourable reception. It was alleged, that its real value was greatly inferior to what it was made to pass for. The parliament of Ireland addressed the crown, against the measure of sending the coin ; and, during their following recess of two years, great complaints continued to be made on the subject both by individuals and by public corporations.

The question continued to agitate the public mind, and to excite a very general ferment. It was Wood *versus* Ireland, and Ireland *versus* Wood. The baseness of the halfpence was the public topic ; but the manner of introducing, and the mode that had been adopted of supplying the kingdom with them, were, in fact, the real causes of the contention. - In the mean time, the universal zeal against the halfpence increased. A majority of the towns addressed against them and their ruinous tendency : and a declaration was signed by the country gentlemen, forbidding their tenants to receive Wood's base copper coin.

At length the Irish politicians began to venture beyond those cautious limits, which they had hitherto prescribed to themselves. Questions relative to the king's prerogative, and the subordination of the kingdom of Ireland, were publicly discussed. The British government now began to be out of temper; or rather they had been so a long while before, finding that the patent they had granted, and endeavoured to support, had become useless, through the settled determination of all ranks of people against the halfpence. They took the opportunity of certain writings lately published, to show their resentment. They resolved upon the prosecution of the authors; and the new lord lieutenant, the lord Carteret, who still continued in England, was ordered to repair to the place of his government. Immediately after his arrival, a proclamation was issued, offering a reward of three hundred pounds for discovering the author of a pamphlet, entitled, the *Drapier's Fourth Letter*, in which the question of the dependency of the kingdom of Ireland had been examined with an unusual degree of freedom. The author was generally understood to be dean Swift; but no proof could be had against him. The manuscript copy, found in the printer's house, was in the hand of one of the Dean's footmen: and it had been brought, sealed up in a paper, by an obscure messenger, to whom it had been delivered one evening, through a window, by an unknown person. In defect of the author, the printer and his wife were imprisoned; and a bill of indictment was prepared against the printer.—The grand jury, to their eternal honour, would not find the bill. The lord chief justice of the king's bench discharged them in a passion. A second grand jury was empannelled. But here matters took a turn which the British government, and the officers of the crown in Ireland, had not expected. The grand jury, instead of finding the bill against the printer, made, on the 28th of November, 1724, a presentment, importing that Wood's halfpence were a fraudulent imposition, and acknowledging their gratitude for the services of all those patriots who had been zealous in detecting them.

Matters were thus brought to a very serious situation. On the part of Britain, to continue to support the patent, and take farther steps for enforcing the circulation of the halfpence, were now dangerous measures. Some steps of that kind had already been taken, by means of the report of the British privy council. The patent was declared, in the report, to be legal and obligatory, and a just and reasonable exercise of his majesty's royal prerogative; all the officers and judges in the kingdom were also commanded to countenance and assist the patent. To endeavour now to pursue the same plan any further, was not unlikely to be attended with some eventful catastrophe. The sending a few more barrels of halfpence to Corke or Dublin, might have been followed by events of the very same nature, as those which have since attended the arrival of the tea at Boston. Matters stood in Ireland, at the period we are speaking of, in a situation somewhat similar to those of North America, in the year 1773. However, the storm subsided on the revocation of Wood's patent.

In the years 1751 and 1753, further contests took place. The disputes were this time with the crown. The subject was an unappropriated sum of money, remaining in the Irish treasury, after the expenses of government were paid. Whose property was that money? who was to dispose of it; the crown, or the Irish parliament? These were the questions.

The crown regarded the money as its property: and, as it was not then wanted, it being a time of peace, the duke of Dorset, then lord lieutenant, acquainted the house of commons, that he was commanded by George the second to inform them, that he would consent that the money, remaining in the treasury, should be applied to the discharge of their national debt. The house passed a bill accordingly; but avoided noticing the king's previous declaration. The bill was transmitted to England, and was returned, that is, assented to, with the additional mention, however,

of the king's preparatory leave and consent: the addition was submitted to, for this time, and the bill accepted in the Irish parliament.

The question continued, nevertheless, to be warmly discussed among the politicians, till the following session, that is, during two years. It was called the question about the previous consent: It was, in reality, about the property of the money remaining, as a surplus, in the treasury. When the parliament again met, in the year 1752, the lord lieutenant made the same declaration as he had two years before. The commons, in appropriating the new surplus money, again avoided taking notice of the king's previous license: the mention of it was, as formerly, added by the English privy council. The Irish commons, at this time, rejected the bill. The crown then, with a strong hand, asserted its claim to the surplus money; and the king, by his letter, took it out of the treasury.

In the year 1768, dr. Lucas moved, in the house of commons, for a bill to limit the duration of parliament. Before that period, parliaments used to be continued by prorogations during a whole reign: the same members, of course, preserving their places. The privy council of Ireland consented to transmit the bill to England: by which the duration of parliament was to be limited to seven years. The bill was returned with the addition of one year, and the Irish parliaments, from that period, have been octennial.

About this time, the peace of the north of Ireland was disturbed by a numerous body of the lower classes of people, denominated steel-boys, who, feeling themselves much aggrieved by the mode adopted by an absentee landlord for resettling his estate, (which was very considerable,) were, in their distress, excited to many acts of violence and outrage, for which numbers were condemned and executed. These examples, with the exertions of the military, extinguished the commotion. But the cause from whence it arose, produced further effects, highly injurious to the country; as, in a short time, many thousands of its inhabitants emigrated to America.

The questions of the commercial restraints of Ireland, and of the interference of the British parliament in Irish concerns, had continued to be discussed only in the speeches of politicians, or in the writings of individuals. Sir William Petty first descanted, in a general manner, on those questions. Mr. Molyneux followed him: though he touched very superficially the subject of trade, and devoted his chief attention to the general question of constitution. Dean Swift, in his *Drapier's letters*, entered fully into both subjects. And, in a subsequent time, dr. Charles Lucas debated the two questions, in his writings and addresses to the people.

But no steps of a national and general kind were entered upon, in order to effect the repeal of those laws, by which the trade and constitution of Ireland were restrained. There was no prospect of success. It was concluded, that the British legislature would defend, with the utmost degree of energy, as well those acts which they had passed, as their claim to continue to pass similar acts in future. The assumed prerogative of the crown had, upon certain occasions, been disputed in Ireland, in the course of this century; but acts of the entire British legislature had never been opposed.

In the year 1778, the measure of public distress, arising from a combination of causes, being full, united all ranks in their endeavours for obtaining the removal of those restraints, by which the trade of Ireland was embarrassed. The public discontents were manifested, with symptoms very different from those which had attended the complaints of any former period.

In the parliament which had met about the close of the year 1777, the disadvantages, under which the trade of Ireland lay, had been animadverted upon with a considerable degree of warmth. After the adjournment, the subject attracted an un-

common degree of public attention, and became a general topic of discussion. Melancholy pictures presented themselves throughout the kingdom, of the deplorable condition of the country, of the fallen price of its lands and rents, of the ruinous state of its manufactures, and the stagnation of trade and credit. All these circumstances of public distress were now justly represented, as proceeding almost wholly from those restraints, which had been laid on the trade of Ireland by the British legislature.

Many causes of national complaint existed at this time.—The war with America, to which a considerable quantity of linen used to be exported, had deprived the nation of that important market. That general stagnation of trade and manufactures, which is the usual consequence of war and national difficulties, was experienced in Ireland.

The embargo, which, in 1776, had been laid upon the exportation of provisions from Ireland, was also attended with destructive consequences: “it was sent as a curse, and operated as a pestilence,” and excited the most general and well-founded complaints; as it was well known, that it was laid to enable English provision-contractors to amass princely fortunes on the ruin of thousands of people, who, having no other market or resource, were forced to accept whatever price was offered for the provisions by the agents of these English contractors!

There were other considerations, besides commercial ones, which concurred in rendering the complaints of the people of Ireland, concerning the restraints on their trade, so energetic and universal at this period, and which induced them to unite in a general effort to have them repealed. These restraints had been imposed by the despotism of England, by a parliament residing in a different country, and which, at the same time, claimed a right of absolute, indefinite legislation, that is to say, of tyranny over them.

Commercial and political considerations were blended in the complaints of the people of Ireland. Those prohibitions on their trade and navigation, which had been expressed, modified, explained, or confirmed in fifty or sixty acts of the British legislature, were monuments of slavish dependence, and of provincial subordination to a foreign government, which, upon every occasion, sacrificed the general interests of the kingdom to those of the most insignificant town in England, and, frequently, as in the case of embargoes, for the advantage of worthless individuals, the minions of a British minister. The parliament of that kingdom, in their intercourse with Ireland, had evidently availed themselves of the *right of the strongest*; they had both claimed and granted a patent to themselves, of the most valuable branches of trade and manufactures at her expense, at the same time that they made the patent perpetual.

An important change had also, at the same time, taken place in the circumstances of Britain and her parliament. After being weakened, during several years, by violent contentions at home, she had seen her colonies revolt. She had been foiled in her attempt to recover her dominion over them. She was involved in an expensive war with those colonies. France and Spain had joined in the contest; and she was now engaged in the defence of her own coast.

The government of Ireland, seeing the crisis to which popular indignation was rising, represented to the British ministers, that something must be done in order to allay the growing ferment; and the friends of that kingdom in the English parliament, feeling her situation still more sensibly, brought forward some propositions, in the session of 1775, for freeing her trade, which ended in some trivial relaxations on her intercourse with Africa and the West-Indies. In the next session, the subject was revived by Lord North, and ably supported; but the trading jealousy of Manchester, Glasgow, and other towns of Britain, rose to such a height, and was so successfully employed, that the advantages intended for Ireland, were re-

duced to the kind grant, of permission to cultivate tobacco and hemp. This was so glaring an insult over the public distress, and such an aggravation of injuries, that the people perceived, what they might have discovered long before, that their freedom and prosperity were to be derived from their own exertions only.

Resolutions and associations against the use of English manufactures were entered into, till the obnoxious laws of Britain should be repealed.

It may justly be expected, that we should give some account of the volunteers, who, at this time, began to act an important part in the history of Ireland. In consequence of the war with America, the coasts of Ireland, in 1777, had been insulted by privateers. And such was the weakness of government, that the mayor of Belfast, having requested a body of troops for the defence of the coasts, was answered, that only half a troop of horse, and half a troop of invalids, could be spared for that service. The inhabitants of that town have long and justly been distinguished by their public spirit. They immediately entered into an association for the protection of the country. A few volunteer companies were taught discipline; and a passion for acquiring the use of arms spread, with great rapidity, from one end of the island to the other. Men of the highest consequence in the nation were proud to be enrolled in their number; and persons of independent circumstances considered it as an honour to appear in their ranks. By the end of the year 1778, their numbers extended to thirty thousand men. Though subject to no controul in their tour of military duty, but inclination, the whole body were distinguished by an unexceptionable and most exemplary behaviour. They were perfectly obedient to discipline; they restrained the irregular, suppressed disorders, and maintained the execution of the laws with unanimity and with force.

On the 12th of October, 1779, the parliament of Ireland met. The eyes of the public were now turned towards them, in anxious expectation of their determinations and proceedings; the spirit and the virtue of the people had even communicated themselves to the legislature, who completely adopted the views and political wishes of their constituents. The address which was voted by the commons, to be delivered, as an answer to the speech from the throne, by which the session was opened, contained the following expressions: "*We beg leave to represent to your majesty, that it is not by temporary expedients, but by a free trade alone, that this nation is now to be saved from impending ruin.*" The house of lords concurred in expressing the same sentiment: "*We think it our duty to represent to your majesty, that a free trade is absolutely necessary to enable this nation to support your majesty at this important period, with exertions suited to its loyalty, and to preserve it from utter ruin.*"

A general expectation of redress was now diffused through the kingdom. Limiting the bill of supply was generally esteemed the only sure ground of hope to compel England to do justice to Ireland. When this point came to be considered in parliament, it was carried by a majority of the commons. A six months' money-bill, therefore, passed both houses, and was transmitted to England, to which the necessity of the times forced the ministry to assent.—Such was the state of affairs in Ireland during the recess of the British parliament. It met in December, 1779. Lord North immediately gave notice, that, in less than a week, he would move for a committee of the whole house, to take the affairs of Ireland into consideration. Accordingly, on the 13th of December, he brought forward his propositions relative to that country. The intent was to repeal the laws which prohibited the exportation of Irish manufactures, made of, or mixed with, wool and wool flocks, from Ireland to any part of Europe; to repeal so much of the act of George II. as prohibited the importation of glass into Ireland, except of British manufacture, or to export glass from thence; to permit Ireland to export and import commodities to and from the British colonies in America, and the West-Indies, and her settlements on the coast

of Africa, subject to such regulations and restrictions as should be imposed by the parliament of Ireland. The bills for this purpose were passed into laws.

The volunteers still continued to increase. The reviews, in 1781, were more numerous than the year before. At Belfast, there were reviewed more than 5000 men, whose martial appearance was heightened by a train of 13 pieces of cannon, purchased at their private expense, which they brought into the field.

In Autumn, the combined fleets of France and Spain appeared in the channel, with an intention, as was supposed, to invade Ireland. The moment that this intelligence arrived, the volunteers assembled, and, from all quarters, made an offer of their assistance to government. They did duty in some garrison towns, in place of the soldiers, who had been withdrawn to more distant parts of the kingdom: for their alacrity on this occasion, they received the thanks of both houses of parliament.

The foppish lord Carlisle, who arrived as lord lieutenant, on the 23d of December, 1780, having employed a greater profusion of bribes and other means of corruption than any of his predecessors, had the address, most effectually, to direct parliament; that which met the following Winter under his auspices, did, in every instance, coincide with and often anticipate the wishes of government. They set at defiance the voice of their constituents. All the attempts which were made by the patriotic members to obtain a repeal of the perpetual mutiny bill and Poynings' act, every effort in favour of the rights of the people, were wholly ineffectual. This intolerable treatment roused the national resentment, and procured a glorious exertion which emancipated the country. It originated with the officers of the southern battalion of the Armagh regiment of volunteers, who, at a meeting, on the 28th Dec. 1781, entered into several spirited resolutions, and particularly requested a meeting of delegates from every volunteer corps in the province of Ulster, to be held in Dungannon, on the 15th of February following, to deliberate on the alarming situation of public affairs.—The novelty and boldness of the measure astonished the public; government and its friends used every means to prevent the intended meeting. Whilst the minds of men were thus variously affected, the important 15th of February arrived. Representatives from 143 corps attended at Dungannon; they agreed to a series of spirited resolutions declaratory of the rights of their country, and voted an address of thanks to the minority in parliament who had supported their constitutional rights.

The resolutions and address, which were equally distinguished by spirit, by wisdom, and by moderation, were universally admired; they were adopted by the volunteers throughout the kingdom with unanimity and zeal; committees of correspondence were formed in every province; and the national committee served to concentrate the sentiments of the volunteers from all parts of the island. Immediately after the Dungannon meeting, an association was formed of the nobility, freeholders, and inhabitants of the county of Armagh, wherein they asserted the right of the nation to be governed by such laws only as should be enacted by the king, lords, and commons of Ireland, pledging themselves to each other, and to their country, to resist the execution of any statutes, but such as should derive authority from such a parliament, and to support, with their lives and fortunes, this their solemn declaration.

The historian who sits down to write with a strict regard to truth, must, in almost every stage of his progress, detail facts revolting to the feeling of his readers, and dishonourable to human nature. Notwithstanding the determination and unanimity of the Irish nation, and the justice of their cause, it is more than probable that they would have been defeated in their attempts to free themselves from British usurpation, but for one of the many changes which turbulence and faction so often produce in the cabinet of the sister kingdom, *as she is called*. Lord North and his coadjutors were obliged to resign their places in the ministry. This render-

ed a change in the administration of Ireland inevitable. From this moment, lord Carlisle, whom we have just seen ruling every thing in that kingdom with a high hand, determined to embarrass his successor as much as possible. He immediately dismissed out of pay, the venal and abandoned majority whom he had hired in parliament, and who had enabled him to carry through every measure, however destructive, however obnoxious. These unprincipled men, hungering after the plunder of the country, and disappointed in their expectations, commenced *patriots* for the day. They united themselves with the real friends of Ireland—and the will of parliament, being now nearly unanimous, became irresistible. On the truth of this circumstance, which is probably new to most of our readers, we are satisfied to rest the character of this work. And here we will, once for all, request, that before our readers condemn this publication for statements different from what they have been accustomed to, they will consult the authorities from which we have drawn our facts. The heart-rending accounts of Irish sufferings, during the various rebellions, as they are styled, which took place in that kingdom, we have taken principally from dr. Curry's review of the civil wars of Ireland, a work, without the perusal of which, no man can attain any tolerable idea of the history of that most oppressed of nations!

The duke of Portland being appointed lieutenant, in place of lord Carlisle, arrived in the beginning of April, 1782; and shortly after sent a message to parliament, expressing the concern of George the third, that discontents and jealousies prevailed among the Irish, and recommending such a final adjustment as might give mutual satisfaction to Britain and Ireland.

The commons replied in a long address, in which they stated the grievances of Ireland. In consequence of this, and another address of the same nature, from the house of lords, the English declaratory act of George the first was repealed, and a variety of acts were passed, advantageous to the liberties of Ireland. Among these, several despotic restrictions upon the Roman catholics were repealed. In this crisis mr. Grattan acquired uncommon popularity, by his glorious and successful exertions. He was rewarded by parliament, with a present of fifty thousand pounds.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham occasioned another change in the British administration; and, in consequence, lord Temple was, on the 31st of July, 1782, appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland. He was succeeded, in 1783, by lord Northington, the partisan of a new English ministry, well known under the title of the *coalition*.

The house of commons, in Ireland, is constituted on the same absurd and corrupt principles as that of England. In a debate last Winter, in the parliament of that country, mr. Grattan remarked, that two hundred members of the house of commons were elected by an hundred individuals. The whole body consists but of three hundred and twenty. Another member, on a late occasion, mentioned a saying of James the first, when he was questioned about the manufacture of rotten boroughs. "What is the matter how many I make? *The more, the merrier.*" On account of this and other abuses, a convention of delegates from the national volunteers assembled at Dublin, on the 10th of November, 1783, and drew up a number of spirited resolutions; but parliament, having declared their determination to defend their own privileges, the affair came to nothing, and several motions to the same effect, which were made in the house of commons, had the same fate. Such abortive attempts at reformation, reflect no honour on the spirit of the nation, which evaporates in mere resolves. Another squabble having happened in the cabinet of St. James's, Northington was recalled, and, on the 24th of February, 1784, the duke of Rutland, the creature of an adverse faction, succeeded him.

In order to interest every part of the community in the renovation of the constitution, and to give an accession of strength to the democracy, an idea of extending

the elective franchise to Roman catholics was very generally entertained; and, at an aggregate meeting of the citizens of Dublin, held on the 7th of June, 1784, amongst other resolutions, expressive of the public opinion, was one, which warmly recommended this idea to their countrymen. To build a liberal system of freedom on its genuine principles, was a design worthy of the friends of liberty and reform. To hold up an example to Europe and the universe of the abolition of those penalties and proscriptions, which have made so many rebels, without finding them so; and of introducing equality and confidence among men of opposite tenets, were motives to animate the mind of every man, sensible to fame, to general happiness, and to virtue.

On the 21st of June, the citizens again assembled, and agreed upon an address to the people of Ireland, and a petition to the king, praying for the dissolution of a parliament which had opposed, with such pertinacious obstinacy, every reasonable requisition of their constituents. The proceedings, in other parts of the kingdom, were in general conformity with those of the metropolis.

The earl of Charlemont had been, since the commencement of volunteering, its principal head and leader. He was called on, as usual, to review the volunteers of Ulster, assembled at Belfast, on the 12th of July,* 1784; and, on that occasion, the officers presented him with an address, in which, among other political observations, suggested by the circumstances of the times, they expressed their satisfaction at the decay of those prejudices, which had so long involved the nation in feuds and disunion; a disunion which, by limiting the rights of suffrage, and circumscribing the number of their citizens, had, in a great degree, created and fostered the aristocratic tyranny, the source of every grievance, and against which, the public voice now unanimously exclaimed.

But this superannuated and illiberal peer proved, by his answer, how ill-founded had been the public opinion respecting him. After acknowledging the merits and the oppression of the catholics, he inconsistently expressed the most marked disapprobation of allowing them any participation in the election franchise, although the most puny politician saw, that the fate of Ireland depended upon union. This answer was either the effect of inveterate bigotry, or of ministerial gold. But whatever might have been its cause, its influence was immediate; and it was employed with wide and malignant effect, by the enemies of parliamentary reform, to foment discord, and excite alarms in the minds of its friends. These endeavours were, alas! but two successful; a new principle was excited in the public mind; and the ultimate miscarriage of parliamentary reformation, is principally imputable to the advantage taken of this unfortunate opposition of sentiment.

On the 20th September, the citizens of Dublin assembled at the Tholsel, to choose their representatives for the approaching meeting of a congress. On this occasion, mr. sheriff Kirkpatrick read a letter, written to him by the attorney-general, threatening him with an official prosecution in the court of king's bench, if he should hold or preside at a meeting held for such a purpose. The assembly accordingly broke up, but met in a few days after, at the Weaver's hall, and, having placed sir Edward Newenham in the chair, they choose their representatives, and passed several resolutions, declaratory of their right to assemble and deliberate for the redress of grievances.

The opposition of administration to the pursuits of the people, was neither to be restrained within the bounds of law, nor repressed from apprehension of their resentment; it was violent, unconstitutional, and oppressive. The high sheriff of the county of Dublin, mr. Reilly, was prosecuted by attachment in the king's bench, and sentenced to fine and imprisonment (29th November, 1784), for having convened his county to elect representatives for the purpose above mentioned;

and similar proceedings were instituted against magistrates in other parts of the kingdom, for the like offences, as they were denominated. About this time, on occasion of inflicting the punishment of whipping on a man, who had been convicted of some unlawful excesses, a few stones were thrown; upon which the military fired, and several innocent persons were killed and wounded. One of the magistrates was much and deservedly blamed for the sanguinary orders given by him to the soldiery on that day.

During several months, the fervour of the public mind was unexampled; and even the theatre became a scene of one of its most ardent ebullitions. The duke of Rutland's appearance there, was attended with the most clamorous execrations, and the interruptions of the drama subsided but with the early dismissal of the audience. When it is considered of how many favourite objects the people had been disappointed, in how many instances they were insulted by the brow of power, and grappled by the arm of the law; that the rights of juries were violated; that the exploded doctrines of the days of tyranny were revived, and attachments assumed the colour of legality, and obtained the acquiescence of parliament; when these causes of indignation are considered, in the calm hour of unruffled reflexion, it will not excite much wonder in the dispassionate mind, if a people, by nature warm and full of sensibility, should rush into the most intemperate expressions of their contempt and abhorrence.

On the 20th of January, 1785, a congress, for the purpose of obtaining a parliamentary reform, assembled in Dublin. The meeting was numerous and respectable. Deputies appeared from the principal parts of the kingdom. They adopted the plan of the convention of 1783; but the fate of the business in parliament was the same as formerly.

In February following, the two houses met, and the duke of Rutland's secretary introduced ten propositions for a commercial adjustment between the two kingdoms. They were agreed to, and sent over to Britain. The clamours of the manufacturers of that country, their lust for monopoly, and their unaccommodating prejudices, were exerted on these propositions, which, in their progress through the British parliament, were entirely changed. They were returned, thus altered, to the parliament of Ireland, in the form of twenty propositions. Administration strained every nerve to force them through the house of commons, and it is an object of surprise, that, on the question for leave to bring in the necessary bills, they succeeded only by a majority of 127 to 108. This majority was so small, that the bills were withdrawn two days after, and sunk into final oblivion. This event gave great satisfaction in both kingdoms.

Ireland has long been distinguished by the misery of the inferior classes of its peasantry, and by those tumults, which are the natural offspring of oppression and despair. It is evidently repugnant to the plainest dictates of justice, to force a person, besides contributing to the support of his own clergy, to pay tithes to a clergyman, whose doctrines he utterly disapproves. In Ireland, the consequences of this system of ecclesiastical rapine, have been more than commonly destructive. Three fourths of the nation consist of Roman catholics; and of the remainder only a small proportion profess the religion of what is termed the established church. Immense sums are therefore raised as salaries to clergymen, while there are few individuals within their respective districts, who ever have heard, or ever will submit to hear, a single sermon from them. The exaction of tithes is almost entirely directed against agriculture. The grazier is exempted; and from the operation of various causes, it has hitherto happened in Ireland, that the graziers are commonly protestants, while the farmers, those who pay tithes, are principally Roman catholics. They are, in general, also a much more indigent rank of men, than the graziers. Here, then, is an example of the very utmost excess of iniquity. The catholic peasant, who is

too often in a state of extreme poverty, pays for the support of an hierarchy, which he can remember by nothing but the blighting ills which it dispenses. He has likewise to defray the expense of his own pastor. The grazier, on the other hand, who is a protestant, and rich, or in tolerable circumstances, pays nothing for the support of a protestant priesthood, of whose church he is frequently a member. The enormous inequality of landed property in Ireland, is another source of calamity. The character of landlords in that country we have already noticed. Thus various and singular circumstances of infelicity, contribute to place the great body of the Irish peasantry in a state of incessant vexation and distress.

The above explanation will account for the disturbances, which, at this time, occurred in the province of Munster. A detail of the proceedings that ensued would be undeserving of its room in this work. The transactions in parliament were of no great importance. On the 25th of October, 1787, the duke of Rutland, lord lieutenant, died the victim of intemperance.—His successor was the marquis of Buckingham.—In February, 1789, this nobleman informed the parliament of Ireland, that George the third had been afflicted with a severe malady. On this intelligence, both houses concurred in resolutions for an address to the prince of Wales, requesting him to assume the government during the illness of his father, with the title of PRINCE REGENT OF IRELAND. This measure was brought forward by a party in opposition, who expected to share the emoluments of the new administration. The lord lieutenant refused to transmit this address, and two peers and four members of the house of commons were entrusted with it. The delegates arrived in London somewhat too late. The king had recovered; but the prince of Wales returned his warmest thanks, and, we dare affirm, with much sincerity, to the delegates, for their readiness to put him in possession of a kingdom.

This session was distinguished by an act of parliament, which was seriously intended to promote the industry and happiness of the kingdom. Two hundred thousand pounds were ordered to be raised for carrying on inland navigation, at the rate of twenty-five thousand pounds per annum. Among these undertakings, the royal canal from the north side of Dublin, has already made a considerable progress. It is intended to open a communication with the Atlantic ocean, which would be of the utmost advantage to the whole island.

Since the affair of the regency, no remarkable event happened in the annals of Ireland, till sometime previous to the commencement of the present war with France. The revolution in the latter country had naturally kindled the hopes of every other oppressed people, and the writings of Mr. Paine, and others, being perused with avidity by all ranks, did not fail to excite and embitter the popular indignation. Measures were soon taken to check this spirit. Government began, as usual in such cases, with editors of newspapers. We have lately seen in an Irish newspaper, a list of about sixteen proprietors of publications of this kind, who are either in jail, or at large upon bail, to stand trial at the instance of the attorney general. The volunteers have been generally disarmed, and a variety of arbitrary acts of parliament have been passed, all tending to rivet the chains of tyranny. A set of oppressed wretches, under the title of defenders, having excited disturbances, were prosecuted, tried, and hanged with uncommon dispatch. This business went on at Dundalk. Some persons were sentenced at six o'clock in the evening, and hanged by candle-light, within two hours after. The judges being fatigued with incessant employment, a counsellor at the bar was sent for, by an express, from Dublin, to act as a judge for the time; a measure which sounds somewhat strangely. At the same time it was generally believed, that government had employed emissaries to commence these commotions, for the sake of an opportunity to employ the regular troops for dispersing them, and thus to obtain a pretence for increasing the standing army, and making what is emphatically termed, a strong government. A society, en-

titled "The United Irishmen," formed at Dublin, has been treated with some severity. Their president, Mr. Simon Butler, and their secretary, Mr. Oliver Bond, have been committed to Newgate for six months, and fined in five hundred pounds each, for publications said to be seditious. The patriots have at last seen their error, in wishing to exclude the Roman Catholics from the advantages of a better government. To unite all sects in opposition to English and domestic despotism, was the avowed design of the "United Irishmen." A bill, by way of soothing the Roman Catholics, has even been suffered to pass in parliament, for granting them leave to vote at elections for representatives in that assembly. This concession has been regarded as of the utmost importance by all parties, but in fact is of none. Two thirds of the members of parliament are either self-elected, or purchase their seats, and carry every question; so that election is altogether a farce, and not worth the expense which it costs the country. In the city of Belfast, various insults have been committed on the inhabitants, by the troops quartered there for the express purpose of preventing a revolt. The house of peers have instituted a committee for enquiring into seditious practices, and they have already committed to prison some persons on very questionable grounds. Their adversaries pronounce that they are at once legislators, judges, and parties. An advertisement to this effect, was, in March last, printed and posted up in the streets of Dublin, and one copy was affixed on the door of the house of peers. An hundred pounds were offered, but in vain, to discover the author of this publication. A French vintner near South George's street in Dublin, fixed up a sign-board, on which was represented the storming of the Bastille. After it had appeared in peace for some months, the proprietor, by a message from the castle, was, in Spring, 1793, compelled to pull it down. It was regarded by the friends of government, as an emblem of sedition.

The war that has lately taken place, has produced the most alarming consequences. By the last accounts from Dublin, at least six or eight thousand manufacturers, in that city alone, and their families, have, in the literal sense of the word, been reduced to beggary. The price of linen cloth is said to have fallen fifty per cent. but this we cannot absolutely affirm to be true. Meetings of the magistrates and others have been held for the sake of affording relief, and the lord lieutenant has bestowed for that purpose, the *vast sum* of an hundred pounds sterling! Commerce is nearly annihilated. In March last, the weekly fees of entry at the custom-house hardly discharged the salaries of the clerks. Since that time, matters are infinitely worse; and every vessel, which arrives from Ireland, announces the progress of universal bankruptcy—a bankruptcy created by a war in which the Irish have no interest, and in which they have been involved without their consent, as has occurred so often before, by their fatal subjection to England, a subjection which has, for a period of five hundred years, operated as the most dreadful scourge to an island as well calculated to promote the happiness of its inhabitants, as perhaps any equal extent of country under the canopy of heaven.

N E T H E R L A N D S.

THE seventeen provinces, known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pays-Bas, or Low Countries, from their situation in respect to Germany.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Length 360 } between { 49 and 54 North lat.
 Breadth 260 } { 77 and 82 East lon. from Philadelphia.

They are bounded by the German sea on the North ; by Germany, East ; by Lorraine and France, South ; and by the British channel, West.

We shall treat of the seventeen provinces under two great divisions : first, the *Northern*, which contains the Seven United Provinces, usually known by the name of HOLLAND : secondly, the *Southern*, containing the Austrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly speaking, eight, viz. Holland, Overijssel, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland, and Zutphen ; but the two latter forming only one sovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Length 150 } between { 51 and 54 North lat.
 Breadth nearly } { 78 and 82 East lon. from Philadelphia.
 the same

The following is the most satisfactory account that we meet with, of their geographical division, including the Texel, and other islands.

United Provinces.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Population.	Chief cities.
Overijssel	1,900	66	50	98,000	Deventer
Holland	1,800	84	52		AMSTERDAM
Guelderland	986	50	40		Nimeguen
Friesland	810	44	34	140,000	Lieuwarden
Zutphen	644	37	33	100,000	Zutphen
Groningen	540	45	37		Groningen
Utrecht	450	41	22		Utrecht
Zealand	303	29	24	85,000	Middleburg
Texel and other islands	113				
Total	7,546				

AIR, SEASONS, SOIL, AND FACE } OF THE COUNTRY. } These provinces lie opposite to England, at the distance of 90 miles, upon the east side of the English channel, and are only a narrow slip of low swampy land, lying between the mouths of several great rivers, and what the industry of the inhabitants has gained from the sea by means of dykes, which they have raised and still support with incredible labour and expense. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and gross, until it is purified by the frost in Winter, when the east wind usually sets in for about four months, and the harbours are frozen. 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 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. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a desirable country to live in, especially to foreigners. There are no mountains nor rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple,

has the appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained at certain distances by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which, in that country, serve as high-roads, are, in the summer months, almost as offensive as stagnated waters.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important consideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largest and finest rivers in Europe; the Maese, the Scheld, and the Vecht. There are many small rivers that join these, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the best are those of Rotterdam, Helvoetfluis, and Flushing; that of Amsterdam, though one of the largest and safest in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large vessels cannot pass without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS } The quantity of grain produced here
BY SEA AND LAND. } is not sufficient for home consumption; but, by draining their bogs and marshes, they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Danish cattle to a vast size; and they make prodigious quantities of butter and cheese. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, some fruit and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber used there, and indeed most of the comforts, and even the necessities 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 those of any other nation in Europe. Storks build and hatch on their chimnies; but, being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return in the February following. The river-fish are much the same as those of England; but their sea-fish are generally larger, owing perhaps, to their fishing in deeper water. With respect to their fish, no nation in the world is so delicate. The greatest care is taken to preserve them alive. A burgher of Amsterdam would disdain to taste fish, that had not come in that state into his kitchen. 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 of their country, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessities and comforts of life, and upon as easy terms, as any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } The seven United Provinces are, per-
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } haps, the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contain, according to the best accounts, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions of inhabitants; besides the twenty-five towns, and the people in the lands of the generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands.* The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch, 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 so much intersected, require unceasing labour to keep them in repair. Their principal food they draw from the sea by their herring-fisheries; for they dispose of the chief part of their more 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. They are quiet neighbours and peaceable subjects. They have never effected a change of government, but when they thought themselves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active, when they find their interest at stake; witness their sea wars with England and France. In the memorable battle off the Dogger bank, in the last war, their intrepid conduct fully proved, that

* Monf. de Wit, at the beginning of this century, computed the people of the United Provinces at 2,500,000; but Mr. Templeman estimates them only at 2,000,000; which, in proportion to the population of England, is more than six to one, considering the extent of the country.

they have in no degree degenerated from the valour of their ancestors. Their peasants are slow of understanding, but tractable. Their seamen are a plain, blunt, but rough sort of people. Their tradesmen, in general, are honest in their dealings, and far from loquacious. 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 less sociable. The Dutch, like the English and most other commercial nations, have been known abroad to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest, 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 tipping and drinking ascribed to both sexes, it is chargeable, in a great measure, to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions, avarice excepted, seem to run lower and cooler here than in most other countries. Their tempers are hardly airy enough for joy, or any unusual strains of pleasant humour, nor, in general, warm enough for love; so that the softer passions seem to be no natives of that country; and love itself is said to be little more 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; for, to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they in general unite the necessary science of preserving it. It is a kind of rule for every man to spend less than his income, be that what it will; and it is rare, that the common course of expenses equals the revenue; when this happens, they think that at least they have lived for one year to no purpose; the report of this 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 luxury and extravagance have been gaining ground 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, except America, can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants, who enjoy at least a comfortable sufficiency; and no where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midst of immense taxes and contributions, such as no other country, except England, experiences, they flourish and grow rich. From this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous work of draining their country of those immense deluges of water, that had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages; while, at the same time, they brought under their subjection and command, the rivers and seas that surround them, by dykes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks, on which they rely for the protection and safety of their territories against the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inaccessible. Their frugality and perseverance enabled them, 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 her expense, and thereby becoming, from a petty 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 80 ships of the line. But a spirit of frugality being now less universal among them, the rich traders and me-

chanics begin to emulate the luxuries of the English and French dressing and living ; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, equal those of any other part of Europe in their living, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch are bowls, billiards, tennis, chess, and angling, in Summer ; and, in Winter, shooting wild geese and Ducks, and skating, in which latter they are very expert. Men and women dart forward with astonishing velocity, frequently with heavy loads on their heads. The principal people seat themselves in sledges, which are pushed forward with great swiftness, by a man placed behind them.

[DRESS.] Their dress formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men ; and the jerkins, plain mobs, short petticoats, and other oddities of the women : which gave them a grotesque appearance. These dresses now prevail only among the lower ranks, and particularly amongst the sea-faring people. The higher ranks follow the fashions in France and England.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, } Amsterdam, which is built upon piles
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } of wood, is thought to contain 241,000
people, and to be, next to London, the most commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almost beyond description. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under the trees planted on their borders, is admirable ; but above all, we are struck with the neatness and cleanliness that are every where observable within doors : this city, however, labours under two great disadvantages ; bad air, and the want of fresh, wholesome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preserve the rain-water in reservoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amsterdam for commerce and wealth : its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the seat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the resort of foreign ambassadors and strangers of all ranks, who live in it, the abundance and cheapness of its provisions, and the politeness of its inhabitants, who are computed at 40,000. Leyden and Utrecht are elegant cities, and famous for their universities. Saardam, a village in North Holland, contains about 900 wind-mills ; partly corn-mills, partly saw and paper-mills, and mills for the making of white lead, &c. It is a wealthy trading place, and in it was the workshop where Peter, the czar of Muscovy, served his apprenticeship to ship-building, and laboured as a common artisan. The upper part of Guelderland, and the capital city, Gelder, are subject to Prussia.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND } The usual way of passing from town to
MANNER OF TRAVELLING. } town is by covered boats, called track-
schuyts, which are dragged along 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 is convenient, and very cheap. By means of these canals an extensive land commerce is carried on through the whole country ; and, as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the rest of the world are conveyed at a small expense into various parts of Germany, and the Austrian and French Netherlands. A canal boat is divided into two different apartments, the one for gentlemen, and the other for common people. Near Amsterdam and other large cities, a traveller is delighted with beholding the effects of an extensive and flourishing commerce. Here the canals are lined, for miles together, with elegant country-houses, seated in the midst of gardens and pleasure-grounds, adorned with figures, busts, statues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects for amusement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families, in fair weather, spend much of their time there smoking, reading, or viewing the passengers, to whom they appear complaisant and polite.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] An account of the Dutch commerce would

comprehend that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they do not carry on, or a state to which they do not trade. In this, they are assisted by the populousness of their country, their industry and frugality, and, above all, by the water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond most other nations. The United Provinces are the grand magazine of Europe; and goods may be sometimes purchased there, cheaper than in the countries whence they are exported. Their East-India company has had the monopoly of the fine spices for more than an hundred years, and, till the late war 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 other cities of Asia. There the viceroys appear in greater splendour, than the stadtholder assumes in Holland: and some of the Dutch in Batavia scarcely acknowledge any dependence on Holland. Among the monopolies of the East-India company, the spice-trade, comprehending the articles of cloves, mace, nutmeg, cinnamon, &c. is the most valuable, and forms a very great branch of the Asiatic as well as European commerce of Holland: 150,000lbs. of cloves are annually sold in India, and 360,000 carried to Europe. The company pay on the spot only eight stivers per pound; but the freight and other charges raise this price to forty-three; and the company sell it at no less than seventy-five. Of nutmeg, the produce of the island of Banda, 250,000lbs. are sold in Europe, and 100,000 in India: the prime cost is somewhat more than one stiver per pound: including charges, the pound stands the company in about twenty-five stivers; and is sold by them at upwards of fifty stivers, west of the Cape of Good Hope; and at about forty stivers, east of it. In India 200,000lbs. of cinnamon are sold, and 400,000 in Europe. The company, to their eternal reproach, frequently destroy immense quantities of these valuable spices, to prevent their exorbitant price from falling in the market. The Java coffee is the best, except that of Mecca, in Arabia. Other great branches of this trade are rice, cotton, pepper, &c. articles of great importance, but not in the exclusive possession of the Dutch. They have other settlements in India, but none so pleasant, healthful, or useful, as that on the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendezvous for ships of all nations, outward or homeward bound. When Louis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made some preparations to ship themselves off to their settlements in India, so great was their aversion to the French government. Their herring and whale fisheries are carried on to considerable extent. They excel at home in numberless branches of trade; such as their pottery, tobacco pipes, delf-ware, refined salt; their oil-mills, and starch-manufactures; their improvements of the raw linen thread of Germany; their hemp, and fine paper manufactures; and fine linen and table damasks; their saw-mills for timber, either for shipping or houses, in immense quantities; their great sugar-baking; their vast woollen, cotton and silk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dressing, &c.

This country affords a striking proof, that unwearied and persevering industry is capable of conquering every disadvantage of climate and situation. The possession of the very soil is disputed by the ocean, which, rising considerably above the level of the land, can only be prevented by strong and expensive dykes, from overflowing a spot which seems to be wrested from its natural domains. Notwithstanding these difficulties, which might appear insurmountable to a less laborious race of inhabitants, the incessant efforts of the indefatigable Dutch, have rendered this small and seemingly insignificant territory, in fact, one of the richest spots in Europe, both with respect to population and property. In other countries, which are possessed of a variety of natural productions, we are not surprised to find manufactures employed in multiplying the riches which the bounty of the soil bestows. But to see, in a country like Holland, large woollen manufactures, where there are scarcely any

flocks ; numberless artists employed in metals, where there is no mine ; thousands of saw-mills where there is scarcely any forest ; an immense quantity of corn, exported from a country, where there is not agriculture enough to support one half of its inhabitants, must strike every attentive observer with admiration. Their commerce, navigation, manufactures, and fisheries, are not in the same flourishing state now, as at the beginning of this century ; the riches and luxury of individuals have damped the general industry of the inhabitants. Notwithstanding their uniform caution, their public debt is great, and the taxes necessary to discharge the interest of it, have greatly impeded the progress of their prosperity. Their commerce hath greatly suffered since their rupture with England.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of these, the principal is the East-India, incorporated in 1602, by which the Dutch formerly acquired immense wealth, having divided forty per cent. and sometimes sixty, about the year 1660 ; at present the dividends are much reduced ; but, in an hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors averaged above twenty-four per cent. annually. So late as the year 1760, they divided fifteen per cent. but the Dutch West-India company, the same year, divided no more than two and a half per cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amsterdam is reported to be inexhaustibly rich, and is under an excellent direction : it has been said 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 is so far from paying any interest, that the money in it is worth something more than current cash, in common payments. Mr. Anderson supposes that the cash, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which are kept in the vaults of the stadthouse, amount to thirty-six millions sterling ; others lessen this sum to thirty millions, which is most probably far beyond the truth.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the presbyterian or Calvinistic ; none but presbyterians are admitted into any office or post in the government, except the army ; yet all religious sects are tolerated, and have their respective meetings or assemblies for public worship, among which the Roman catholics and Jews are very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be considered as a striking instance of the benefits arising to a nation from universal toleration. As every man is allowed to worship God according to the dictates of his own conscience, persons of the most opposite opinions live together in harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reason to complain of being oppressed on account of his religious principles, nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to 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 the 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 enquiry.

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.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Erasmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, stand almost at the head of modern learning, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem 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, in the early ages of printing, came from the Dutch presses of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch, like their neighbours, have been infatuated by unmeaning controversies on divinity, which prevailed so much in the state, that, before the principles of universal toleration were established, they 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 the branches of medicine. Grævius and Burmann are ranked among their learned commentators upon the classics. Their Latin poems and epigrams are numerous. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and arise chiefly from their employments in universities, church, or state.

UNIVERSITIES.] These are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and 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, has two thousand oriental manuscripts, many of which are in Arabic; and a large sphere, adapted to the Copernican system, and moving by clock-work. Here is also a physic-garden, and an anatomical theatre. The university of Utrecht, in the province of the same name, 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. The number of students is generally seven or eight hundred in each of the universities of Leyden and Utrecht: in the other three, they are not so numerous. These seminaries of learning have each three or four divinity professors, as many of physic, and two or three of law; besides others of history, languages, and eloquence, or the *belles lettres*, and others of philosophy, mathematics, the Greek and Roman antiquities, and the Hebrew and Oriental languages. The professors in the universities of Holland are often men of learning and eminence; as there is a kind of emulation between the states of the different provinces, which shall have the greatest men to adorn their universities, and attract most students from all parts of Europe to enrich their towns: and, therefore, they are ready to afford very liberal encouragement to able professors, who are often invited from the universities of Germany. 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 expenses, or so much as quitting his night gown for weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be seen here. The force of example is strikingly exhibited at these universities: for, frugality in expense, order, a composed behaviour, attention to study, and assiduity in all things, being the characteristics of the natives, strangers, who continue among them, soon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the students live as they please, and study as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their sobriety and good manners, and the assiduity and success with which they apply themselves to their studies. No oaths are imposed, nor religious tests; so that Roman catholic parents, and even Jews, send their children here, with as little scruple as protestants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL } The prodigious dykes, some of
AND ARTIFICIAL. } which are said to be 17 ells in thickness; mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so severely, are stupendous and hardly to be equalled. A stone quarry near Maastricht, 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. There are several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden.

GOVERNMENT.] It is not easy to give a satisfactory account of this subject. The states-general have been termed a republic; yet this word admits of very different significations. Mr. Adams, in his book upon government, says, that "the Hollanders

had no democratical mixture in their constitution ; entirely aristocratical ; and preserved from tyranny and destruction, partly by a stadtholder, partly by the people in mobs ; but more especially by the number of independent cities and sovereignties associated together, and the great multitude of persons concerned in the government, and composing the sovereignty, four or five thousand ; and finally by the unanimity that is required in all transactions." If this was the former state of government in the United Provinces, it is not likely to have been much improved in point of freedom, since it was last settled, in 1787, at the point of the Prussian bayonet. With regard to this part of our work, we have, among other sources, consulted De la Croix, as he is perhaps the latest writer on the subject. His remarks are too diffuse for insertion, and too indistinct and incomplete to admit of a satisfactory abridgment. That the stadtholder acquired a great accession of power at the late surrender of Amsterdam, is naturally to be supposed ; but still a great share of aristocracy prevails in the government.

There is something very intricate in the constitution of the United Provinces. They all, indeed, form a general confederacy ; and the statutes made in the assembly of the states, after they have acquired the necessary sanctions, become binding on all the inhabitants of the seven provinces. But, notwithstanding this particular, each province has a separate internal government, wholly independent of the others ; but as these independent governments, considered separately, could not defend themselves against the attempts of a foreign enemy, they are formed into one collective body, by a certain number of deputies or representatives chosen by each, who constitute the legislative authority, and are termed " the States-general." Their power is, however, in some respects limited ; for, when a resolution is taken by the states, it has not the force of a law, till it has received the approbation of every province, every city, and every republic in that province ; nor is even a majority of voices in these different and subordinate assemblies sufficient : it must be entirely approved ; one dissenting voice being able to render the whole abortive. In times of imminent danger, indeed, these tedious formalities are commonly laid aside, and the approbation of the states-general is allowed to be sufficient.

It has been already observed, that the states-general consist of deputies, or delegates from every province. The whole number is usually from thirty to forty-five members. No distinction of rank is observed among them. They sit continually ; and each member presides in turn for one week. Thus there are no cabals, no secret combinations formed to obtain the dignity of president, nor for excluding certain individuals from the chair.

The stadtholder may present himself before the states-general, whenever he is disposed to make any proposition tending to the advantage of the republic ; but he has no right to sit there as a member ; nor is any particular place assigned for him. When he has made his proposal, the states ask his opinion, which he gives. He then retires, that they may take the business into consideration. William the third, who, after he became king of England, retained the office of stadtholder, had a chair of state prepared for his reception, when he went to the assembly. This innovation was admitted out of respect to his title of king ; but, since his death, this mark of distinction has not been revived.

The equestrian order of each province, composed of nobles, forms a distinct body, which always deputed one of its members to the states-general.

The deputies of the provinces, those of Zealand only excepted, who are *chosen for life*, are recalled, some at the expiration of three years, some not till six ; but they are always appointed with this proviso, that their constituents *may recal them whenever they please*, in case of malversation or deviation from their instructions.

Some provinces send two deputies, others more ; but the number of deputies does not increase the number of voices in the assembly ; each province having only

one vote in the determination of any question that comes before the states-general.

The deputies of eighteen cities, and one representative of the nobility, constitute the states of the province of Holland: these eighteen cities, though all situated in that province, are separate, and, what the Dutch call, *independent* republics. The legislative power of Amsterdam is lodged in thirty-six senators, who continue members for life; and when one dies, the vacancy is *filled up by the survivors*! This senate also appoints the deputies to represent the eighteen cities of the province of Holland, in the assembly of states-general; so that *the people of these* INDEPENDENT REPUBLICS, as they are usually stiled, *have no voice in electing any of the deputies, or even of their own magistrates.*

Next in authority to the states-general, is the council of state, consisting of deputies from the several provinces. The greater part of these deputies sit for three years only, and their respective states can at *any time recal them*. This council is composed of twelve persons, besides a secretary and a treasurer, who are consulted, but do not vote. Of the twelve members, Holland sends three, Guelderland two, Zealand two, Utrecht two, Friesland one, Overijssel one, and Groningen one. In this council the votes are not taken by provinces, as in the states-general, but by personal voices, and every deputy presides in his turn. When the stadtholder assists at the council, he acts as president, and, when the votes happen to be equal, has a casting voice. The business of this council consists in preparing estimates, finding out ways and means for raising the public revenue, and preparing other matters necessary to be laid before the states-general.

Subordinate to these bodies is the chamber of accounts, which is also composed of provincial deputies, who audit all the public accounts. The admiralty forms a separate board; and the executive part of it is committed to five colleges, in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland.

The office of grand pensionary is, in Holland, next in consequence to that of stadtholder. This minister is keeper of the seals, and has a seat among the states-general. This important commission is conferred only for five years; but, unless a political misunderstanding occurs, it is commonly continued for life. To the pensionary foreign ambassadors address themselves on all matters of mere form. He maintains the correspondence of the republic with foreign courts, and, as he ought to make himself acquainted with their secrets, the republic allows him the disposal of an hundred thousand florins per annum, of which he is not required to give any account. This office has more than once been fatal to its possessor.

We do not offer these particulars to the reader, as an accurate delineation of the constitution of the seven United Provinces. Authentic materials for this purpose cannot easily be found. From what has been above stated, it will be evidently seen, that this republic cannot claim the praise of a regular and well-digested system of government. But the good sense of the people, a faculty, for which they have always been distinguished, has obviated, in *practice*, many of its defects in *theory*.

REVENUES.] The United Provinces proportion their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. These taxes consist of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, hearth-money, and other taxes, which, in number, almost exceed the power of figures. Temple says, that a plate of fish, bought in the market, has paid 30 successive taxes before it reached the table. The public income amounts to about four millions and a half sterling. The province of Holland pays nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the seven United Provinces is said to contribute towards the public expense:

Of every million of ducats, the province of Holland contributes	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Friesland	170,000

Utrecht	—	—	—	85,000
Groningen	—	—	—	75,000
Guelderland	—	—	—	70,000
Overyffel	—	—	—	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 numerous, that a certain author with reason asserts, that the only thing which has escaped taxation, is the air they breathe. But, for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandize are low. The Dutch lend large sums to most of the powers of Europe, as well as to the United States of America.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces, in time of peace, commonly amounts to about 40,000; 25,000 of whom serve in garrisons; many of them are Swiss. During war, they hire whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army is vested in the stadtholder, under whom is the field-marshal general. The United Provinces formerly fitted out very formidable fleets; but their navy has of late been much neglected. Their late war with Britain obliged them to increase it; and they have great resources for that purpose. According to the last accounts, their navy consists of one ship of 76 guns, three of 70, four of 68, five of 60, eight of 56, four of 50, five of 44, nine of 40, and ten of 36, besides vessels of inferior force. But they have many ships upon the stocks, and their fleet will, probably, be much augmented, and, in future, be kept in better order.

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 æra, the Batæ removed from Hesse to the marshy district bounded by the Rhine and the Maese. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. The Batavians were treated by the Romans with great respect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military services. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, the Goths, and other northern people, possessed themselves of these provinces first, as they passed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the empire. Batavia and Holland became independent of Germany, to which they had been united under one of the grandsons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the supreme authority was lodged in the three united powers of a count, the nobles, and the towns. At last they were engrossed 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, and occasioned a general insurrection. The counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appeared 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 malecontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquisition, which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the *council of blood*, in order to suppress them; and many thousands were put to death by that court, besides those who perished by the sword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom the people 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 revoltors, at first, were thought so despicable, as to be termed *beggars* by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage were such, under the prince of Orange, and the assistance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, was so decisive, that they compelled the crown of Spain to declare them a free people; in

the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent state, under the title of THE UNITED PROVINCES. By their wars at sea with England, under the commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II. they justly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the house of Austria, which, for some ages, had ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealousy was directed against that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had dispossessed the prince of Orange of the stadtholdership; the spirit of the people was such, that they revived it in the person of William, who was afterwards king of Britain. During his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the confederacy against Lewis XIV.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756 hath been discussed in the history of that country; as also the occurrences which led to a rupture between them and the English, in the year 1780. As they refused to fulfil the treaties which subsisted between them and Britain, so all those which bound Britain to them, were declared null and void.

It is not difficult to explain the causes of the insignificance of the Dutch during this war. They are to be traced to the treachery of the stadtholder; and here a short retrospect becomes necessary. On the death of William the third, in 1702, that office had been suppressed, and remained in disuse for a course of forty-five years. But the regency of the republic, who succeeded to his authority, had committed great abuses. They had exalted an aristocracy on the ruins of the office of stadtholder. The burgomasters had become so corrupt, as to farm out the taxes, and afterwards take a share in the bargain. The natural consequence was, that, as the profits were their own, they studied nothing more than to increase them, and directed the collection of the taxes in the most severe and oppressive manner. This conduct convinced the people, that if the chief, whom they had lost, was sometimes despotic, a thousand tyrants had sprung up in his stead; who displayed on every occasion an odious and humiliating authority. The pleasure of overturning these oppressors bewildered the minds of the multitude. In 1747, they placed William of Nassau in the seat of authority. A party in favour of his family had always existed; and the despotism of the burgomasters turned the torrent of popular opinion into that channel. That prince, who had done nothing to serve the republic, obtained from the thoughtless servility of the people, more unbounded prerogatives annexed to his office, than had been possessed by the most ambitious and popular chiefs of the house of Orange. His appointments were *declared to be hereditary in favour of his posterity; and even daughters, in default of male issue, were to be admitted to the enjoyment of them.*

The new stadtholder did not display an exuberance of gratitude to his benefactors. He sold offices and employments. He caused himself to be named director-general of the India company. He appropriated to himself a part of their dividends. He neglected the support of the marine, and of the fortifications of the frontier towns. Like most monarchs, he reigned only for his minions and for himself. No friend to mankind could lament his death, which happened in the year 1751.

His wife, a daughter of George the second, was appointed governess during the minority of her son William the fifth, who is now stadtholder. Lewis, duke of Brunswic, was declared commander in chief of the forces. Holland retained nothing of a republic, but the name. Brunswic filled its army with a multitude of foreigners; introduced new maxims into the service, and, by every possible expedient, detached the troops from the interest of their country. But the stadtholder himself was a good-natured and indolent man, addicted to the pleasures of the table; and, till the year 1781, he was beloved and respected by the Hol-

landers. All their hatred was levelled against the duke of Brunswic. When France had determined to assist the United States of North America, she naturally became solicitous to engage the Dutch in the same quarrel. In consequence of her intrigues, operating with other causes, the duke was expelled, and the war was begun. But, though the stadtholder could not prevent those measures on the part of Holland, which produced hostilities, yet he had sufficient authority or resources of some kind, to hinder the republic from a proper exertion of her strength. Abusing his trust as high admiral, he impeded, as far as he could, the equipment of a squadron, which was destined to protect the commerce of his country against the fleets of England. When informed of the vigorous resistance made by Admiral Zoutman, in the action with sir Peter Parker, he was so far from sharing in the general exultation, that he could not dissemble his vexation. *At least*, said he, *the English are not beaten*. With such a supreme magistrate, it was not wonderful that the Dutch were every where defeated, or that their trade suffered extensive losses. At the subsequent peace, every place which had been taken from them, was restored, except Negapatnam.

Probably, to their separation from Britain, may be attributed the late differences between the states-general and the emperor of Germany, who, from the exhausted state of several of the European powers, seemed to have a 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 now he seemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their respective nations was proposed to the states; but, before this could take place, he began to commit some acts of hostility, and extend his dominions a small degree by way of preliminary. Two small forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were seized upon, as well as some part of the marshes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. As a prelude to the negotiations, he demanded that the Dutch guardship should be removed from before fort Lillo, in acknowledgment that one of his prerogatives was the free navigation of the Scheld. This being complied with, the negotiations were opened at Brussels, on the 24th of April, 1784, when several other demands of small portions of territory, and little sums of money, were made; the most material requisition being the town of 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 23d 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 Scheld, in both its branches, to the sea; and, as a proof of his confidence in the good intentions of the states, he determined to consider the river, as open from the date of that paper. Any insult on his flag, in the execution of these purposes, he would conclude to be a direct act of hostility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic. In consequence of this obstinacy, Joseph sent some ships up the Scheld to Antwerp; but the Dutch stopped them on their passage, and answered his complaints and menaces by a manifesto. In this they plainly proved, what had never been doubted by any body, that the demands of Joseph were in contradiction to a series of the most solemn treaties. They might have added, that neither Joseph, nor his predecessors, would have enjoyed the sovereignty of these provinces, but for the interposition of the states-general. They reminded the emperor, that his ancestor, Charles the sixth, had obtained possession of this part of the Netherlands, by two different treaties, concluded, the first on the 11th of April, 1713, and the second on the 14th of November, 1715, upon the express condition, that the Scheld should continue to be shut up, and that

the barrier towns should be maintained in a state of defence. From this incontrovertible state of facts, the ingratitude and treachery of Joseph stand in a very striking point of view.

Great preparations were made for immediate hostilities against the Dutch ; and several hundreds of the Imperialists, with some field pieces, advancing towards the counterscarp 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 flat country round the forts on the Scheld, 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 negociators and mediators ; and succeeded in effecting a reconciliation.

During the progress of their contentions with the emperor, the Dutch were greatly distressed by the most unhappy animosities among themselves. Of the origin of these discontents, we have already taken some notice. The continued series of losses, which they had sustained in the late war with Britain, was disgraceful to the republic. All her settlements in the West-Indies had fallen into the hands of the British without resistance ; her ships had been captured, and her trade ruined ; while the disasters of the war excited the animosities of the two factions against each other to the highest degree. The patriots, or aristocratic party, attributed these defects to the stadtholder, who, as we have before observed, had discovered his predilection for the English at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very justly reverted. They accused him of having advised the aggression of the English, and of contributing to their success by treachery. The evident inequality of the struggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards and arsenals of the republic, the frequent and public representations made by the prince and by the council of state, on the subject of that deficiency, were forgotten ; and the wilful misconduct of the stadtholder was boldly alleged by the patriots, as the sole cause of that succession of defeats and disgraces, which immediately followed the commencement of hostilities. Whilst these were the recriminations of the patriots, the monarchical, or Orange party, accused their antagonists of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

The alterations in the Dutch constitution projected by the patriots, were as follow : “ That the *forms* of the present government should continue to subsist, but that the states should become, in every respect, completely independent of the stadtholder ; and that, for this purpose, he should no longer enjoy a seat in any of the colleges in the republic. That the stadtholder’s right of recommending candidates for the vacant magistracies in the towns of Holland, should cease. That the offices of stadtholder and captain-general should, if possible, be separated and conferred on different persons ; or that, at least, the titles only should be reserved to the prince of Orange, and the offices be executed, as in the time of the De Witts, by deputies chosen for the purpose. In general, that the stadtholder should possess such powers only, as might enable him to execute the orders of the states ; that the hereditary stadtholderate should continue in the prince of Orange, on his acceptance of these terms ; but that, in case of his refusal, the different states should be at liberty to elect another stadtholder.”

In the assembly of the states, it was contended, that the states themselves were proper sovereigns of the country, that the stadtholder was no more than their servant, and that whatever powers they might communicate to him, were revocable at pleasure ; but with regard to the garrison of the Hague in particular, they affirmed that the provincial states had never given it into his hands. In pursuance of this idea, it was next directed, that, on the commencement of the year 1786, the arms of the house of Orange should be taken out of the ensigns of the troops of Holland, and those of the province substituted in their room ; that the president of the

provincial states should, on all occasions, receive the military honours and salute from the garison of the Hague, as the president of the states already did ; and that no other officer of the province should be entitled to that distinction. The next steps were, to dismiss the body-guards of the prince, though this was afterwards qualified by allowing them to extinguish themselves, and to enlist no more in the room of those who died.

These proceedings were by no means agreeable to the inhabitants of the Hague, who had always shown the greatest attachment to the stadtholder ; and they soon prepared a petition to the states of Holland, requesting them to interpose their good offices with the prince of Orange, to induce him to return from Breda, to which he had retired on the 14th of September, 1785, to the place of his usual residence. The states, however, suppressed this petition, as soon as they knew that it existed ; and the affairs of the stadtholder appeared to be in the most desperate situation.

The new king of Prussia offered his mediation ; but, that being refused, he applied to the court of France, to know whether they would co-operate with him in his pacific intention. On receiving a favourable answer to this, both monarchs united their efforts to reconcile the contending parties ; but all in vain ; so that their ambassadors departed from the Hague, in the month of January, 1787.

This unfortunate event produced various accusations against, and vindications of the two parties, with a long train of negotiations, resolutions, and animosities, until, at last, in the month of May, the stadtholder gave orders to seize on Vreeswick, a post of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its situation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland ; containing also the sluices by which both the provinces might be overflowed. This occasioned a skirmish between the troops of the stadtholder and the burgeses of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other hostilities took place ; but, while the military operations were carried on in a languid manner, a violent tumult took place at Amsterdam, excited as usual, by the partisans of the stadtholder, in which several persons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of most of the regular troops of Holland, who deserted to the stadtholder. But, notwithstanding this advantage, and some others which afterwards took place, the dispute still continued with extreme violence, inasmuch that the princess of Orange herself was seized, and detained a prisoner one night by the patriots.

In this important stage of the dispute, the French made some dispositions, as if they meant to interfere ; and De la Croix affirms, as a fact, which is since, certainly known, that the Prussian forces, who soon after terminated the struggle, had received orders to proceed no longer than while no French army resisted their passage. The disjunction of Holland from the interest of England would have been a deep, and perhaps a mortal blow to her tyranny over the ocean ; but France, at the time when the last exertions were required, and with confidence expected, by her Dutch partisans, shrunk from the combat. By the most wretched dissipation, she had been reduced to the verge of that temporary bankruptcy, which has since overturned her government. England fitted out a naval armament, and threatened her with an instant declaration of hostilities. Besides, the insurgents of the United Provinces were divided among themselves. One party wished to restore an aristocracy. A second had sprung up within its bosom, which panted for a democratical form of government. The stadtholder still possessed a numerous band of adherents, prompt, when an opportunity should present itself, to throng around the standard of despotism. On contemplating every circumstance, the ministry of France determined to desert their allies, and leave these commotions to be settled by the king of Prussia. For this purpose, the same duke of Brunswic, who has since become so unfortunately famous by his expedition into France, conducted an army

of Prussians into the territories of the United Provinces, and took possession of the city of Rotterdam, and some other places, without resistance. This overawed both parties to such a degree, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the states of Holland. By this the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guaranteed the stadtholdership, as well as the hereditary government of each province, in the house of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives settled in the years 1747 and 1748; by which all attempts to disturb the domestic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, were guarded against by the close union that subsists between these two powers.

Here we shall conclude the history of the Seven United Provinces, whose inhabitants so gloriously distinguished themselves in the cause of liberty. Their vigorous and successful struggles in this noble contest, against the tyranny and ferocious bigotry of Philip II. will be always remembered with pleasure, whilst men have a just sense of the natural rights and liberties of mankind, which will be, it is hoped, so long as human nature exists. A variety of causes have involved the states-general in the present war with France, so powerfully supported by half the sovereigns of Europe against that formidable but infant republic. Had the irruption of Dumourier been commenced with equal vigour, at a more early period, there seems to be little doubt, that the Dutch government would have undergone a fresh revolution. It would be superfluous to attempt, in this place, to give a satisfactory detail of the transactions of the present war. A cloud of obscurity hangs over some parts of it, which a few months will most probably dispel. Under the head of *France* we shall endeavour to present a succinct narrative of this contest, as far as it affects Holland; an undertaking, which, in the midst of a very bloody campaign, would be imperfect, or rather impracticable, while events the most various and important, are every moment bursting into birth.

A U S T R I A N A N D F R E N C H N E T H E R L A N D S.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	200	} between	{ 49 and 52 north lat.
Breadth	200		{ 2 and 7 east long. from Lon. and 77 and 82 from Philadelphia.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the United Provinces, on the north; by Germany, east; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, south; and by another part of Picardy, and the English sea, west.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Austrians, French, and Dutch, we shall be more particular in distinguishing the provinces and towns belonging to each state.

1. Province of B R A B A N T.

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.		Sq. M.	
1. Dutch Brabant	}	Boisleduc,	} N.	1374
		Breda,		
		Bergen-op-Zoom,		
		Grave, N. E.	} N. W.	
		Lillo, Steenbergen.		

Subdivisions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
2. Austrian Brabant	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Brussels, E. long. from London, 4 deg.} \\ \text{6 min. N. lat. 50-50.} \\ \text{Louvain} \\ \text{Vilvorden} \\ \text{Landen.} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{in the middle.} \end{array}$	1892

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though furrounded by it, and subject to the house of Austria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Chief towns.	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Limburg, E. long. 6-5. N. lat. 50-37,} \\ \text{subject to Austria.} \\ \text{Maastricht,} \\ \text{Dalem,} \\ \text{Fauquemont, or} \\ \text{Valkenburgh.} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{subject to the} \\ \text{Dutch.} \end{array}$	<p>312</p> <p>300</p>
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5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Austrian Luxemburg	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Luxemburg, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat.} \\ \text{49-45.} \end{array} \right\}$	
French Luxemburg	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Thionville,} \\ \text{Montmedy.} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{S. E.} \end{array}$	<p>2408</p> <p>292</p>

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, subject to Austria.

Chief towns.	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Namur, on the Sambre and Maese, E.} \\ \text{lon. 4-50. N. lat. 50. 30.} \\ \text{Charleroy on the Sambre.} \end{array} \right\}$	425
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7. Province of HAINAULT.

Austrian Hainault	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Mons, E. lon. 3-33 N. lat.} \\ \text{50-30.} \\ \text{Aeth} \\ \text{Enguien} \\ \text{Valenciennes} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{in the} \\ \text{middle.} \end{array}$	640
French Hainault	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Bouchain} \\ \text{Conde} \\ \text{Landrecy.} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{S. W.} \end{array}$	800

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Cambrai, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15.} \\ \text{N. lat. 50-15.} \\ \text{Crevecoeur, S. of Cambrai.} \end{array} \right\}$	150
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9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France	$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon.} \\ \text{2-5. N. lat. 50-20.} \\ \text{St. Omer, E. of Boulogne} \\ \text{Aire, S. of St. Omer} \\ \text{St. Venant, E. of Aire} \\ \text{Bethune, S. E. of Aire} \\ \text{Terouen, S. of St. Omer.} \end{array} \right\}$	990
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ners are said to be not so refined as those of their neighbours, the French. Formerly they fought desperately in defence of their country; and also lately against Joseph II. The Austrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them, at a medium, at a million and a half. They are uncultivated, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diversions are the same with those of the peasants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of French Flanders imitate the French in both these particulars. The Flemings, on the Frontiers of Holland, dress like the Dutch peasants, and their language is the same; but the higher ranks of people speak French, and dress in the same taste.

RELIGION.] The established religion here is the Roman catholic; but Protestants, and other sects, are not molested.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics are Cambray, and Malines or Mechlin; the bishoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras, Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremond.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, } AND ARTISTS. } The society of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian low countries, in which they had many opulent establishments. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Fiamingo, or the Flemings' models for heads, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities in this country are those of Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer's. 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 has the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right it still possesses, except in Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATU- } RAL AND ARTIFICIAL } Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in these provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are also found there; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins and ancient medals of Antonius Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

CITIES.] This article has employed several large volumes, published by different authors; but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contain the circuit of ten miles; but the town is now thinly inhabited. Bruges, formerly so noted for its trade and manufactures, but, above all, for its fine canals, is now reduced to an inconsiderable place. Ostend is a tolerably convenient harbour; and, soon after the late rupture between Britain and Holland, became opulent and populous. In 1781, it was visited by the emperor, who granted it many privileges and franchises, and the free exercise of the protestant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a strong garrison town. The same may be said of Charleroy and Namur, which lie in the Austrian Hainault.

Louvain, the capital of Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourishing manufactories and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Brussels retains somewhat of its ancient manufacture; and, being the residence of the governor or viceroy of the Austrian Netherlands, is a populous, lively 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 exploits 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 stones, in the mouth of the Scheld; thus shutting up the entrance of that river to ships of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow-sufferers in the cause of liberty; but they foresaw that the prosperity of their own commerce was at stake.

It may be observed, that almost every gentleman's house here, is a castle or *chateau*; and that there are as many strong towns in the Netherlands as in all the rest of Europe; but, since the decline of their trade, through the prosperity of that of England and Holland, these towns are considerably diminished in size, and whole streets, particularly in Antwerp, are, in appearance, uninhabited. In the Netherlands, provisions are extremely good and cheap. A stranger may dine, in Brussels, on seven or eight dishes of meat, for less than a quarter dollar. Travelling is safe, reasonable, and delightful in this luxuriant country. The roads are generally a broad causeway, and run, for some miles, in a straight line, till they terminate with the view of some noble buildings. From Cassel, in the French Netherlands, which is seated on a hill, may be seen thirty-two towns.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Austrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unequalled; particularly in that species called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Austrian Netherlands are still considered as a circle of the empire, of which the archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, is the sole director and summoning prince. This circle contributes its share to the imposts of the empire, and sends an envoy to the Diet; but is not subject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor-general, or regent, appointed by the court of Vienna. The appearance of an assembly or parliament, for each province, is still retained, and consists of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Brussels. Each province claims particular privileges; but they are of very little effect; and the governor, till of late, seldom found any resistance to the will of his court. Each province has a particular governor, subject to the regent; and causes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

REVENUES.] These arise from the demesne lands and customs; but so much is the trade of the Austrian Flanders reduced, that they are said not to defray the expense of their government; but, by the late reduction of the garrisons, this is now altered. The French Netherlands bring in a considerable revenue to the nation.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the emperor are chiefly employed in the frontier garrisons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Austrians were obliged to maintain three-fifths of those garrisons, and the Dutch two; yet both of them were miserably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at least 30,000 men, and, in the time of war, above 10,000 more. But the late emperor demolished the fortifications of most of the places, and rendered the garrisons useless.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, Or, a lion sable, and langued gules.

HISTORY.] After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards retained possession of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the LOW COUNTRIES, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706. After which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their sovereign; and his daughter, the late empress-

queen, was possessed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and would have still held them, but for the exertions of the Dutch and English, in favour of the house of Austria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in the year 1748, may be seen in the preceding general table of divisions.

It was not long after the settlement of the disturbances in Holland, that the provinces of the Netherlands, belonging to the emperor, determined to assert their liberty. As no great friendship had subsisted between the states and his imperial majesty, it was natural to suppose that the discontented subjects of the latter, would find a ready asylum in the territories of the Dutch. The quarrel originated, like those in other countries, about the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, and which were more extensive than he had any right to. A letter concerning this, had been published as early as the 13th of December, 1787, by count Trautmansdorff, the imperial minister to the council of Brabant; in which province the disputes had originally commenced. In this performance, the count took notice of the little confidence they put in the emperor, and commanded them, in the most express terms, "to hold no connexion, relation, correspondence, or keep up any understanding whatever on public affairs, either in a body or by commissioners, with the states or their deputies, without the previous knowledge or express command of the emperor or his representative." This not proving effectual, and Joseph making use of force to assert his prerogatives, the territories of the United Provinces became an asylum to the discontented Brabanters. They first began to assemble in Dutch Brabant, in the close of the Summer of 1789, and being well received, took up their head quarters at Tilbourg. To this place they invited their oppressed countrymen to join them, and promised them the pay of fourteen sols per day for their support. From whatever source these patriots derived their finances, it soon became evident that they were well supplied; for this sum was punctually paid; and they had great plenty of provisions: so that, being protected by the states-general, they soon became very strong, and in a very short time manifested a design to assert their liberty by force of arms. Their first exploits were the taking of two forts belonging to the emperor, situated between Antwerp and Bergen-op-Zoom. They seized also M. Crumpepin, chancellor of Brabant, threatening to hang him up by way of retaliation, for the first person of their party to whom the emperor should offer any violence.

On the part of the emperor, the insurgents were treated with great cruelty. A proclamation was issued by count Trautmansdorff, governor of Brussels, intimating that no quarter should be given them, and that the villages, in which they concealed themselves, should be set on fire. General D'Alton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming his determination to become master of them by assault, and to put every person in them to the sword. A resolution was taken by the government of Brussels, to disarm all the inhabitants of the Low Countries, except such as were in the actual service of the emperor. A proclamation was accordingly issued forth, commanding all persons to deliver up their arms within twenty-four hours, under pain of being accounted favourers of sedition. All who should be taken with arms in their hands, in any case of riot or insurrection, were to be put to death on the spot, without any trial. All the nobility and abbots who had left the country, of whom there were great numbers, were commanded to return, under pain of perpetual banishment, and confiscation of estate.

In opposition to this sanguinary proclamation, the patriots issued a manifesto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority by his various oppressions and cruelties, violating 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

crouds or mobs should be allowed to pillage ; and that whoever was found guilty of such enormities, should be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogstraten, in Brabant, October 24th, 1789. The king of Prussia was at that time assembling an army, with which it was thought he designed to take some active part in the affair ; but he published a manifesto, declaring that he did not mean to interfere in the troubles of the low countries ; but, as a director of the circle of the empire, to take notice of those which had happened in the bishopric of Liege, and Wetzlar. Thus, the emperor and the patriots were left to decide their quarrel by themselves ; and in this contest the latter displayed a resolution, as well as power, to accomplish their purposes, which were by no means generally expected. 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 the occasion ; which was natural enough, 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 D'Alton was obliged to retire to Brussels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loss of one thousand men, besides women and children. It reflects indelible disgrace on the imperial character, as well as on the commander of the 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 Maes, 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 prerogative, contrary to the coronation-oath, which could not be done without perjury on the part of the emperor ; 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 a people, who contended only for their rights. These things, they owed, 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 such rapid conquests, that, before the end of the year, they were masters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg. The emperor next declared himself willing to treat with those whom he seemed not to be able to subdue ; but the states published a paper, by way of preliminary, which seemed to give very little hope of success to the negotiation. In this they insisted, 1. That the plenipotentiary, attended by two deputies from the states, should repair to those places in the town of Ghent, “ where that *sanguinary executioner*, D'Alton, ordered, saw, and executed robbery, incendiary, rape, profanation, murder, and massacre.” 2. That the corpses of those “ immolated to the fury of

the ferocious servants of the Nero their master, should be dug up, and exposed to the plenipotentiary's view; that he might make a terrific report to the court of Vienna; and not only the banks of the Danube, but the whole world, might be struck with horror." Lastly, when his heart was supposed to be sufficiently impressed with this dreadful spectacle, it was to be notified to him in the assembly of the states, to which he was to be conducted, that "it was impossible to treat or make any convention with a sovereign perjured and perfidious, who had repeatedly violated the most sacred of all human ties, though secured by the most solemn treaties with foreign powers." Though the states of Brabant were extremely severe on the conduct and character of Dalton, an accident discovered that he was not the worst despot in Europe. In his flight from the fury of the insurgents, he left behind him a collection of letters to him from the emperor Joseph. They were printed by the captors, and exhibit the ferocity of a tyrant, who rivalled in savageness the most execrable monsters of antiquity. Joseph expressly commands Dalton not to be sparing of blood, as *lives were of no consequence*. The whole volume, which has been translated into English, is full of similar ideas, and affords a memorable specimen of *imperial sensibility*.

A new act of union was established between the Belgic provinces, to which all those formerly subject to Austria unanimously acceded. It originated between those of Flanders and Brabant, and was to the following purpose: That neither party should ever enter into any compromise with their former sovereign, but by common agreement. They agreed to change this union into one common sovereignty between the two states; so that the whole power should be centred in a congress, composed of deputies named by both parties. The powers of this sovereign assembly were to be confined to the sole object of common defence, to the power of making peace and war, the support of a national militia, the fortifications necessary for the defence of the country, the contracting alliances with foreign powers, &c. On the 4th of January, 1790, the states of Brabant were opened with great ceremony at Ghent; they were declared independent, and the emperor to have forfeited all right to the sovereignty of that country. On the 11th, a solemn and general treaty of union was signed by the deputies from Brabant, Gelders, Flanders, West Flanders, Hainault, Namur, Tournay, with the territory depending on it, called Tournesis, and Malines.

Notwithstanding they thus appeared for ever separated from the house of Austria, yet the death of Joseph, which happened 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 conciliating measures he adopted, together with the mediation of Britain, Prussia, and Holland, gave a very different turn to affairs in these provinces; and a convention, which was signed at Reichenbach, on the 27th of July, 1790, by the above-mentioned contracting powers, had for its object the re-establishment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces, by a general amnesty, and total forgiveness of whatever had passed during the troubles, under the guarantee of the said powers. Since this time it has been the constant labour of these plenipotentiaries, in concert with the imperial minister, to reduce the Belgic provinces to submission, and to restore them to the Austrian dominions, on condition of the re-establishment of their ancient privileges and constitution. After the restoration of the old system in these provinces, the following articles were agreed upon by the plenipotentiaries:

I. That on receiving the usual homage of the Belgic provinces, his imperial majesty shall confirm them in all the constitutional privileges and legal customs, which they had enjoyed by the acts of inauguration of the emperor Charles VI. and the empress Maria Theresa.

II. His imperial majesty consents to bury in oblivion all the excesses that have

been committed during the late troubles, and to comprise them in a general amnesty, which shall be instantly made public ; with the exception of a very few individuals, whose conduct has precluded them from every claim to this general pardon ; and of those culprits, whose crimes are distinct from the disorders committed during the late insurrection. At the same time, it is to be understood, that his imperial majesty does not, by this general amnesty, mean either to acknowledge or confirm those usurpations, which, during the troubles, have been made on the rights and prerogatives of his sovereign power.

III. His imperial majesty, during the conference at Reichenbach, having been disposed to grant certain concessions, not ulteriorly affecting the imperial constitution, in case submission should precede compulsion, has yet, at the instance of the mediating powers, granted those concessions which he had been previously disposed to grant of his own accord, as the reward of a voluntary submission, and which are contained in a letter from his imperial majesty's plenipotentiary to the mediating ministers, dated at the Hague, the 29th of October, 1790 ; of which the following are the principal heads, viz. that certain points of ecclesiastical discipline, in which some alterations had been made during the last reign, should be placed under the regulation of the bishops, restoring to them all the powers which they exercised at the termination of the reign of the late empress Maria Theresa ;—that, as it would be impossible to re-establish the suppressed convents on their former foundations, his majesty promises to apply the revenues of those convents to such pious purposes, as seem to be most analogous to the intentions of their founders ; and to revive and confirm in their rights such suppressed abbeys, as anciently enjoyed the privilege of sending deputies to the states ;—that his majesty, relying on the patriotism and valour of the Belgic provinces, renounces every pretension to keep a *standing army*, directly or indirectly ; and will not attempt to raise any troops in the provinces, but with the consent of the states, and as exigencies may require ;—that, confiding in the love of his subjects, and their generous efforts for the support of his empire, he engages *never to levy any TAX* upon them, on any pretext whatever, without the full consent and concurrence of the states ;—that the judges of the superior courts are confirmed in their stations, agreeably to the constitutions of each province on this head ;—that the diploma, granted by the emperor Charles VI. to the superior tribunals, be made irrevocable ; that his majesty will hear and consult with the states and tribunals on the subject of any new and general law ; as also, on the subject of penal laws ; that his majesty engages to re-establish the organization of the government, and chamber of accounts, on the same footing as in the reign of the late empress ; reserving to himself the right of making such changes, as may become indispensibly necessary, yet always with attention to the public voice, and the right of the constitution ;—that the commander in chief of the troops, and the minister plenipotentiary, shall be under the command of the governor-general ; and that it be established as an immutable rule, that the soldiery shall never be called out against the citizens, but for the actual support of the laws, and at the requisition of the magistrates ;—that his majesty will make no alterations in the forms of judicature, but in consequence of previous consultation with the states, and with their full consent ;—that, for the prevention of any misunderstanding, commissaries be appointed by the prince and the people ; and if their determination should not prove satisfactory, then his majesty and the states shall each appoint an equal number of persons as arbiters, whose decision shall be conclusive, and finally binding ; and who, on such occasion, shall be absolved from the influence of any oaths, that might tend to affect their impartial determination.

IV. The kings of Britain and Prussia, and the states-general of Holland, become, in the most solemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his successors for the sovereignty of the Belgic provinces, now re-united under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties within two months from the date of signing, which was executed at the Hague, on the 10th of December, 1790.

Since this ratification, the Austrian Netherlands have become the theatre of the war that rages in Europe. They were rapidly overrun by the French general Dnmourier, before his traitorous defection; and all the fortified places that made such formidable resistance in past times, were hardly any obstacle to his progress. Their evacuation was almost as sudden as their conquest.

G E R M A N Y.

BOUNDARIES.] GERMANY, including Bohemia, Silesia, and the Austrian Netherlands, is bounded, on the north, by the North or German sea, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the east, by Prussia, Poland, and Hungary; on the south, by the gulf of Venice, Italy, and Switzerland; and on the west, by France, the North sea, and the United Netherlands.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	690	between	{ 77 28 and 94 west long. from Philadelphia.
Breadth	690		{ 2 28 and 19 east long. from London.
			{ 45 and 55 north latitude.

Square miles 253,920*.

NAME.] The English name, *Germany*, is derived from the Latin name, *Germania*, of which the etymology is doubtful. Some derive it from the Celtic words, *Ger* or *Gar* and *man*, signifying a warlike man; others assert, that the Romans gave this name to the country, on account of the fraternal amity and kindness, which they perceived among its inhabitants. *Germanus* signifies in the Roman language, a brother, and *Germania*, a land of brothers. The German name, *Germanien*, is only used in state-writings of the imperial court. The Germans call themselves *Deutsche*, or *Teutsche*, from *Teutones*, one of their ancient tribes, and their country, *Deutschland*. The French call it *Allemagne*, from *Allemania*, which was, in former times, the name of a part of Germany, bordering on France.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The greatest part of Germany is divided into ten circles. Their names and situations are as follows:

English names.	German names.
1. Circle of Austria	Oesterreich
2. Bavaria	Bayern
3. Swabia	Schwaben
4. Franconia	Franken, in the middle, on the Maine.
5. Upper Rhine	Oberrhein
6. Lower Rhine	Niederrhein
7. Westphalia	Westphalen

* The best German geographers have determined the length and breadth of Germany at 150 German geographical miles; 4 3-5 English miles to one German, make 690. The superficial contents are 12,000 German, or 253,920 English square miles.

English names.	German names.	
8. Burgundy, or Austrian Netherlands	Burgund, oder Oesterreichische Niederlande	} to the W. on the Maese.
9. Lower Saxony	Nieder Sachfen	
10. Upper Saxony	Ober Sachfen	} to the north, on the Wefer and Elbe.

The other part of Germany, which is not included in the ten circles, though under the jurisdiction of, and subject to, the emperor and empire, (Silesia excepted, part of which is possessed by the king of Prussia, and part independent,) comprehends,

English names.	German names.	
1. Bohemia	Bohmen	} to the east, on the Elbe and Oder.
2. Moravia	Mahren	
3. Lusatia	Laufiz	
4. Silesia	Schlesien	
5. Several small states, lordships, towns, &c. situated within the compass of the ten circles, but not belonging to any of them.		

The division of the German empire into circles, was made in the year 1500, by the emperor of Maximilian, in the diet at Augsburgh, and confirmed, in 1522, by the diet at Nuremberg. The end of this regulation was, chiefly to preserve internal peace, which had before been continually disturbed by domestic feuds and wars; to provide for the common defence against external enemies; to promote the general welfare of the empire; and to unite the states and members of each circle more closely, and thereby strengthen the union of the whole Germanic body.

CIRCLE OF AUSTRIA.

States and principal towns.

- I. Lower Austria, or the archduchy of Austria.
- | Subdivisions. | Cities and towns. |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. The land below the Ens, | Vienna†, (Wien) Neustadt, Baden. |
| 2. The land above the Ens, | Lintz, Ens. |
- II. Inner Austria.
- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. The duchy of Stiria, (Steyermärk), | Gratz‡, Judenburg. |
| 2. The duchy of Carinthia, | Clagenfurt, Villach. |
| 3. The duchy of Carniola, (Crain), | Laybach, Gorits, Icbria. |
| 4. The Litorale. | Trieste, Fiume. |
- III. Upper Austria, or the principality of Tyrol.
- Inspruck, Trent, Brixen.
- IV. Fore Austria, in the circle of Swabia.
- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Austrian Brisgau, | Freyburg, Old Brisac. |
| 2. Swabian Austria, | Constance. |

CIRCLE OF BAVARIA.

States and principal towns.

- I. States of the elector palatine of Bavaria.
- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| 1. The duchy of Bavaria, | Munich§, Landshut, Ingolstadt, Donawert. |
|--------------------------|--|

† Vienna, 200,000 inhabitants. Lat. 48 12 36, N. long. 16 22 E. from London.

‡ Gratz contains 25,000 inhabitants. Lat. 47 4 18, long. 15 24 45.

§ Munich, 50,000 inhabitants. Lat. 48 9, long. 11 30.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>Subdivisions.</p> <p>2. The Upper palatinate,</p> <p>3. The principalities of Newburg and Sultzbach, }</p> <p>4. The principality of Leuchtenberg,</p> <p>5. The county of Haag, and four lordships. }</p> | <p>Cities and towns.</p> <p>Amburg.</p> <p>Newburg, Sultzbach.</p> |
|---|--|
- II. The archbishopric of Saltzburg.
- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>Chief cities.</p> <p>III. The bishoprics of Regensburg, Passau, and Freysingen.</p> <p>Chief cities.</p> | <p>Saltzburg , Hallein.</p> <p>Passau, Freysingen.</p> |
|---|--|
- IV. The provostship of Berchtesgaden.
- V. The principality of Sternstein.
- VI. The county of Ortenburg.
- VII. The imperial city of Regensburg*, or Ratibon.

C I R C L E O F S W A B I A.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to secular princes.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <p>1. The duchy of Wurtemberg,</p> <p>2. The margraviate of Baden,</p> <p>3. The principality of Hohenzollern,</p> <p>4. Lands of the prince of Furstenberg,</p> <p>5. The county of Oettingen,</p> <p>6. The principality of Lichtenstein,</p> <p>7. The landgraviate of Kletgau,</p> <p>8. The principality of Thengen,</p> <p>9. Several small counties and lordships, subject to the counts of Waldburg, Konigsegg, Fugger, &c.</p> | <p>Stutgard†, Tubingen, Ludwigsburg.</p> <p>Durlach, Carlsruhe, Rastadt, Baden.</p> <p>Hechingen, Sigmaringen.</p> <p>Oettingen.</p> |
|---|--|

II. States subject to ecclesiastical princes.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <p>1. The bishopric of Costnitz, or Constance, Morsburg.</p> <p>2. The bishopric of Augsberg, Dillingen.</p> <p>3. The abbeys and principalities of Kempten, Lindau, and Buchau.</p> <p>4. The priory and principality of Ellwangen.</p> | |
|--|--|
- III. Lands or territories subject to prelates, viz. seventeen male and four female abbeys or monasteries. The abbots and abbeesses, to whom these monasteries, with their territories, are subject, are prelates of the empire.
- IV. Thirty-one imperial cities, of which the principal are, Augsberg‡, Ulm§, Reutlingen, Nordlingen, Hailbronn, Memmingen, Kempten, Kaufbeuren, Ravensburg, Biberach, Lindau, &c.

C I R C L E O F F R A N C O N I A.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to ecclesiastical princes.

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| <p>1. The bishopric of Wurtzburg,</p> <p>2. The bishopric of Bamberg,</p> | <p>Wurtzburg.</p> <p>Bamberg.</p> |
|---|-----------------------------------|

|| Saltzburg, 14,000 inhabitants. Lat. 47 44, long. 12 59.

* Regensburg, 21,500 inhabitants. Lat. 49 2, long. 11 56.

† Stutgard, 20,000 inhabitants. Lat. 48 52, long. 9 10.

‡ Augsberg, 36,000 inhabitants. Lat. 48 23 35, long. 10 56 15.

§ Ulm, 15,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 6 30, long. 17 5.

- | Subdivisions. | Cities and towns. |
|---|---|
| 3. The bishopric of Aichstat, | Aichstat. |
| 4. The territory of the great master of
the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, | Mergentheim. |
| II. States subject to secular princes. | |
| 1. The margraviate of Anspach and
Bareuth, | Anspach§, Swabach, Furth, Bareuth,
Culmbach, Erlangen. |
| 2. The principality of Henneberg, | Smalkalden, Schleusingen, Supla, Mei-
nungen. |
| 3. The principality of Hohenlohe, | Oehringen. |
| 4. The principality of Schwartzenberg, | Schwartzenberg. |
| 5. The counties of Castell, Wertheim,
Rienech and Erbach, and five
lordships, | Wertheim. |
| III. Five imperial cities : Nuremberg , Rothenburg, Windheim, Schweinfurt,
Weissenberg. Nuremberg has a large territory subject to it, wherein is Altorf. | |

CIRCLE OF THE UPPER RHINE.

States and principal towns.

- | I. States subject to secular princes. | |
|---|--|
| 1. The landgraviate of Hesse, Hesse
Cassel,
Hesse Darmstadt, | Cassel*, Marburg, Hersfeld, St. Goar.
Darmstadt†, Gießen. |
| 2. The principalities of Simmern, Lau-
tern and Veldentz, | Simmern, Lautern. |
| 3. The principality of Zweybruggen, or
Deuxponts, | Zweybruggen. |
| 4. The principality of Salm, | |
| 5. The counties of Nassau Weilburg,
Nassau Ufingen, Nassau Saarbruck,
Nassau Saarwerden, | Weilburg, Ufingen, Saarbruck, Wisbaden. |
| 6. The counties of Waldeck, Hanau,
Munzenberg, Upper Yfenburg,
and Solms, | Corbach, Hanau, Bodingen, Schwabach. |
| 7. The counties of Witgenstein, Leiningen, Sponheim, Konigstein, Falkenstein,
Kriechingen, and Wartenberg. | |
| 8. The lordship of Hanau Lichtenberg (in Upper Alface) and four other lordships. | |
| II. States subject to ecclesiastical princes. | |
| 1. The bishopric of Fulda, | Fulda. |
| 2. The bishopric of Spire, | Bruchsal, Philippsburg. |
| 3. The bishopric of Worms, | |
| 4. The bishopric of Strasburg, | Zabern. |
| 5. The bishopric of Basil, | |
| 6. The principality of Heitersheim, | Heitersheim. |
| III. Five imperial cities : Worms, Spire, Frankfort on the Maine, Wetzlar,
Friedberg. | |

§ Anspach, 10,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 19, long. 10 33.

|| Nuremberg, 30,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 27 17, long. 11 5.

* Cassel, 20,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 19, long. 9 26 15.

† Darmstadt, 9,500 inhabitants. Lat. 49 51, long. 8 35.

‡ Frankfort on the Maine, 36,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 6, long. 8 35.

CIRCLE OF THE LOWER OR ELECTORAL RHINE.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to the elector of Mayence, or Mentz.

Subdivisions.

Cities and towns.

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| 1. The archbishopric of Mayence or Mentz | Mentz§, Aschaffenburg, Bingen. |
| 2. The Aichfeld (in upper Saxony) | Heiligenstadt, Duderstadt. |
| 3. The city of Erfurt with its territory,
(in Upper Saxony) | } Erfurt . |

II. The archbishopric of Treves, or Triers.

Chief cities.

{ Triers, Coblentz*, Ehrenbreitstein, Setters.

III. States subject to the elector of Cologne.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. The archbishopric of Cologne, | Bonn, Andernach. |
| 2. The duchy of Westphalen, | Arenberg. |
| 3. The county of Recklinghausen. | |

IV. The Palatinate on the Rhine, or the Lower Palatinate.

Chief cities.

Heidelberg†, Mannheim‡.

V. The principality of Arenberg.

VI. The county of Lower Ysenburg.

VII. The burgraviate of Rieneck, and the lordship of Beilstein.

CIRCLE OF WESTPHALIA.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to ecclesiastical princes.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. The bishopric of Munster, | Munster. |
| 2. The bishopric of Osnaburg, | Osnaburg. |
| 3. The bishopric of Paderborn, | Paderborn. |
| 4. The bishopric of Liege (Luttich) | Liege§§, Spa. |

II. States subject to the king of Prussia.

- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| 1. The duchy of Cleve, | Cleve, Wesel, Duisburg. |
| 2. The principality of Minden, | Minden. |
| 3. The principality of East Friesland, | Aurich, Embden, Norden. |
| 4. The principality of Meurs, | |
| 5. The county of Mark, | Ham. |
| 6. The county of Ravensberg, | |
| 7. The counties of Ticklenburg and Lin-
gen. | } gen. |

III. States subject to the elector palatine of Bavaria.

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. The duchy of Juliers, | Juliers. |
| 2. The duchy of Bergen, | Duffeldorf, Solingen. |

IV. States subject to the elector of Hanover.

- | | |
|---|-------------|
| 1. The principality of Verden | Verden. |
| 2. The counties of Hoya, Diepholtz, and
Spiegelberg, | } Nienburg. |

§ Mentz, 27,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 54, long. 8 20.

|| Erfurt, 15,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 6, long. 11 7 15.

* Coblentz, 12,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 22, long. 7 34.

† Heidelberg, 10,500 inhabitants. Lat. 49 24, long. 8 40.

‡ Mannheim, 20,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 28 20, long. 8 26.

§§ Liege, 80,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 39, long. 5 35.

V. States subject to the prince of Nassau Dietz, (stadtholder of the United Netherlands) or the counties of Dietz, Dillenburg, Siegen, and Hademar.

Chief cities. Dietz, Dillenburg.

VI. The duchy of Oldenburg.

Chief city, Oldenburg.

VII. Fifteen counties and seven lordships, of which the most considerable are,

- | | |
|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. The county of Wied, | Neuwied. |
| 2. The county of Schauenburg, | Buckeburg, Rinteln. |
| 3. The county of Lippe, | Detmold, Lemgo, Lippe. |
| 4. The county of Pyrmont, | Pyrmont. |

VIII. Seven abbies; four male and three female.

IX. Three imperial cities: Cologne* (Colln) Aix†, (Achen) Dortmund.

CIRCLE OF BURGUNDY, OR THE AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS‡.

CIRCLE OF LOWER SAXONY.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to the elector of Hanover, king of Britain.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The duchy of Bremen, | Stade. |
| 2. The principality of Lunenburg, | Lunenburg, Zell, Haaburg. |
| 3. The principality of Calenberg, | Hanover§, Hameln, Goettingen , Minden. |
| 4. The principality of Grubenhagen, | Einbeck, Clausthal. |
| 5. The duchy of Saxe Lauenburg, with
the land Hadeln, | Lauenburgh. |

II. States subject to the duke of Brunswic Wolfenbuttle.

- | | |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. The principality of Wolfenbuttle, | Brunswic**, Wolfenbuttle, Helmstadt. |
| 2. The principality of Blankenburg, | Blankenburg. |

III. States subject to the king of Prussia.

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. The duchy of Magdeburg, | Magdeburg††, Halle‡‡. |
| 2. The principality of Halberstadt, | Halberstadt. |

IV. States subject to the duke of Mecklenburg.

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--|
| 1. The duchy of Mecklenburg, | { Schwerin, Wismar§§, New Strelitz, Ros- |
| | { tock, Gustrow. |
| 2. The principality of Schwerin, | Buzow. |
| 3. The principality of Razeburg. | |

V. States subject to the king of Denmark.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. The duchy of Holstein, | Gluckstadt, Rensburg, Kiel. |
| 2. The lordship of Pinneberg, | Altena . |
| 3. The county of Rantzau. | |

VI. States subject to ecclesiastical princes.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------|
| 1. The bishopric of Hildesheim, | Hildesheim. |
| 2. The bishopric of Lubec, | Lubec. |

* Colonge, 40,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 54, long. 6 52.

† Aix, 25,000 inhabitants.

‡ Of this circle we have already treated.

§ Hanover, 15,000 inhabitants. Lat. 52 25, long. 9 52.

|| Goettingen, 7,600 inhabitants. Lat. 51 31 54, long. 9 54.

** Brunswic, 22,000 inhabitants. Lat. 52 19 18, long. 10 32 51.

†† Magdeburg, 26,000 inhabitants. Lat. 52 10, long. 11 47.

‡‡ Halle, 20,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 31, long. 12 12.

§§ Wismar and its territory are subject to the king of Sweden.

||| Altena, 24,000 inhabitants.

VII. Six imperial cities: Hamburg§, Lubec||, Bremen*, Goslar, Nordhausen, Mulhausen. The two last are in Upper Saxony.

CIRCLE OF UPPER SAXONY.

States and principal towns.

I. States subject to the elector of Saxony.

Subdivisions.

Cities and towns.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. The duchy of Saxony, | Wittenburg†. |
| 2. The greatest part of the margraviate of Misnia, or Meissen, | Dresden†, Meissen, Königstein, Torgau, Leipzig§§, Freyberg, Neustadt. |
| 3. The northern part of the landgraviate of Thuringia, | Langensabza, Weisenfels. |
| 4. The principality of Querfurt, | Querfurt. |
| 5. A part of the Voigtland, | Plauen. |
| 6. The county of Barby, | Barby. |

NOTE. These six states are divided into seven circles: Electoral Thuringia, Meissen, Leipzig, Erzgebirge, Voigtland, and Neustadt circles.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|
| 7. The bishopric of Merseburg, | Merseburg, Lauchstadt. |
| 8. The bishopric of Naumburg, | Naumburg, Zeitz. |

II. The Mark Brandenburg, subject to the king of Prussia, comprehending,

- | | |
|--------------------|--|
| 1. The Middlemark, | Berlin , Potsdam**, Spandau, Brandenburg, Frankfort on the Oder††. |
| 2. The Altmark, | Stendal. |
| 3. The Priegnitz, | Perlborg. |
| 4. The Uckermark, | Prentzlow. |
| 5. The Newmark, | Custrin, Crossen, Cottbus. |

NOTE. The Middlemark, Altmark, Priegnitz, and Uckermark, are called the Chur, or Electoral mark.

III. The duchy of Pomerania.

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| 1. Prussian Pomerania, | Stettin§§§, Anclam, Stargard, Colberg, Camin. |
| 2. Swedish Pomerania, | Stralsund***, Greifswalde. |

IV. States subject to the duke of Saxony.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. The principality of Weimar, | Weimar, Jena. |
| 2. The principality of Eisenach, | Eisenach. |
| 3. The principality of Coburg, | Coburg, Hildburghausen. |
| 4. The principality of Gotha, | Gotha††. |
| 5. The principality of Altenburg, | Altenburg, Saalfeld. |

V. The principality of Anhalt.

Chief cities.

Deffau†††, Bernburg, Zerbst, Köthen.

§ Hamburg, 100,000 inhabitants. Lat. 53 36, long. 10 6.

|| Lubec, 30,000 inhabitants. Lat. 53 50 22, long. 10 54.

* Bremen, 40,000 inhabitants. Lat. 53 2, long. 8 46.

† Wittenburg, 6,400 inhabitants. Lat. 51 43 10, long. 12 33 30.

‡ Dresden, 50,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 2 54, long. 13 40.

§§ Leipzig, 30,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 19 14, long. 12 21.

||| Berlin, 140,000 inhabitants. Lat. 52 31 30, long. 13 22 20.

** Potsdam, 28,000 inhabitants.

†† Frankfort on the Oder, 10,000 inhabitants. Lat. 52 22, long. 14 33 45.

§§§ Stettin, 15,000 inhabitants. Lat. 53 32, long. 14 55.

*** Stralsund, 10,000 inhabitants. Lat. 54 19, long. 13 32.

†† Gotha, 11,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 58, long. 10 43.

††† Deffau, 8,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 51, long. 12 15.

VI. The principality of Schwartzburg.

Chief cities.

Sonderhausen, Rudelsdorf.

VII. The abbey of Quedlingburg.

Chief city.

Quedlingburg.

VIII. Four counties, and several dominions and lordships.

- | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|
| 1. The county of Mansfeldt, | Mansfeldt, Eisleben. |
| 2. The county of Stolberg, | Stolberg. |
| 3. The county of Wernigerode, | Wernigerode. |
| 4. The county of Hohenstein, | Ilfeldt. |
| 5. The dominions of the princes and counts Reufs. They are a part of the Voigtland. | } Graitz, Gera, Schlietz, Lobenstein. |
| 6. The dominions of the counts of Schonburg, | |
| 7. The lordships Lora and Klettenberg. | Elrich. |

BOHEMIA, MORAVIA, LUSATIA, SILESIA,

and several small states, not belonging to the ten circles.

States and principal towns.

- I. The kingdom of Bohemia, and the margraviate of Moravia, subject to the archduke of Austria, king of Bohemia.
- | | |
|-------------|--|
| 1. Bohemia, | { Prague†, Konigsgratz, Eger, Carlsbad, Toplitz. |
| 2. Moravia, | |
- II. The margraviate of Upper and Lower Lusatia, subject to the elector of Saxony.
- | | |
|-------------------|--|
| 1. Upper Lusatia, | { Bautzen†, Gorlitz, Zittau, Lauban, Camenz, Lobau, Hernhut. |
| 2. Lower Lusatia, | |
- III. The duchy of Silesia and the county of Glatz, subject to the king of Prussia. A part of Upper Silesia, is subject to the king of Bohemia.
- | | |
|---------------------|--|
| 1. Lower Silesia, | { Breslau†, Brieg, Sweidniga, Buntzlau, Hirschberg, Lignitz, Neisse, Silberberg. |
| 2. Upper Silesia, | |
| 3. County of Glatz, | |
- IV. Several small states, territories, lordships, burgs, and villages, mostly situated within the compass of the ten circles, but not belonging to any of them.
1. The county of Mumpelgard in France, Mumpelgard.
 2. The lordships of New Ravensburg and Wasserburg in Swabia; Oberstein in Upper Rhine; Iever, Kniphausen, Rheda, and the county of Homberg in Westphalia; Shauen in Lower Saxony: Ash in Franconia, and others.
 3. The territories of the immediate knights of the empire, who are subject only to the emperor and the empire. Their territories are divided into three circles, named after the circles of the empire, wherein they lie, viz. the circles of Swabia, • Franconia, and Rhine. Each circle, comprehending several cantons,

† Prague, 80,000 inhabitants. Lat. 50 5, long. 14 19.

* Olmutz, 11,000 inhabitants. Lat. 49 32, long. 17 9.

† Bautzen, 7,500 inhabitants. Lat. 51 10, long. 14 25.

† Breslau, 50,000 inhabitants. Lat. 51 6 30, long. 17 5.

and each canton several towns or lordships, is governed by a director. And all three circles have a common directory.

4. Several abbies, burgs, and villages of the empire ; as the abbies of Ottobeuren, St. Ulrich, of St. Afra in Swabia ; Cappenberg and Etten in Westphalia ; the burgs, Friedberg and Gelnhausen in Upper Rhine. Thirty-nine imperial villages near Leulkirch in Swabia ; the imperial villages Gochsheim and Seensfeldt in Franconia ; and Sultzbach and Soden in Upper Rhine.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains of Germany are the Vogesian mountains in the circles of the Rhine ; the Schwartzwald (Black forest) and Alb in Swabia ; the Alps and the Kalenberg in Austria ; the White mountains between Moravia and Hungary ; the Riesen Gebirge (Giant mountain) in Silesia ; the Fichtelberg in Franconia ; and the Hartz, with the Brocken, in Lower Saxony. Some of the highest mountains, especially of the Alps, are continually covered with snow and ice.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Danube, Rhine, Weser, Elbe, and Oder. The Danube, or Donau, is the largest river in Europe. It rises in Swabia. In its long and rapid course of about 1620 miles, from west to east, through Germany, Hungary, and the Turkish empire, it receives a great number of navigable streams, and at length falls into the Black Sea. Its most considerable branches in Germany are, the Nab, Isar, and Inn, in Bavaria ; the Morava in Moravia ; and the Ens, Drave, and Save in Austria. The Rhine rises in Switzerland, and, in its course through France, Germany, and the United Netherlands, takes in, on the east side, the rivers Neckar in Swabia, Main, watering Franconia and the circles of the Rhine, Roer and Lippe in Westphalia ; and, on the west side, the Moselle, which rises in France, and, passing thro' the circles of the Rhine, falls into the Rhine at Coblenz ; and the Maese, which also rises in France, and runs through Westphalia, the Austrian, and United Netherlands. The Rhine empties itself into the North sea. The Weser rises from the two united rivers Werra and Fulda, of which the first has its sources in Henneberg in Franconia, and the second in Fulda in Upper Rhine. It takes in the Allen in Lower Saxony, and falls into the North sea. The Elbe rises in the Riesen Gebirge (Giant mountain) in Silesia, receives in Bohemia the Moldau and Eger, in Upper Saxony the Mulde and Saale, and in Lower Saxony the Havel and Ilmenau ; and empties itself into the North sea. The Oder rises in Moravia, and, passing through Silesia, Mark Brandenburg, and Pomerania, falls into the Baltic sea. Its principal branches are, the Rober in Silesia, the Neisse in Lusatia, and the Warta in Brandenburg. Besides these five principal rivers, with their chief branches, we are to take notice of the Ems in Westphalia, and the Scheld in the Austrian Netherlands. Both are Navigable, and fall into the North sea.

LAKES.] The chief lakes are, the Boden See (lake of Constance) through which the Rhine passes, between Swabia, Austria, and Switzerland ; the Chiem See in Bavaria ; the Zisknizer See in Austria ; the Dummer See in Westphalia ; and the Seeburg See in Upper Saxony.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] The southern and middle parts of Germany are very mountainous, full of large forests, and well watered by brooks, rivers, and lakes. The soil is in general very fertile, and well improved. In the northern parts the land is more even, and towards the sea very flat and low ; but also abounding in rivers, lakes, and forests. The fertility of the soil is here not so general as in the southern and middle parts ; and great sandy and barren tracts are interspersed among fruitful districts of rich low lands and marshes.

The climate, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the situation north and south, but also from the mountains and forests, and according to the improvement of the soil. Heat and cold are not so intense as in Pennsylvania, but greater than in England. The mercury in Fahrenheit's thermo-

meter sometimes rises to 90 degrees and upwards, and falls below 0°. Northwest and southwest winds usually bring rain, and easterly winds dry weather. The air is in most parts salubrious. The Spring of the year is commonly more pleasant and temperate than in Pennsylvania; but in Autumn the weather is not so clear, steady, and agreeable as with us. The transition from cold to heat, and *vice versa*, is in general not so sudden there as here.

DOMESTIC, WILD, AND OTHER ANIMALS.] Domestic animals are, horses, oxen, cows, sheep, goats, asses, mules, hogs, dogs, cats, swans, turkies, geese, ducks, hens, doves, &c. The best horses are in Holstein, Mecklenburg, Lower Saxony, Westphalia, and Saltzburg in Bavaria. Asses and mules are, in some parts, chiefly employed for carrying loads.

Wild and other animals are, bears, wolves, lynxes, wild boars, stags, roebucks, chamois (gemsen) foxes, hares, rabbits, badgers, weasels, martins, corn-rats, beavers, fish-otters; and, of the feathered kind, woodcocks, (auerhahne), pheasants, partridges, wild geese, ducks, &c. There are many large forests in Germany, in which the boar, stag, and other wild game, are raised in great abundance, and hunted by the princes and nobility at stated seasons. Hares abound in some parts of Saxony, especially in the county of Barby, where they are hunted and killed at the proper seasons, commonly in the month of December. They are so numerous, that they are seen in whole herds or troops of twenty, thirty, forty, and upwards, grazing together in the fields, like sheep; and several hundreds are shot at such huntings. Bears, wolves, lynxes, and beavers, are not numerous.

In the rivers, brooks, lakes, and ponds, are the following fish; sturgeon, shad, salmon, pike, carp, trout, lamprey, perch, eel, crawfish, and many others. The most common of these are pike, salmon, trout, and carp. The latter are in Upper Lusatia in great abundance, and of the best quality. They are chiefly raised and kept in ponds enclosed for that purpose, which are made by encompassing a piece of ground of 10, 20, or 40 acres, and upwards, with dams. These ponds are supplied with fresh water from brooks or springs. When the water is drained off, they yield for some years excellent crops of wheat, oats, &c. after which they are again filled with water for fishponds. Pearls in muscle-shells are fished for in some brooks and rivers, particularly in Bohemia and in Voigtland in Upper Saxony.

FRUITS, TREES, AND OTHER VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS. The fruits are, apples, pears, cherries, plums, walnuts, hazelnuts, figs, peaches, apricots, and, in the southern parts, also almonds, chestnuts, oranges, citrons, lemons, &c. The most common forest and other trees, are, oak, pine, fir, hemlock, larch, birch, beech, linden, maple, ash, &c. Great quantities of ship and other timber are carried down the Rhine to Holland. In the middle and southern parts, the vine is cultivated with great success. The best German wines are produced on the rivers Rhine and Moselle in the circles of the Rhine, and on the rivers Neckar and Kocher in Swabia. Those of Franconia, Austria, and Saxony, are also very good. Mulberry trees were introduced in the last century, and since that time, have been chiefly planted in Austria, Swabia, and the electorates of Brandenburg, Saxony, and Hanover. In some of these countries, considerable quantities of silk, of a good quality, are made. There are raised wheat, spelt, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, millet, pease, beans, potatoes, hops, tobacco, hemp, flax, manna, saffron, crapp, woad, maize or

* On the 5th of August, 1783, Fahrenheit's thermometer rose to 100 degrees at Barby, near Magdeburg, in 52 10 N. lat. Other meteorological observations show that in

	Therm. Fahren.		Barometor.	
	gr.	least.	gr. least.	gr. least.
Ulm, in 48 23 N. lat.	98	2		
Goettingen, in 51 32 N. lat.	84	5	28 5	26 7
Berlin, in 52 31 N. lat.	83	5	29 11	28 1

Indian corn, and rice in some places; and of culinary and medicinal plants, cabbage, (of which the four-kROUT is made, so much used by the Germans, and which captain Cook so highly recommended to all sea-faring people as the best antiscorbutic,) cucumbers, pumpkins, colliflowers, radishes, turnips, carrots, beets, parsnips, mangel-roots, cellery, and other roots, aniseed, cummin, thyme, sage, mint, fennel, lavender, &c.

METALS, MINERALS, MINERAL WATERS, } Gold mines are met with in Auf-
AND PRECIOUS STONES. } tria, Bavaria, and Upper Saxony; and there is gold dust found in the rivers Rhine, Danube, and Elbe. No country in Europe produces in proportion so much silver as Germany. The richest silver mines are in Upper and Lower Saxony, and Austria. Besides gold and silver, Germany has also mines of quicksilver (in Austria), copper, tin, lead, iron, zink, bismuth, antimony, kobalt, marble, alabaster, sulphur, nitre, vitriol, alum, bitumen, pitcoal, and saltpetre, besides salt-mines, and salt-springs. The principal salt-springs and salt-works are in the archbishopric of Saltzburg in Bavaria, in Hall and Saltz in Swabia, in the county of Hanau in Lower Rhine, in Halle, Saltza, &c. in Upper Saxony, in Luneburg in Lower Saxony, and in some parts of Bohemia and Austria. Near Hall, in Tyrol, are very rich and profitable salt-mines. In Westphalia, and Upper and Lower Saxony, much turf is dug for fuel. Mineral springs and medicinal waters and baths are to be found in almost all the mountainous parts of Germany. Their number amounts to several hundreds. The most famous and frequented are the waters and baths in Pyrmont, Aix, and Spa in Westphalia; Selters in Triers, Lower Rhine; Carlsbad, Toplitz, Sedlitz and Seidschitz in Bohemia; Lauchstadt in Upper Saxony; Warmbrunn in Silesia; Baden in Austria; Wildbad in Bavaria; and others. Of the transparent precious gems or stones, viz. diamonds, rubies, garnets, sapphires, topazes, emeralds, chrysolites, amethysts, hyacinths, and beryls, some of each sort are to be found in various parts of Germany. The diamonds of Bohemia, Silesia, and Austria, though much inferior in hardness and transparency to those of India and Brazil, are held in great value. In 1775, a diamond was found in Bohemia, weighing in the rough $42\frac{1}{2}$ carats (7 dwt. 2 gr.). The same country produces rubies, or carbuncles, and garnets of the first quality. The Bohemian garnets are preferred to those of India. In England they pay 70 per cent. more for the former than for the latter*. There are crystal mines of various kinds in Bohemia, Austria, Silesia, and Lower Saxony. The crystal is used in making and decorating sconces, looking-glasses, buckles, seals, sleeve-buttons, and a variety of trinkets, and little ornaments. Some are transparent, without any colour; others are of a blue, green, or yellow colour. The inferior precious stones, which are opaque or half transparent, such as the agate, cornelian, chalcedonian, opal, onyx, various kinds of jasper, lapis lazuli, &c. are also found in Bohemia, Austria, and Silesia, and in the mines of Upper and Lower Saxony, and some of them in abundance.

NUMBER OF INHABITANTS.]. Germany is one of the most populous countries in Europe. The German geographers differ in fixing the number of its inhabitants. Busching and Gatterer compute them at 24 millions and upwards. Fabri reckons about 30 millions; and others 26 millions. The last number is probably the nearest the truth. How this number is divided among the ten circles, appears from the subsequent table which is taken out of a book, entitled *Statistische Uebersicht der vornehmsten deutschen und sämtlichen Europaeischen Staaten*, published in 1786. The table shows, at the same time, the extent of each circle in German and English square miles, and the average number of inhabitants to one square mile.

* Cramen's *Europens producte*. Dessau, 1782, p. 261.

Circles, &c.	Square miles.		Inhabitants.	No. of people to a sq. m.	
	German.	Eng*.		German.	Eng.
Austria	2145	45,388	4,182,000	1949	92
Bavaria	1020	21,583	1,600,000	1570	74
Swabia	729	15,426	1,800,000	2469	116
Franconia	484	10,241	1,000,000	2066	97
Upper Rhine	500	10,580	1,000,000	2000	94
Lower Rhine	458	9,691	1,100,000	2401	113
Burgundy or Austrian Netherlands	469	9,924	1,880,000	4008	189
Westphalia	1250	26,450	2,300,000	1840	86
Lower Saxony	1280	27,085	2,100,000	1640	77
Upper Saxony	2000	42,320	3,700,000	1850	87
Bohemia	961	20,335	2,266,000	2358	111
Moravia	396	8,379	1,137,000	2871	135
Silesia	720	15,235	1,800,000	2500	118
Lusatia	180	3,809	400,000	2222	105
Total	12,592	266,446	26,265,000		

By this table it appears, that the Austrian Netherlands, or circle of Burgundy, is the most populous part of Germany, and the circle of Bavaria the least, the former having 189 inhabitants to each English square mile, and the latter only 74. Next to the Austrian Netherlands, the best peopled countries are, Moravia, Silesia, Swabia, Lower Rhine, Bohemia, and Lusatia. The latter of these, containing 3809 English square miles, has 400,000 inhabitants, which is not much less than the population in Pennsylvania, where the number of inhabitants, according to the enumeration made in 1791, was 434,373. Should Pennsylvania, which contains about 44,900 square miles, become equally well settled with Lusatia, viz. contain at the rate of 105 persons to each square mile, it will have no less than 4,714,500 inhabitants, which number exceeds the present population of all the United States together, which, according to the last census, was 3,909,526. At present, there are in Pennsylvania about 10 persons to each square mile.

LANGUAGE.] The German language has one common origin with the Low Dutch, English, Danish, and Swedish languages. They are all chiefly derived from the old Teutonic, as their mother tongue. The German varies so much in its dialects, that the people in the southern provinces can hardly understand those in the northern. The German spoken in the southern and middle parts is called High German; or High Dutch (Hoch Deutsch,) of which that dialect which is spoken in Upper Saxony, especially in Leipzig, Dresden, &c. is esteemed the most pure and elegant, being most agreeable to the style and manner of expression adopted by the best German authors, or heard from the pulpit, at the bar, or in the politest companies, throughout the whole empire. In Lower Saxony and Westphalia, the country people speak a language, called platt Deutsch, flat German, or Low Dutch, but greatly differing from the Low Dutch spoken in the United Netherlands.

The Lord's prayer is in German as follows: *Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel, dein name werde geheiligt. Dein reich komme. Dein wille geschehe, wie im himmel, also auch auf erden. Unser täglich brod gib uns heute, und vergib uns unsere schulden, wie wir vergeben unsern schuldigern. Und fuhre uns nicht in versuchung, sonderu*

* To reduce German square miles into English, multiply them by 21.16, one German square mile being equal to (4 3-5 × 4 3-5) 21.16 or 21 1-6 English square miles.

erlöse uns von dem bösen. Denn dein ist das reich, und die kraft, und die herrlichkeit in ewigkeit. Amen.

In the eastern part of Germany, where the inhabitants are chiefly descendants of the old Slavonians or Sarmatians; the Slavonian language is spoken in various dialects. The principal of these are the Bohemian and Vandalian languages. The first is spoken throughout Bohemia, and in some parts of Moravia and Silesia; and the latter in some parts of Lusatia, Upper Saxony, and Austria. The Polish language, which is likewise a Slavonian tongue, is much in use among the country people in Upper Silesia. In those parts of Germany which border on France and Italy, the French and Italian languages are much used by people of all classes.

CONSTITUTION.] The German empire contains about 300 great and small states and commonalties, all of which, by different kinds of connexions and confederations, make one common empire, or political body, though they are not so closely consolidated as the Dutch Netherlands, or the United States of America. Among these states is one kingdom, (Bohemia,) one archduchy (Austria,) several electorates, palatinates, dukedoms, landgraviates, and margraviates, and a great number of principalities, counties, and baronies. All these are subject to secular princes, in whose number are five kings, viz. the kings of Bohemia, Prussia, Britain, Denmark, and Sweden. The government in their lands, as well as in the states subject to secular electors, dukes, counts, &c. resembles in general that of limited hereditary monarchies, though differently modified. The states subject to ecclesiastical princes, as the three electorates of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, the archbishopric of Saltzburgh, several bishoprics, abbeys, and provostships, &c. resemble limited elective monarchies, and are governed almost in the same manner as the secular states.

In the free imperial cities, each of which may be considered in some respects as a separate small state or republic, the government is either aristocratical or democratical.

The general government of the whole Germanic body, as comprehending all these secular and ecclesiastical states and small republics, is vested in the emperor, diet, and two supreme courts of the empire.

EMPEROR AND ELECTORS.] The emperor, as the supreme head of the German empire, is elected by a few of its first princes, who exclusively have this right, and on this account are called electors, *Churfürsten* or *Wahlfürsten*. When the emperor Charles IV. in the year 1355, confirmed the rights and privileges of the electors, by an act called the golden bull, which is one of the fundamental laws of the German empire, and obtained its name from the golden box, wherein the seal affixed to it was included, there were seven electors, three of whom were ecclesiastical, the archbishops of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne; and four secular, the king of Bohemia, the count Palatine on the Rhine, the duke of Saxony, of the younger or Albertinian line, and the Margrave of Brandenburg, of the eldest line. In 1648 an eighth electoral dignity was created in favour of the count Palatine, who, twenty-five years before, had been deprived of his electoral dignity, the fifth in rank, which was transferred to the duke of Bavaria. In 1692, the duke of Brunswic Lunenberg, father of George I. king of Britain received from the emperor Leopold I. the ninth electoral dignity. After the death of the last duke and elector of Bavaria, in the year 1777, without children, one electoral dignity became extinct, and his lands devolved on his nearest kinsman, the elector Palatine, who, since that time, bears the name of elector Palatine of Bavaria. At present there are, therefore, only eight electors*, each of whom has a particular office, which they perform at the election of an emperor, and, on other occasions, by de-

* According to the laws of the empire, the number of electors being required to be odd, for the sake of a majority; the duke of Wurtemberg, or the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, are looked upon as candidates for the ninth electoral dignity.

puties. The three ecclesiastical electors of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, are high chancellors of the holy Roman empire, (*Erzkanzler des heiligen, Römischen Reichs*,) Mentz through Germany, Treves through France and Arles*, and Cologne through Italy. The elector and king of Bohemia is high-cupbearer; the elector Palatine of Bavaria, great-server or officer who serves out the feasts; the elector of Saxony, great-marshal; the elector of Brandenburg, king of Prussia, great-chamberlain, and the elector of Hanover, king of Britain, arch-treasurer.

The place of election of an emperor, is Frankfort on the Maine. The ecclesiastical electors appear in person, and the secular electors send deputies. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation which he signs at his elections. The coronation is performed by the elector of Mentz or of Cologne, formerly always at Aix-la-chapelle; but the two last coronations of the emperors Leopold II. and Francis II. were at Frankfort. The imperial title is, "by the grace of God elected Roman emperor, at all times augmentor of the empire, in Germany king."

The rights of the emperor are, to convoke the diet, to preside in it by his commissary, to grant the fiefs of the empire, which become vacant, to new possessors, and invest them therewith, to create new electors, dukes, princes, counts, and barons of the empire, to grant certain privileges, franchises, and immunities to states and members of the empire, to give charters to universities, &c. to administer justice by the Aulic court, and to put in execution the determinations of the imperial chamber.

During the reign of an emperor, his successor may be elected, whose title is, "Roman king, at all times augmentor of the empire, king in Germany." If an emperor dies, without his successor having been previously elected, which was the case at the death of Joseph II. in 1790, and Leopold II. in 1790, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria perform the imperial functions during the vacancy, under the title of administrators or vicars of the empire; the elector of Saxony in those parts of Germany, where the old Saxon laws prevail, viz. in Upper and Lower Saxony, the greatest part of Westphalia, and a part of Franconia; and the elector Palatine of Bavaria, in Bavaria, Swabia, Upper and Lower Rhine, the greatest part of Franconia, and in some parts of Westphalia, in which countries the old Frank laws are used.

Though the imperial dignity is elective, and was therefore conferred, in former times, indiscriminately on princes of several of the most illustrious houses of Germany; yet, since the year 1434, the elections have been always made in favour of princes of the house of Austria, except in one case, in 1742, when the duke of Bavaria was created emperor.

DIET.] The diet, or the general assembly of all the states of the German empire, is composed of the emperor, and the three colleges of the empire, *Reichs-Collegia*. The first of these is the *electoral college*, consisting of the eight electors, of whom each has one vote. The second is the *college of princes*, and is composed of the princes, prelates, and counts of the empire. There are in it 94 princes, 61 secular and 33 ecclesiastical, each having one vote. The prelates are divided into two benches, that of Swabia, and that of the Rhine. They give their votes collectively, each bench having only one vote. The counts are divided into four colleges, Wetterau or Rhine, Franconia, Swabia, and Westphalia. They vote also collectively, each college having one vote. The number of all the votes in the college of princes is 100. The third college of the empire is that of the *free imperial cities*. Their number is 50, and each has one vote. They sit on two benches, 13 on that of the Rhine, and 37 on that of Swabia. Neither the emperor, nor the states of the empire, appear in per-

* The kingdom of Arles, or Burgundy, comprehended the southern part of France, Switzerland, and Savoy, and was, after the year 1033, for a time, part of the German empire.

son in the diet. The emperor sends two commissaries, a principal, and assistant, who act in his name; and the electors, princes, prelates, counts, and imperial cities send delegates. In the electoral college presides the elector of Mentz; in the college of princes, the archduke of Austria, and the archbishop of Saltzburg, alternately; and, in the college of the imperial cities, that city wherein the diet is held. Each of the three colleges has its sessions in separate houses or chambers; and resolutions are passed in each by a majority of votes, some cases of the greatest importance excepted. If all the three colleges concur in a resolution by a majority of one vote, it is called a proposal, or a report of the empire, which, by a decree of ratification from the emperor, through his commissaries, receives the validity of a law or resolve of the empire.

In former times, diets were held at such times and in such places as the emperor, who attended in person, found it proper to convoke and keep them. It was then a fundamental law, that the first diet after the coronation of a new emperor, should be held at Nuremberg. Since the year 1662, the diet has been held continually at Ratisbon, without a new convocation.

SUPREME COURTS OF JUDICATURE.] The imperial-chamber court, *Reichskammer Gericht*, and the Aulic court, *Reichshofrath*, are the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire. The imperial-chamber court resides at Wetzlar, and consists of a chamber judge, *Kammer Richter*, two presidents, and several assessors or associate judges. Their number, by the peace of Westphalia, in 1548, was appointed to be 50. By a resolve of the diet, in 1729, it was reduced to 25. At present there are only 17 assessors, nine of the Roman catholic, and eight of the protestant church. The Aulic court, which is held at Vienna, was originally a court for the dominions of Austria. With the increase of the power of this house in the German empire, the jurisdiction of this court was likewise extended: and more causes and appeals are now brought before the Aulic council than before the imperial chamber. The supreme head or chancellor of the Aulic court is the emperor himself, to whom report is made by the court in all cases of importance. It consists of a president or vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a number of Aulic counsellors, of whom six are protestants, besides other officers.

During a vacancy in the imperial throne, the elector palatine and the elector of Saxony, as vicars of the empire, have, at their respective residences at Munchen and Dresden, courts of judicature, before which all such causes are brought, as are usually determined by the Aulic court. If one of the supreme courts of the empire pronounces sentence against offenders and disturbers of the public peace, the emperor, by virtue of his prerogative, commits the execution of it to a particular prince, whose troops live at free quarters upon the estate of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expenses.

RELIGION.] The established religions in the German empire are the Roman catholic and the protestant or evangelical. The latter is divided into the Lutheran and the Calvinist. All the members of these churches have, since the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, enjoyed equal rights and liberties.

The Roman catholics in Germany, acknowledge the supremacy of the pope, with respect to spiritual and ecclesiastical affairs, though his power is throughout, Bavaria excepted, far more limited than in most other catholic countries. This has especially been the case since the reign of the emperor Joseph II. who made great alterations in the government of the church in his own dominions, diminishing the papal power, and augmenting that of the archbishops and bishops. There are in Germany (the Austrian Netherlands and Silesia included) eight Roman catholic archbishops, and thirty-five bishops, as follows:

1. The archbishop of Mentz, in Lower Rhine, is the first spiritual elector. In former times, almost all Germany was subject to his ecclesiastical jurisdiction. At pre-

sent his suffragans are the bishops of Worms, Spire, and Fulda, in Upper Rhine, Constance and Augsburg in Swabia, Wurtzburg and Eichstedt in Franconia, Paderborn in Westphalia, and Hildesheim in Lower Saxony. The bishop of Chur, in Swisserland, is likewise under the spiritual jurisdiction of the archbishop of Mentz, as was also the bishop of Strasburg, in Alsace, before the French revolution.

2. The archbishop of Treves, in Lower Rhine, the second spiritual elector. He has now no bishops subject to him. The three bishops of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, in France, were formerly under his jurisdiction.

3. The archbishop of Cologne, in Lower Rhine, the third spiritual elector. His suffragans are the three bishops of Liege, Munster, and Osnaburg, all in Westphalia.

4. The archbishop of Saltzburg, in Bavaria. His suffragans are the eight bishops of Frayfing, Ratibon, and Chiem see, in Bavaria. Brixen, Gurk, Seckau, Lavant, and Loeben, in Austria.

5. The archbishop of Vienna, in Austria, to whom is subject the bishop of Neustadt, in the same circle.

6. The archbishop of Prague, in Bohemia. His suffragans are the bishops of Leutmeritz and Konigsgratz, in Bohemia.

7. The archbishop of Goritz, in Austria. His suffragans are the bishops of Trent, Laybach, Riben, and Trieste, in Austria.

8. The archbishop of Mechlin, in the Austrian Netherlands. His suffragans are the bishops of Antwerp, Ghent, Bruges, Ypres, Namur, Roermonde.

The bishops of Passau in Bavaria, of Breslau in Silesia, and of Olmutz in Moravia, are not subject to any archbishop, but are under the immediate jurisdiction of the pope.

All the archbishops and bishops, those in the Austrian dominions excepted, are princes of the empire, and, in some respects, sovereign regents in the territories belonging to their respective sees. The bishops of Brixen and Trent are the only two in the Austrian dominions, who are princes of the empire, and exercise a kind of temporal jurisdiction, though under the sovereignty of Austria.

The protestant church had its origin in Germany, and was first introduced by Martin Luther, in 1517. At a diet, held at Spire, in 1529, it was decreed, that a general council of the church should be convoked, and that all innovations and alterations in church affairs should be left to its decision, and till then be deemed illegal. The states of the empire who had adopted Luther's doctrines, and introduced them into their countries, protested in form against this decree, from whence they were called protestants, which name they themselves did not immediately adopt, but called themselves the evangelical. In 1530, they presented their confession of faith, written by Luther and Melancthon, to the emperor Charles V. and the states of the empire, assembled in a diet at Augsburg, from which place it has obtained the name of the Augsburg or Augustan confession. Some differences which afterwards arose among the protestants, with respect to some points of doctrine, (chiefly consubstantiation and predestination), and church discipline, occasioned a division in their church. Those who adhered strictly to the Augustan confession, and to the doctrine and discipline of Luther, were called Lutherans, and those that followed the tenets of Calvin, and the church rites introduced by him, were denominated Calvinists. The latter called themselves Reformed. The Calvinist churches in Holland and Switzerland, and the church of Scotland, agree in the most essential points of doctrine and discipline with the Calvinists in Germany; as the church of England, in her articles of faith and discipline, is very similar to the Lutheran, which in some countries, as Denmark and Sweden, is also an episcopal church.

In both divisions of the protestant church in Germany, each prince or sovereign

of a state is, in some respects, considered as head of the church within his own territories. He has the supreme jurisdiction in ecclesiastical affairs, which he exercises by means of courts called consistories, consisting partly of clergymen, partly of laymen. Those divines, to whom are delegated the special care of a certain district, and the superintendence of the clergy therein, are called, among the Calvinists, inspectors or provosts, and among the Lutherans, superintendants. The latter came, in some respect, in the place of the bishops, as the superintendants-general are instead of the former archbishops.

The Lutheran religion is predominant in Upper and Lower Saxony, Lusatia, part of Franconia, Wurtemberg and Baden in Swabia, and in some parts of Silesia. The Calvinists are chiefly in Hesse, the Palatinate, and other countries on the Rhine, in Westphalia, and in some parts of Upper Saxony.

The protestant episcopal church, called *Unitas Fratrum*, or the United Brethren, have their chief settlements in Germany. Of these, the oldest and principal is Herrnhut in Upper Lusatia, begun in 1722, by emigrants out of Moravia, under the patronage of count Zinzendorf. These emigrants were descendants of the ancient *Unitas Fratrum*, or United Brethren, in Bohemia and Moravia, who, following chiefly the doctrines of Wickliff, John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, had begun an opposition to the church of Rome, before Luther or Calvin.

The renewed *Unitas Fratrum*, or the present brethren's church, received into their unity, besides the descendants of the old Moravian and Bohemian brethren, many members of the Lutheran, Calvinist, and other protestant churches. More settlements were made in Germany and other countries, and missions were established for converting the heathens. In articles of faith, the brethren's church adheres to the Augustan confession. With respect to church government and discipline, it has adopted many of the rites and regulations of the ancient *Unitas Fratrum*, from whom they have also received their episcopal succession.

There is a great number of Jews in the German empire. In some great cities, as Prague, Frankfort on the Maine, Altena, &c. they are very numerous, and have several synagogues. In other places, only a few families are tolerated, and these live under many, and often very oppressive restrictions. In several countries they are entirely forbidden to settle. The emperor Joseph II. abolished several grievous regulations respecting the Jews in his dominions; but subjected them to military service. Most of them live by trade and commerce.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, } The Germans in their persons are tall,
DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } fair, and strong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and some of them, especially in Saxony, are remarkable for their beauty.

Both men and women affect rich dresses; which, in fashion, are nearly the same as in France and England. The richer sort of people were formerly very fond of gold and silver lace, which are now going into disuse. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dress from the French and English, only they are not so excessively fond of paint as the former. At some courts they appear in rich furs, and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The burghers, peasantry, and labourers dress as in other parts of Europe, according to the climate, season of the year, and their employments, convenience, and opulence. The stoves they make use of in Winter, are a cheap and comfortable contrivance to warm their apartments equally throughout; they are not, however, so convenient and eligible in many respects, as those of late years adopted in Philadelphia, and known by the name of Franklin-stoves. In the northern parts of Germany, they sleep, during the Winter, between two beds, the upper one of down, 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 gran-

deur ; but, in general, the circumstances of the common people are far preferable to what those of the French were before the late revolution ; upon the whole they are certainly improving.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honest, hospitable people, free from artifice and disguise. In general, they are thought to want animation, as their persons promise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. It has been frequently asserted, that their soldiers have not that military ardour, nor their officers that courage and genius, which distinguish some neighbouring nations. Be that as it may, it is certain, that, within the present century, both the Austrians and Prussians have performed such great military exploits, as have astonished all Europe.

Industry and application, perseverance and economy, added to a steadiness of principle, that is not easily shaken, are the great characteristics of the German nation. This is chiefly to be attributed to the care they bestow on the education of their youth. The poorest children are early taught to follow their occupations with diligence and punctuality, and to endeavour to approve themselves, in all respects, quiet, orderly, and useful members of society. That fickleness of mind, and fondness for novelty, which characterizes the French and English nations (though in very different ways) has never been so obvious among the Germans. They are rather disposed to be cheerful and contented with their situation, and to remove any disadvantage they may have to contend with. Hence, riots, tumults, and insurrections are very rare in Germany ; and the distractions and revolutions that occur in other countries, seldom have any considerable influence upon this vast and populous empire.

As Germany affords great plenty of wine, and provisions of every kind, it is no wonder that the rich live rather luxuriously. They drink pretty freely after dinner ; yet commonly finish the repast with coffee. No people have more feasting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days, accompanied with music, of which they are very fond.

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, than of any other nation.

The merchants and tradesmen are very civil and obliging. But the German husbands are not quite so complaisant to their wives, as is usual in some other countries. Among the labouring poor, the women, especially in some parts, are obliged almost constantly to attend their husbands in the field, and assist them in their work.

Germany being governed by a great number of sovereign and independent princes, each of whom has, necessarily, separate political views and interests, which not unfrequently clash with each other ; it is no wonder that the mass of the people have not that strong prepossession in favour of their own country, which is found so strikingly to exist under most other governments. The Germans are not fettered with those absurd and contemptible prejudices, through which most nations are so prone to extol themselves, and to disparage and degrade all others. A German does not despise, he rather esteems, a man, because he is a foreigner.

It happens, however, that those very causes, which have given rise to this liberality of sentiment, for which the Germans are so justly famous, and which undoubtedly forms one of the traits in their national character, have, in combination with others, produced consequences of another nature. The nobility are very numerous, all the sons of noblemen inheriting their fathers' titles ; but very often without any estates to support their dignity. Not only the reigning, but the merely titular princes, think mercantile affairs and the cultivation of land much beneath their attention, apparently regarding themselves as a superior order of beings. Many of them are consequently very poor. With these, therefore, na-

tional pride (or patriotism) sinks into personal pride, which is heightened by the extreme adulation too frequently paid to them by their inferiors in rank. They are ridiculously attached to titles, ancestry, and show, and easily enter into their own armies, and those of other sovereigns, as the best means of gratifying their ambition. It is believed, however, that these follies are gradually wearing off; and trade and agriculture are now deemed more honourable than formerly.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are the same as in England and the united states of North America; viz. billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to Spa, Pyrmont, and other places of public resort, and drink the waters. As to their field diversions, besides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna especially live luxuriously, a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreation in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, tygers, swans, scollop-shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the sledge is drawn by a single horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes of feathers ribands, 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.

LITERATURE AND LEARNED MEN.] Literature is at present in a very advancing state throughout the greatest part of Germany. No country has produced a greater variety of authors; and there is scarcely any-where a more general taste for reading.

Germany is the only country where literary fairs are held. The number of new books printed there, and exposed to sale at Leipzig fair only, amounted, in the year 1791, to 3504*; and it is very probable, as the editors of the Hamburg Political Journal assert, that the yearly literary productions of all the European states, France and England excepted, taken together, are inferior in number to those of Germany. A very large proportion of these are published at Leipzig, Berlin, and Vienna. Though, as may be supposed, abundance of these works have little merit or novelty to recommend them, yet many appear from time to time, which are deservedly esteemed for their valuable contents, masterly composition, and elegant style. The number of those German authors who have distinguished themselves in the republic of letters, is so great, that we can do little more than barely mention the names of some of the principal of them. But we shall first take a short cursory view of the progress and tendency of literature in general in Germany, since the time of Luther.

From that period till about the reign of the emperor Charles VI. Germany, by her divisions, and by her religious divisions, was so much involved in disputes about systematical theology, that few, comparatively, paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. Religion, being the subject of general discussion, and the cause or pretext made use of, for most of their wars, naturally employed the pens of the learned. Much was written in the way of controversy. But their works, being heavy and voluminous, were disregarded by other nations; and the disputes themselves, which gave birth to them, having since nearly subsided, these writings (the best of them excepted) are no longer in request, even in Germany itself. During this period, the language also and the style of writing became ridiculous. Through a false taste they continually introduced Latin, French, and other foreign words into their German compositions, which, though not understood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of superiority to the writers, and were therefore much affected.

* See Hamburg Political Journal, vol. ii. p. 1167.

It was about the year 1730, (as before hinted), that the prospects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfe opened the way to a better philosophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottsched, an author and professor at Leipzig, who has been greatly honoured by the late king of Prussia, introduced a better taste of writing, by publishing a new German grammar, and by instituting a literary society, for polishing and restoring to its purity the German language, and promoting the study of the belles lettres. He was quickly followed by many others who in different places pursued the same objects. Among these, the late professor Gellert, 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 mode of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inspire sentiments of morality and piety.

The style of preaching among the German divines underwent at the same time 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, Jerusalem, Spalding, Zollikofer, Less, Sturm, &c. have published sermons which would do honour to any country. 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 and other works appeared, calculated for persons of a literary taste, and for the entertainment of the public at large. Many of these have since attained to great celebrity, and are read with avidity by foreigners. Already enriched with numerous translations of all the famous productions of antiquity, with notes critical and explanatory, the Germans are now continually encreasing their fund of knowledge and improvement, by translations of the best works of the moderns, particularly of the English and the French. Their language too has arrived at a very high degree of improvement, and is now adopted in most of the courts of their princes, instead of the French, which was formerly the court language in most parts of Germany. The present king of Prussia is its decided patron, as was also the late emperor Joseph II. It is of late years become the fashionable language at the courts of Russia and Denmark; and will probably be more than hitherto studied by foreign nations. Adelung's German dictionary, published a few years since, in five volumes quarto, is, perhaps, the most complete work of the kind to be met with in any language.

We shall now proceed to name some of the most eminent German authors, and proficient in the fine arts. In divinity: Luther, Melancthon, Buddeus, Bengel, Baumgarten, Spener, Arndt, Frank, Freylinghausen, Mosheim, Rambach, Jerusalem, Cramer, Walch, Miller, Less, Ernesti, Crusius, Zachariac, Herder, Rosenmüller, Griesbach, Nösselt, Seiler, and Spangenberg. In Oriental literature: Michaelis, Frorke, Hirt, Dathe, Tychsen, and Eichorn. In ecclesiastical history: Mosheim, Walch, Schroekh, Semler, and Spittler. In history and geography: Gatterer, Schroekh, Schlozer, Schmidt, Sprengel, Crantz, Busching, Fabri, Raff, and Ebeling*. In canon, Roman, and civil law: Heineccius, Gundling, Puffendorf, Thomafius, Putter, Boehmer, and Achenwall. In medicine: Stahl, Hoffman, Boerhaave, Van Swieten, Untzer, Zuckert, Zimmermann. In chemistry: Pott, and Margraaf. In philosophy: Wolfe, Leibnitz, Feder, Sultzer, Mendelssohn, Kant, Zimmermann, Ebert, Eberhard, and Lambert. In natural history and botany; Rivinus, Dillenius, Beckman, Blumenbach, Forster, Leske, and Schreber. In mathematics: Wolfe, Kästner, and Karsten. In astronomy: Kepler, Euler, Meyer, Bode, and Herschell. In Latin and Greek classical literature: Reuchlin, Hederich,

* This gentleman is now engaged in the publication of an American geography, which, from the specimen we have seen, promises to be a grand acquisition to the stock of geographical knowledge.

Ernesti, Heyne, Reitz, Gedike, and Scheller. In German grammar: Gottsched, Heynatz, and Adelung. In poetry: Gellert, Gleim, Jacobe, Kleist, Lessing, Ramler, Utz, Wieland, Cronegh, Gothe, Schlegel, Stalberg, Hagedorn, Burger, and Zachariac. In Music: Bach, Benda, Graun, Handel, Haffe, Hayden, Hiller, Reichardt, Rolle, Wolfe, and Naumann. In painting: Durer, Calker, Rubens, Angelica Kauffman, Cranach, Mengs, Dietrich, Sandrat and Graff. In engraving: Chodowiecki, Geyser, Baufe, Berger, Miller, and Oeser. In architecture: Goldman, Sturm, and Penther. In education, and books for the use of children: Hubner, Reccard, Seiler, Layritz, Campe, Refewitz, Rochow, Saltzmann, Weisse, Splittegarb, Lorentz, Schwartz. In various sciences: Rabener, Winkelmann, Eschenburge, Klugel, Lessing, &c.

UNIVERSITIES, SCHOOLS, } There are thirty-nine universities in Germany, viz.
AND ACADEMIES. } eighteen Roman Catholic, sixteen Lutheran, three Calvinist, and two mixed. The subsequent table shows the cities and countries in which they are, and the year when each was founded. Erfurt has Lutheran and catholic, and Heidelberg, Calvinist and Catholic professors; on which account these universities are called mixed.

Catholic universities.		When founded.	Lutheran universities.		When founded.
City.	Country.	A. D.	City.	Country.	A. D.
Prague,	Bohemia	1347	Leipfic,	Upper Saxony	1409
Vienna,	Austria	1365	Rostock,	Lower Saxony	1419
Cologne,	Westphalia	1388	Tubingen,	Swabia	1477
Louvain,	Austrian Netherlands	1426	Wittenberg,	Upper Saxony	1502
Freyburg,	Swabia	1450	Griefswalde,	Upper Saxony	1539
Ingolstadt,	Bavaria	1472	Jena,	Upper Saxony	1548
Treves,	Lower Rhine	1473	Helmstadt,	Lower Saxony	1576
Mentz,	Lower Rhine	1477	Gieffen,	Upper Rhine	1607
Olmütz,	Moravia	1567	Rinteln,	Westphalia	1621
Breslau,	Silesia		Altorf,	Franconia	1623
Wurtzburg,	Franconia	1582	Kiel,	Lower Savony	1665
Gratz,	Austria	1586	Halle,	Lower Saxony	1694
Dillingen,	Swabia		Gottingen,	Lower Saxony	1734
Salzburg,	Bavaria	1620	Erlangen,	Franconia	1743
Bamberg,	Franconia	1648	Butzow,	Lower Saxony	1760
Inspruck,	Austria	1672	Stutgard,	Swabia	1782
Fulda,	Upper Rhine	1734			
Bonn,	Lower Rhine	1786			

Calvinist universities.		When founded.	Mixed universities.		When founded.
City.	Country.	A. D.	City.	Country.	A. D.
Frankfort on the Oder,	Upper Saxony.	1506	Heidelberg,	Lower Rhine	1386
Marpurg,	Upper Rhine	1527	Erfurt,	Upper Saxony	1398
Duisburg,	Westphalia	1527			
Duisburg,	Westphalia	1655			

Of the protestant universities, the most famous at present are those of Gottingen, Leipfic, Halle, Wittenberg, Jena, Erlangen, and Frankfort on the Oder, of which the university of Gottingen holds the first rank. It was founded by George II. king of Britain, and elector of Hanover. It rose, under the care of its first curator, baron Munchausen, to an uncommon degree of eminence, and was resorted to, not only by students from all parts of Germany, but from many other protestant countries of Europe. The principal building is a large and elegant stone edifice, containing in the lower story apartments for public lectures, and above, a spacious and magnificent hall for the library, which contains a collection of books hardly exceeded in number and value by any other

in Germany or in Europe. It is called the **Bulau library**, in honour of baron **Bulau**, whose gift of his own library of near 9000 volumes, was confirmed by a donation-act of his heirs. The library increases considerably every year. Another public building, belonging to the university, is the elegant church, called **St. Paul's**. There are professorships of divinity, oriental languages, jurisprudence, medicine, surgery, natural and moral philosophy, natural history, botany, economy, rhetoric, the fine arts and sciences, history, and geography. With the university are united, a royal society of sciences, founded in 1751, and a royal German society. There also belong to it, an observatory, with a fine astronomical apparatus, a botanical garden, an anatomical theatre, an institution for practical instruction in midwifery, a philological seminary under the care of the professor of oratory, and riding, fencing, and dancing schools.

Three or four years are the usual period for an academical or scientific course in the German universities. The students at their entrance are seldom under eighteen or nineteen years of age, and must previously have received a classical education in the inferior schools, called **Gymnasiums**, **Lyceums**, **Collegiums**, **Pedagogiums**, &c. wherein, besides the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages, they are taught history and geography, mathematics, the first rudiments of natural and moral philosophy, and several of the modern languages. There is hardly a nation so much inclined to learn the languages of other countries, as the Germans. Besides French and English, (of which the latter has become of late very fashionable, and is held in high esteem, especially among the learned and higher classes) the Italian, Spanish, and Swedish languages are taught in several universities and schools.

At Vienna and Berlin are academies of painting, sculpture, and architecture; at Gottingen and Berlin, academies of sciences; at Dresden and Nuremberg, academies of painting; at Munchen, an academy of the liberal and fine sciences, (*belles lettres*) and at Augsburgh an academy of the liberal arts.

The present king of Prussia established at Berlin, in 1790, an academy of the arts and mechanical sciences. Under the direction of this academy, schools are to be established in all the chief manufacturing towns in his dominions, wherein journeymen or apprentices, who work at trades and manufactures, in which drawing and some knowledge of geometry and architecture are necessary, are to be instructed therein. The first school of this kind was opened at Breslau, in Silesia, in 1792.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Though their manufactures in general are not in such a state of perfection, nor are carried to the same extent, as in England and France, they are, upon the whole, in a good and flourishing condition; and German wares are much esteemed abroad on account of their durability. Nuremberg, Augsburg, Berlin, Dresden, Leipzig, Meissen, Gorlitz, Brunswick, Hirschberg, Buntzlau, Sohlingen, and other cities and towns, have manufactures not inferior to those of the same kinds made in England or France, and some are superior. The Nuremberg wares and toys, the Westphalia, Lusatia, and Silesia linens and cloths, the Brunswick pasteboard and lack-ware, the Meissen and Berlin porcelain, of which the former is accounted superior to any porcelain in the whole world, the Sohlingen steel-ware and blades, and, in general, the German cutlery, silk-stuffs, chintzes, cotton and twist stockings, besides organs, piano-fortes, and other musical instruments, are all well known and in high repute.

Germany, being in the centre of Europe, with a great number of navigable rivers and some canals, and bordering to the north on the German and Baltic seas, and to the south, on the Venetian gulf, has an advantageous situation for commerce. The inland trade is very considerable, as is also the foreign commerce with almost all the European countries, carried on both by land and sea. Hamburg, Bre-

men, and other seaports, on the north and Baltic seas, have also some direct commercial intercourse with the United States of America; and some merchants of Trieste and Ostend trade to the East-Indies.

Germany exports to other countries, corn, wine, (chiefly Rhenish) various fruits, fresh and preserved, hops, saffron, tobacco, madder, smoked beef, hams, butter, cheese, honey, bees-wax, timber, both for ship-building and houses, pot-ash, salt, quicksilver, vitriol, sulphur, millstones, mineral waters, great quantities of linen and woollen yarn and stuffs, silk and cotton stuffs, ribands, turner's wares in wood, metal, and ivory, commonly called Nuremberg wares, cannon and bullets, bombs and bomb-shells, iron plates and stoves, tinned plates, iron and steel-work, (of which the German scythes are particularly known and valued in Pennsylvania) copper, brass-wire, porcelain, earthen ware, glasses, mirrors, hog's bristles, mum, beer, tartar, smalt, Prussian and Saxon blue, printer's ink, besides many other articles.

The imports are, from France, Spain, Portugal, Hungary, and Italy, chiefly wine, oil, and raisins; from England, Holland, and Denmark, tea, coffee, sugar, and other East and West-India goods; and besides, from England, great quantities of broad and narrow cloth, and hard and earthen ware; from Poland and Russia, bees-wax, honey, grain, oxen, &c.; from Turkey, Turkish yarn; from the United States, tobacco, rice, indigo, &c.

Hamburg, Bremen, Embden, and Ostend on the north sea, Lubec, Wismar, Stralsund, Stettin on the Baltic, and Trieste and Fiume on the gulf of Venice, are the principal commercial sea-port towns. Of the inland trading places, the most remarkable are, Frankfort on the Maine, Leipzig, Brunswick, Frankfort on the Oder, Naumburg, and Mentz. These six cities have the privilege, granted by the emperor, of keeping yearly great fairs, which, in particular those at Leipzig, are frequented by merchants and traders from almost all the European countries. Lunenburg, Augsburg, Nuremberg, Prague, and Breslau, likewise carry on a brisk trade. In the middle of the thirteenth century, Hamburg and Lubec entered into a league or Hanse, for promoting and mutually protecting their commerce. Bremen, Brunswick, Wismar, Rostock, Stralsund, Griefswalde, Colberg, Stettin, Lunenburg, Stade, Magdeburg, Halle, Goslar, and many other towns of Germany and the adjacent countries, afterwards entered into their alliance; and this great commercial confederacy, known by the name of the Hanseatic league, was, for more than a century, very powerful and formidable. Towards the close of the fifteenth century, it was annihilated. Hamburg, Lubec, and Bremen, however, renewed the league in 1630. These three cities are called, since that time, exclusively, the Hanse towns, and, under this name, make commercial treaties with foreign powers.

The late king of Prussia, Frederic II. established at Embden, the capital of East Friesland, an Asiatic company, for the encouragement of the trade to the East-Indies; but, since the year 1760, no ships have been sent out; so that, exclusive of the commercial connexions of the three Hanse towns, no public trading company exists at present in Germany.

REVENUES AND MILITARY STRENGTH.] The revenues of the German empire accrue from taxes of the empire laid or assessed by the emperor, with the consent of the diet. These revenues are either ordinary or extraordinary. The ordinary revenues, called chamber instalments, are the contributions of all the states of the empire, made in half-yearly instalments or payments, for the support of the imperial chamber court at Wetzlar. In 1720, it was decreed, that to this end the yearly sum of 103,600 rix dollars, (77,700 Spanish dollars) should be raised, to which each elector should contribute 811 rix dollars, (608 Spanish dollars) and the other princes and states in proportion. When, in the year 1775, the number of chamber judges was augmented, the chamber instalments were raised one-fourth part. Extraordinary taxes or revenues are raised in case of a general war of the

empire. The payments are made in Roman months, which denomination derives its origin from those times, when the emperors, in the beginning of their reign, made a journey to Rome, in order to be crowned by the Roman pontiff. On such occasions, the states of the empire were obliged to accompany the emperor with a certain number of horse and footmen, during six months at their own expense, or to pay monthly for each horseman twelve florins, and for each footman four florins. One Roman month is about 50,000 florins (25,000 Spanish dollars.) The states pay these sums, not out of their ordinary revenues, but by extraordinary taxes upon their subjects. When the German empire is at war with any foreign power, the states of the empire are obliged not only to send their quotas or contingents of troops, but they must also pay into the war treasury certain sums, which are assessed, partly by the diet, and partly by the circle to which they belong. If a prince or state keeps no foldiers, the circle raises and supports his contingent of troops, and charges him with so many more Roman months. The army of the empire amounted, according to a decree made in 1681, to 40,000 men. This number is called a single contingent. In 1702, it was doubled, and, in 1734, trebled. At present, it consists, in time of peace, of 80,000, and in time of war, of 120,000 men. The contingents of each circle for the single number of 40,000, were apportioned, in 1734, according to the following table; wherein also appear the sums to be paid by each, as fixed in 1708, in order to raise the sum of 1,000,000 rix dollars, or 1,500,000 florins.

Circles.	Horsemen.	Footmen.	Florins.	Kreutzers.
Lower Rhine	600	2707	10,564	25
Upper Saxony	1322	2707	156,360	15
Austria	2522	5507	306,390	20
Burgundy	1321	2708	156,360	15
Franconia	980	1902	113,481	25
Bavaria	800	1494	91,261	5
Swabia	1321	2707	156,360	15
Upper Rhine	491	2853	101,411	30
Westphalia	1321	2708	156,360	15
Lower Saxony	1322	2707	156,360	15
	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
	12,000	28,000	1,500,000	
		12,000		
		<hr/>		
		40,000		

The revenues of the emperor from his hereditary dominions, of the king of Prussia from the whole Prussian monarchy, and of the other most considerable German princes, with the military strength of each, were stated in the statistical view of Germany, published in the German language, in 1786, as follows :

[NOTE. The rix dollars, florins, and marks, are reduced in a separate column to Spanish dollars, at the rate of four rix dollars to three Spanish, and two florins or three marks banco of Hamburg, to one Spanish dollar.]

States.	Revenues.	Military strength.
Austria	90,000,000 flor.	45,000,000 Sp. dol.
Prussia	22,000,000 r. d.	16,500,000
Electorate of Saxony	6,800,000 r. d.	5,100,000

States.	Revenues		Military strength.
Electorate of the Palat. of Bavaria	10,000,000 flor.	5,000,000 Sp. dol.	24,000
Hanover	5,000,000 r. d.	4,125,000	26,000
Mentz	1,500,000 flor.	750,000	10,000
Treves	780,000 flor.	390,000	7,000
Cologne, not including } Munster	1,000,000 flor.	500,000	6,000
Duchy of Wurtemberg	2,000,000 flor.	1,000,000	6,000
Hesse Cassel	1,600,000 r. d.	1,200,000	12,000
Hesse Darmstadt	1,150,000 flor.	575,000	4,000
Duchy of Brunswic	1,500,000 r. d.	1,125,000	5,500
Margraviate of Baden	1,200,000 flor.	600,000	3,000
Saxe Weimar	600,000 flor.	300,000	
Saxe Gotha	800,000 flor.	400,000	1,700
Saxe Coburg	86,000 r. d.	64,500	
Saxe Hildburghaufen	80,000 r. d.	60,000	
Deuxponts	800,000 flor.	400,000	
Mecklenburg Schwerin	700,000 r. d.	525,000	
Mecklenburg Strelitz	350,000 r. d.	242,500	
Archbifhopric of Saltzburg	1,500,000 flor.	750,000	
Bifhopric of Munfter	1,200,000 flor.	600,000	
Liege	1,200,000 flor.	600,000	
Bamberg	700,000 flor.	350,000	
Wurtzburg	800,000 flor.	400,000	
Paderborn	600,000 flor.	300,000	
Paffau	200,000 flor.	100,000	
Spire	300,000 flor.	150,000	
Fulda	300,000 flor.	150,000	
Hildesheim	259,400 r. d.	194,550	
Ofnaburg	180,000 flor.	90,000	
City of Hamburg	3,000,000 marks	1,000,000	
Nuremberg	2,000,000 flor.	1,000,000	

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } In describing the mineral and other fprings,
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } we anticipated great part of this article,
which is of itfelf very copious. Every court in Germany poffeffes a cabinet of curio-
fities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The tun at Heidelberg, holds
800 hogfhheads, and is generally full of the beft Rhenifh wine, from which ftran-
gers are feldom fuffered to retire fober. Vienna itfelf is a curiofity; for here
you fee the greateft variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as
Greeks, Tranfylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Ger-
mans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The impe-
rial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manu-
fcripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable
manufcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinefe;
but the antiquity of fome of them is questionable, particularly a new Teftament
in Greek, faid to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple.
Here are likewife many thoufand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals;
with a vaft collection of other curiofities in art and nature. The vaft Gothic palaces,
cathedrals, caftles, and above all townhoufes, in Germany, are very curious; they
ftrike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and fometimes have an effect
that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houfes in great cities and
villages, have the fame appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and

their fortifications generally consist of a brick-wall, trenches filled with water, and bastions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curiosities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave near Blackenburg, in Hartz-forest, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for twenty miles; but the most remarkable curiosity of that kind is near Hammelen, about thirty miles from Hanover, where, at the mouth of a cave, stands a monument, which commemorates the loss of 130 children, who were swallowed up in 1284. Though this fact is very strongly attested, it 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 petrifications of fishes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER } The emperor of Germany pretends to be
TITLES AND ARMS. } successor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been generally admitted to a precedency 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 the like, with which he is invested as archduke. 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, Gelders, Brabant, and Barr. It would be as useless as difficult, to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial 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. Teresa.

DOMINIONS OF THE HOUSE OF AUSTRIA IN GERMANY.

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| <p>I. The whole circle of Austria.</p> <p>II. In the circle of Swabia,</p> <p> 1. Fore Austria, or the Austrian Briggau.</p> <p> 2. Swabian Austria.</p> <p>III. In the circle of Lower Rhine,</p> <p> The county of Falkenstein.</p> | <p>IV. The circle of Burgundy or Austrian Netherlands.</p> <p>V. A part of Upper Silesia.</p> <p>VI. The marquisate of Moravia.</p> <p>VII. The kingdom of Bohemia*.</p> |
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The extent is about 93,100 square miles†, and the population ten millions and a half. The whole Austrian monarchy comprehends about 233,000 square miles‡, and twenty millions of inhabitants.

By the pragmatic sanction, provision was 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 occasi-

* The other dominions of the house of Austria are the kingdom of Hungary; Transylvania; Croatia; part of Slavonia and Dalmatia; the Buckowine; the kingdom of Galicia; and the duchies of Tuscany, Milan, and Mantua, in Italy.

† 4,400 German miles. [NOTE. The number of square miles and inhabitants in the Austrian and other German dominions, are taken from "*Statistische Uebersicht von Deutschland nach seinen kreisen und Haupttheilen*," published at Berlin in 1792, by the editors of the new atlas of Germany.]

‡ 11,000 German square miles.

onally supported by France from political views though the pragmatic sanction is strongly guaranteed by almost all the powers of Europe.

The principal cities, in that part of the Austrian monarchy, which belongs to Germany, are,

1. Vienna, the capital of the circle of Austria; which, being the residence of the emperor, is accounted the capital of all Germany. Though not very large, it is a noble and strong city; and the princes of the house of Austria have neglected nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an university, a bank, which is under the management of its own magistrates, and a court of commerce immediately subject to the Aulic council. The suburbs are larger and more beautiful than the city itself. It would be endless to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its squares, academies, and libraries, and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinet of curiosities. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the suburbs, are computed at about 200,000, of whom, as we have already observed, many are foreigners, who migrate thither on account of the encouragement held out to them by the imperial court. Notwithstanding this constant influx of strangers, through the good regulation and vigilance of the police, the streets, which, in the city itself, are narrow, are at all times safe and peaceable.

2. Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is another fine and magnificent city. It is divided into two parts by the river Molda, which is here 700 feet wide, and navigable for small vessels. Over the river is a noble and spacious stone bridge, supported by eighteen piers, and famous for the twenty-nine statues of saints with which it is adorned. The bridge was built in 1357, by the emperor Charles IV. The circumference of the city is large; and, though fortified, it has often been taken. It contains ninety-two churches and chapels, and about 80,000 inhabitants, including the Jews, who are very numerous.

Of the dominions of the elector of Brandenburg, king of Prussia, we shall give an account under a separate head.

DOMINIONS OF THE ELECTOR PALATINE OF BAVARIA.

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| <p>I. In the circle of Bavaria.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The duchy of Bavaria. 2. The Upper Palatinate. 3. The principalities of Neuberg and Sultzbach. 4. The counties of Leuchtenberg and Haag. 5. The lordships of Ehrenfels, Sultzburg and Pyrbaum, Hohenwaldeck and Breitenek. <p>II. In the circle of Franconia.</p> <p>The county of Erbach, of which the greatest part is under the sovereignty of Bavaria.</p> <p>III. In the circle of Swabia.</p> | <p>The lordships of Wiesensteig, Mindelheim, and Schwabegg.</p> <p>IV. In the circle of the Lower Rhine.</p> <p>The Palatinate on the Rhine, or the Lower Palatinate.</p> <p>V. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The principalities of Simmen, Lautern, and Veldentz. 2. Part of the county of Sponheim. <p>VI. In the circle of Westphalia.</p> <p>The duchies of Juliers and Bergen.</p> |
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NOTE. The countries mentioned under I, II, and III, were formerly the electorate of Bavaria; and those under IV, V, VI, the electoral Palatinate.

All these states comprehend about 20,955 square miles*. The number of inhabitants is nearly two millions.

There existed in the sixth century, dukes of Bavaria. In the eleventh century, Ba-

* 990 German square miles.

varia became an hereditary dukedom. In 1623, the dukes of Bavaria obtained the fifth electoral dignity and the Upper Palatinate. After the death of the last elector and duke of Bavaria, in the year 1778, the elector of the Palatinate obtained possession of the electorate of Bavaria, and both conjointly are since called the Electoral Palatinate of Bavaria. Few parts of Germany are less populous, or worse cultivated and improved, than Bavaria. The king of Prussia in his posthumous history, terms this country a terrestrial paradise inhabited by beasts.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

1. Munich, the capital of Bavaria, is situated on the river Isar. For its straight and spacious streets, and grand buildings, both for religious, civil, and literary purposes, it is justly ranked amongst the finest cities in Germany. The ducal palace or castle is a most noble building, and the churches are numerous and rich. This city contains 50,000 inhabitants.

2. Mannheim, the present residence of the elector Palatine of Bavaria, and a strong fortress, lies on an extensive plain at the junction of the rivers Neckar and Rhine. Compared with other cities of Germany, Mannheim is a place that has but lately risen into consequence. In the year 1606, it consisted merely of an old castle and village, when the elector Frederic IV. began to build the present town, and to people it with refugees from the Netherlands, who fled there to enjoy liberty of conscience. It is now one of the grandest and best fortified cities in Germany. The streets are spacious, and cross each other at right angles, as in Philadelphia. Through the munificence and partiality of the electors to this place, nothing has been neglected that could contribute to its riches and splendor. It contains 20,000 inhabitants.

DOMINIONS OF THE ELECTOR OF SAXONY.

I. In the circle of Upper Saxony.

1. Electoral Saxony, containing the duchy of Saxony, the greatest part of the margraviate of Meissen, a part of Thuringia and the Voigtland, the principality of Querfurt, and the county of Barby, which states are divided into seven circles.
2. The bishoprics of Merseburg and Naumburg.
3. Part of the county of Mansfeldt.

II. In the circle of Franconia.

Part of the county of Henneberg.

III. Lusatia.

1. The margraviate of Upper Lusatia.
2. The greatest part of the margraviate of Lower Lusatia.

NOTE. The elector of Saxony has also the sovereignty over a part of the county of Stolberg, in Upper Saxony; and the counts of Schoenburg, in Upper Saxony, hold their lands as fiefs of him.

The electorate of Saxony, including Lusatia, is one of the finest and most fertile countries in Europe, abounding in grain, fruits, wine, salt, silver, tin, and other metals, and precious stones. It contains 15,578 square miles*, and about two millions of people.

The electors of Saxony are descendants of the old margraves of Meissen, whose origin was in the fifth century. In the fourteenth century, the latter became dukes and electors of Saxony. The elector Frederic the mild, who lived in the beginning of the fifteenth century, had two sons, Ernest and Albert, the founders of the two lines in the house of Saxony. From the younger, or Albertinian line, descends the present electoral house; and the dukes of Saxe Weimar, Gotha, Coburg, &c. are of the elder or Ernestinian line.

* 736 German square miles.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

1. Dresden, the capital, is situated on both sides of the river Elbe, over which is a stone bridge, 630 paces in length, and supported by nineteen piers. It is surrounded by strong and handsome fortifications, and contains, according to the best accounts, 50,000 inhabitants. All the buildings are constructed with square free-stone, and are almost all of the same height. The streets are wide, straight, well-paved, clean, and well illuminated in the night; and the squares, churches, and other public buildings, are so elegant, and disposed in such a manner, that the capital of Saxony may very properly be called one of the handsomest and most magnificent cities in the world. The elector's palace is a superb structure, and abounds in many curiosities, both of nature and art. The collection of pictures is one of the finest that exists, and is valued at 500,000*l.* sterling. Not far from Dresden is the electoral palace, where the late well-known treaty of alliance was concluded between the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony, with a view to counter-act, as much as possible, the principles of the French revolution.

2. Leipzig is situated in a pleasant and fertile plain on the Plieffe. Its inhabitants are 30,000. The suburbs are large and well built, with handsome gardens. Between these and the town is a fine walk of lime trees, which encompasses the city. The streets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night, with more than 700 lamps. They reckon here 436 mercantile houses, and 192 manufactures of different articles. Many of the houses of the rich merchants resemble the palaces of princes.

DOMINIONS OF THE ELECTOR OF HANOVER, KING OF BRITAIN.

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| <p>I. In the circle of Lower Saxony.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The principality of Calenberg. 2. The principality of Grubenhagen. 3. The principality of Lunenburg. 4. The duchy of Bremen. 5. The duchy of Saxe Lauenburg. 6. The land of Hadeln. | <p>II. In the circle of Westphalia.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The principality of Verden. 2. The counties of Höya, Diepholtz, and Bentheim. <p>III. In the circle of Upper Saxony.</p> <p>The county of Hohenstein.</p> |
|--|---|

These states contain about 10,879 square miles*, and between eight and nine hundred thousand inhabitants.

The electors of Brunswic Lunenburg, commonly called the electors of Hanover, and the dukes of Brunswic Wolfenbittel, are descendants of the powerful dukes, who, in the twelfth century, possessed the duchies of Saxony and Bavaria, besides great territories in Swabia and Italy. Towards the close of the twelfth century, duke Henry the lion lost the greater part of these dominions. The duchy of Brunswic had its origin soon after. In the seventeenth century, it was divided into two lines, the elder of which is Brunswic Wolfenbittel, and the younger Brunswic Lunenburg or Hanover. The latter was honoured in 1692, with the ninth electoral dignity, and, in 1714, with the crown of Britain.

Hanover, the capital, stands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city, and pretty well fortified. The electoral palace makes no great show outwardly, but within it is richly furnished. In the neighbourhood of the city are the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhausen. The inhabitants are 15,000.

* 514 German square miles.

DOMINIONS OF THE ELECTOR OF MENTZ.

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| I. In the circle of the Lower Rhine.
The archbishopric of Mentz.
II. In the circle of Upper Saxony.
1. The city of Erfurt, with its territory in Thuringia. | 2. The Aichsfeld.
III. In the circle of Franconia.
The county of Rieneck.
IV. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.
Part of the county of Koenigstein. |
|--|--|

The archbishopric of Mentz was founded in 750. The present elector is also bishop of Worms. All his dominions, Worms included, contain 2963 square miles*, and between three and four hundred thousand inhabitants.

Mentz, or Mayence†, the capital, lies on the river Rhine, not far from the place where it is joined by the river Maine. From its situation and strength, it is considered as one of the most important barriers of the empire against France. The modern plan of improvement in the fortifications was not completed, when general Custine made himself master of the place. Here are many magnificent churches venerable for their antiquity. The town is populous, but, like most of the ancient cities of Europe, the major part of the houses are inelegant, and the streets narrow. Near the city, the elector has a palace called Martinsburg. The inhabitants are computed at 27,000.

DOMINIONS OF THE ELECTOR OF TREVES.

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|--|---|
| I. In the circle of the Lower Rhine.
1. The archbishopric of Treves.
2. The greatest part of the county of Lower Yfenburg. | II. In the circle of Upper Rhine.
1. The abbey of Prum.
2. Two-thirds of Muntzfelden. |
|--|---|

Treves is one of the oldest archbishoprics in Germany; the time of its erection is uncertain. The present elector is likewise bishop of Augsburg and provost of Ellwangen. All the states subject to Treves, Augsburg and Ellwangen included, contain 2520 square miles§, and between two and three hundred thousand inhabitants. Treves is an old city, well known in history, and the usual residence of the elector. Coblenz is a handsome and strong town, at the confluence of the Moselle and Rhine, containing 12,000 inhabitants. Here was formerly a Roman fort, and afterwards the residence of the kings of the Franks. The situation is delightful, in a fertile country, with mountains covered with vineyards. Over the Moselle is a stone bridge of twelve arches. A ferry machine, of a peculiar construction, is constantly passing from the city to the other side of the Rhine, where there is a very strong castle, which appears to be almost inaccessible to an enemy, and entirely commands the city.

DOMINIONS OF THE ELECTOR OF COLOGNE.

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|---|---|
| I. In the circle of the Lower Rhine.
1. The archbishopric of Cologne.
2. The duchy of Westphalen.
3. The county of Recklinghausen. | II. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.
The lordships of Brezenheim and Jachtuhl. Of the latter he is only liege-lord. |
|---|---|

This archbishopric was founded in 743. The present elector of Cologne is also bishop of Munster, and high master of the Teutonic order. All his states, including the bishopric of Munster in Westphalia (the territory of which is about 4200 square

* 140 German square miles.

§ 120 German square miles.

† It was here that printing was first invented by John Faust, in 1447.

miles) and the masterdom of Mergentheim in Franconia, contain 7027 square miles (332 German), and between five and 600,000 inhabitants.

Bonn, the residence of the elector, is situated on the Rhine, and though not large, has many good houses.

DOMINIONS OF THE LANDGRAVES OF HESSE.

Hesse Cassel.	
I. In the circle of Upper Rhine.	The greatest part of the county of Schaumburg.
1. Lower Hesse.	Hesse Darmstadt.
2. Part of Upper Hesse.	I. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.
3. Principality of Hersfeld.	1. Part of Upper Hesse.
4. County of Hanau Muntzenberg.	2. County of Upper Katzenellenbogen.
5. County of Lower Katzenellenbogen.	3. County of Hanau Lichtenberg.
II. In the circle of Franconia.	NOTE. The greatest part of the latter is situated in Alsace.
Part of the county of Henneberg.	
III. In the circle of Westphalia.	

The house of Hesse has been in possession of this landgraviate since the thirteenth century. In the seventeenth, two lines arose in the family, Hesse Cassel, and Hesse Darmstadt. Hesse Rheinfels and Hesse Philipsthal, are collateral branches of the former, and Hesse Hamburg of the latter. All are called landgraves of Hesse. The territories of Hesse Cassel contain 3302 square miles (156 Germ.), and those of Hesse Darmstadt 2159 (102 Germ.), in all 5461 square miles. The population of the former is between four and 500,000, and of the latter from two to 300,000.

Cassel on the Fulda, is the residence of the landgrave of Hesse Cassel. It is divided into the old, new, and high towns. The new town is best built. The whole is strongly fortified, but the works are irregular. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants, of whom a great proportion are French protestants. The landgraves have spared no pains nor expense to enrich this city with the most curious and valuable works of art. Darmstadt is the principal place in the landgraviate of the same name.

DOMINIONS OF THE DUKE OF WURTEMBERG.

I. In the circle of Swabia.	II. In the circle of Franconia.
1. The duchy of Wurtemberg.	Part of the lordship of Limburg.
2. The lordships of Weilsheim and Juffingen.	III. The county of Mumpelgard.

There were counts of Wurtemberg as early as the twelfth century. In 1495, they obtained the title of duke. Their territories contain about 3281 square miles, (155 Germ.), and 600,000 inhabitants.

Stuttgart, the capital of Wurtemberg, is pleasantly situated on a fruitful plain near the river Neckar. The city is not large, but its two suburbs are considerable and well-built, containing 20,000 persons. This is a very old place, and can boast of several public buildings and institutions, which do credit to the taste and genius of the dukes who have governed it.

DOMINIONS OF THE MARGRAVE OF BADEN.

I. In the circle of Swabia.	II. In the circle of the Upper Rhine.
1. The margraviate of Baden.	Part of the county of Sponheim.
2. The county of Eberstein.	

The margraves of Baden had their origin in the eleventh century, and descend from the dukes of Zähringen. From the year 1503 till 1772, there were two reigning lines, viz. Baden Baden, and Baden Durlach. Since the death of the last mar-

grave of Baden Baden in 1772, the house of Baden Durlach has been in possession of the whole margraviate, and all the lands belonging to it. These states contain about 1376 square miles (65 German), and two hundred thousand inhabitants. Durlach is the capital, and Carlsruhe the residence of the margrave.

DOMINIONS OF THE DUKES OF BRUNSWIC WOLFENBUTTEL.

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| <p>I. In the circle of Lower Saxony.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The principality of Wolfenbuttel. 2. The principality of Blankenburg. | <p>II. In the circle of Upper Saxony.</p> <p>The lordship of Walkenried.</p> <p>III. In the circle of Westphalia.</p> <p>The bailiwick of Thedinghausen.</p> |
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These states contain 1990 square miles (94 German), and 185,000 inhabitants. Brunswic is the chief city. It is of a square form, divided in the middle by the river Ocker, which has been made navigable to this place. It is about two miles in circumference, and strongly fortified. On the ramparts is a mortar-piece of brass, ten feet six inches long, and nine feet two inches in circumference, weighing one thousand eight hundred quintals, and having ninety-three quintals of iron in its carriages. It will carry a ball of seven hundred and thirty pounds weight to the distance of thirty-three thousand paces, and throw a bomb of a thousand weight; but it requires fifty-two pounds of powder for a charge. The military academy here, is resorted to from many parts of Germany, &c. The number of persons in this city is about twenty-two thousand.

DOMINIONS OF THE DUKES OF SAXONY.

The dukes of Saxony, of the elder or Ernestinian line, are divided into two principal lines, Saxe Weimar and Saxe Gotha. Of the latter, Saxe Hildburghausen and Saxe Meinungen are collateral branches. Their dominions are,

In the circle of Upper Saxony, the principalities of Weimar, Eisenach, and Gotha, which are a part of the landgraviate of Thuringia, and the principality of Altenburg, which is a part of the margraviate of Meissen; in the circle of Franconia, the principality of Coburg, and a part of the county of Henneberg. The silver mines, the university and the Aulic court at Jena, are held in joint possession by the five dukes. The dominions of each are as follow:

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|---|--|
| <p>I. Saxe Weimar.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The principality of Weimar. 2. The principality of Eisenach. 3. Part of the county of Henneberg. <p>II. Saxe Gotha.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The principality of Gotha. 2. The greatest part of the principality of Altenburg. <p>III. Saxe Coburg Saalfeld.</p> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Part of the principality of Coburg. 2. Part of the principality of Altenburg. <p>IV. Saxe Hildburghausen.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Part of the principality of Coburg. 2. Part of the county of Henneberg. <p>V. Saxe Meinungen.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The greatest part of the principality of Coburg. 2. Part of the county of Henneberg. |
|---|--|

The number of square miles, and the population of each, as stated in Randel's Statistical view, in 1792, are as follow,

Dominions of	Square miles.		Population.	Capitals and residences.
	German.	English.		
Saxe Weimar	35	741	108,000	Weimar.
Saxe Gotha	53	1122	165,000	Gotha.
Saxe Coburg Saalfeld	17	360	58,000	Coburg.
Saxe Hildburghausen	10	212	30,000	Hildburghausen.
Saxe Meinungen	23	487	70,000	Meinungen.
Total	138	2922	431,000	

Dominions of the king of Denmark, in Germany, see page 440.

Dominions of the king of Sweden, in Germany, see page 441.

DOMINIONS OF THE DUKES OF MECKLENBURG.

The dukes of Mecklenburg, whose possessions are the duchy of Mecklenburg, and the principalities of Schwerin and Ratzeburg, all situated in Lower Saxony, descend from the Vandalian prince Privislav, who, towards the end of the twelfth century, embraced the christian faith. In 1348, Mecklenburg was created a duchy, and afterwards divided into Mecklenburg Schwerin, and Mecklenburg Gustrow. There are at present two branches of this family, namely, those of Schwerin and Strelitz. Their possessions are as follow :

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|--|--|
| <p>I. Mecklenburg Schwerin.</p> <p>1. The duchy of Mecklenburg Schwerin.</p> <p>2. The greater part of the duchy of Mecklenburg Gustrow.</p> | <p>3. The principality of Schwerin.</p> <p>II. Mecklenburg Strelitz.</p> <p>1. The lesser part of the duchy of Mecklenburg Gustrow.</p> <p>2. The principality of Ratzeburg.</p> |
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Mecklenburg Schwerin contains 5080 square miles (300 German), and Mecklenburg Strelitz 1270 (60 Germ.); in all 6350 square miles (300 German). The whole population amounts to 300,000 souls.

Schwerin and New Strelitz are the capitals, and residences of the dukes.

DOMINIONS OF THE DUKE OF DEUXPONTS.

The duke of Deuxponts is a near kinsman to the elector palatine of Bavaria, both being descendants of the old dukes of Bavaria, and counts palatine of the Rhine, out of which house Rupert III. was chosen emperor, in the eleventh century. He holds the first rank among the princes of the empire on the secular bench. His dominions are in the circle of the Upper Rhine.

1. The principality of Deuxponts.
2. Part of the county of Sponheim.

They contain about 635 square miles (30 Germ.), and 60,000 inhabitants.

Deuxponts is the capital and residence of the duke.

DOMINIONS OF THE DUKE OF OLDENBURG.

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| <p>I. In the circle of Westphalia.</p> <p>The duchy of Oldenburg.</p> | <p>II. In the circle of Lower Saxony.</p> <p>The bishopric of Lubec or Eutin.</p> |
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The counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst were, after the year 1448, a part of the Danish dominions, as Christian, count of Oldenburg, was then created king of Denmark, by the name of Christian I. From him the present regal house of Denmark is descended. In 1765, the two counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst, were ceded by Denmark to Russia for a part of Holstein, and, in 1773, they were made a duchy, and given, by the empress of Russia, to the dukes of Holstein Gottorp, of the younger line, who, since the year 1586, have been in possession of the bishopric of Lubec or Eutin.

The duchy of Oldenburg and bishopric of Lubec contain, together, about 952 square miles, (45 Germ.), and 90,000 inhabitants. The revenues amount to 350,000 florins (175,000 Spanish dollars).

Oldenburg and Lubec are the capitals, and the latter is the residence of the duke and bishop.

DOMINIONS OF THE PRINCES OF ANHALT.

These princes descend from the old dukes of Saxony, who possessed the county of

Anhalt, which, in the fourteenth century, was made a principality. It is situated in the circle of Upper Saxony, and divided into four parts or principalities, named, after the four branches of the houses of Anhalt,

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| I. Anhalt Dessau. | III. Anhalt Koethen. |
| II. Anhalt Zerbst*. | IV. Anhalt Bernburg. |

They contain, together, about 1058 square miles (50 German), and above one hundred thousand inhabitants. The revenues are about 650,000 rix dollars, (487,500 Spanish dollars).

Dessau, Zerbst, Koethen, and Bernburg, are the capitals and residences of the four princes.

DOMINIONS OF THE PRINCES OF NASSAU.

The house of Nassau is divided into two branches, and has existed since the twelfth century.

1. Nassau Dietz Dillenburg.
2. Nassau Saarbruck Ufingen.

The princes of Nassau Dietz, or the house of Orange, hereditary stadtholders of Holland, have their dominions in the circle of Westphalia. They consist of the four counties of Diets, Siegen, Dillenburg, and Hademar, and the county of Spiegelburg; the latter is at present under the sovereignty of the elector of Hanover. The lands of the princes of Nassau Saarbruck Ufingen, are the four counties of Weilburg, Ufingen, Saarbruck, and Saarwerden, situated in the circle of the Upper Rhine. All the Nassau dominions contain about 1587 square miles (75 German), and 185,000 inhabitants. The revenues of the prince of Nassau Dietz, are about 400,000 florins, (200,000 Spanish dollars); and of Nassau Saarbruck Ufingen, about 150,000 florins, (75,000 Spanish dollars).

Dietz is the capital of Nassau Dietz, and Weildburg, Ufingen, and Saarbruck, the residences of the three princes of the elder line of the house of Nassau. The town of Wisbaden, in Nassau Ufingen, is famous for its warm baths.

DOMINIONS OF THE PRINCES OF SCHWARTZBURG.

The counts of Schwartzburg had their origin in the twelfth century. In 1697, they were created princes of the empire. At present they are divided into two lines.

1. Schwartzburg Sondershausen.
2. Schwartzburg Rudelstadt.

This principality, which is a part of Thuringia, in Upper Saxony, consists of two parts. The northern or lower division belongs to the prince of Sondershausen, and the southern, or upper division, to the Prince of Rudelstadt. The whole contains 846 square miles (40 Germ.) and 100,000 inhabitants.

Sondershausen and Rudelstadt are the capitals and residences of the princes.

DOMINIONS OF THE PRINCE OF WALDECK.

1. The county of Waldeck in the circle of the Upper Rhine.
2. The county of Pyrmont in the circle of Westphalia.

They contain 762 square miles (36 German,) and about 78,000 inhabitants.

Corbach is the capital, and Arolsen the residence of the prince. The town of Pyrmont is much resorted to, on account of its waters and baths.

* Anhalt Zerbst possesses also the lordship of Jever in Westphalia.

DOMINIONS OF THE COUNTS OF LIPPE.

There are two branches of this house,

1. Lippe Schauenburg.
2. Lippe Detmold.

Their dominions are parts of the counties of Schauenburg and Lippe, situated in the circle of Westphalia. They contain 741 square miles (35 Germ.) and above 70,000 inhabitants. Their revenues amounting to 200,000 rix dollars.

Buckeburg and Detmold are the residences of the counts of Lippe.

DOMINIONS OF THE PRINCES AND COUNTS OF REUSS.

The counts of Reufs are divided into two principal lines, the elder and the younger. Those of the elder or Graitz line, were, in 1778, created princes of the empire. In the younger line, are four reigning houses, namely, at Gera, Schleitz, Lobenstein, and Eberldorf. Their dominions are a part of the Voigtland in Upper Saxony, and contain 444 square miles (21 Germ.) and about 75,000 inhabitants. All the princes and counts of Reufs have the name Henry, and are distinguished by the number affixed to each, as Henry V. prince Reufs, or LIV. count Reufs. The two families of princes and counts reckon their sons separately. In the latter, all the branches number their male children promiscuously, according to the order of their birth. Each line counts from one to an hundred.

Graitz is the residence of the princes, and Gera, Schleitz, Lobenstein, and Eberldorf, are the residences of the counts Reufs.

SOME OF THE MOST CONSIDERABLE ECCLESIASTICAL STATES.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND } 1. The archbishopric of Saltsburg, in the circle of
BISHOPRICS. } Bavaria, which existed as early as the eighth century. It contains 3810 square miles (180 Germ.) and 200,000 inhabitants. The archbishop holds the first rank among the princes of the empire on the ecclesiastical bench.

Saltsburgh, the capital and residence of the archbishop, has 14,000 inhabitants. The town of Hallein has rich salt mines, yielding yearly about 750,000 cwt.

2. The bishopric of Passau, in the circle of Bavaria, was founded in the eighth century. It has a territory of 318 square miles (15 Germ.) and 25,000 inhabitants.

Passau, the capital and residence of the bishop, is known in history on account of the peace made here, in 1552.

3. The bishopric of Bamberg, in the circle of Franconia, was founded in the eighth century. It has a population of 180,000 persons, on a territory of 1376 square miles, (65 Germ.)

Bamberg is the capital and residence of the bishop.

4. The bishopric of Wurzburg, in the circle of Franconia, was founded in the eleventh century. It contains 1905 square miles (90 Germ.) and between 2 and 300,000 inhabitants.

Wurzburg, the capital and residence of the bishop, is well fortified.

5. The bishopric of Spire, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, was founded in the fourth century. Including the provostship of Weissenburg, it has a population of about 30,000 souls, on 254 square miles (12 German).

Bruchsal is the residence of the bishop.

6. The bishopric of Hildesheim, in the circle of Lower Saxony, was founded in the ninth century. It contains 1058 square miles (50 Germ.) and 100,000 inhabitants.

Hildesheim is the capital, and residence of the bishop.

7. The bishopric of Paderborn, in the circle of Westphalia, was founded in the ninth century. It has a territory of 1164 square miles (55 Germ.) and about 100,000 inhabitants.

Paderborn is the capital and residence of the bishop.

8. The bishopric of Osnabrig, in the circle of Westphalia, was founded in the ninth century. It contains 1185 square miles (56 Germ.) and 120,000 inhabitants. At the peace of Westphalia, it was stipulated that the bishops of Osnabrig should be alternately of the Roman catholic and Lutheran religion, and that the Lutheran bishops should always be elected out of the house of Brunswic Lunenburg. The present bishop is the duke of York, second son to George III. king of England.

Osnabrig is the capital. In the town-house of this city, the famous peace of Westphalia was concluded in 1648.

9. The bishopric of Liege (Luttich) in the circle of Westphalia, is said to have been founded as early as the beginning of the second century. It contains 2222 square miles (105 German) and 220,000 inhabitants.

Liege, the capital and residence of the bishop, is a very large and well fortified city. It has 80,000 inhabitants. Great quantities of pit-coal are dug in its neighbourhood.

10. The bishopric of Fulda, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, was founded in the eighth century, and contains above 635 square miles (30 German) and 80,000 inhabitants.

Fulda is the capital and residence of the bishop.

IMPERIAL CITIES.] The imperial cities may be considered as so many republics or states, under the protection and sovereignty of the emperor and empire. Their number is fifty-one, viz. one in Bavaria*, thirty-one in Swabia†, five in Franconia‡, five in Upper Rhine§, three in Westphalia||, and six in Lower Saxony**. Some of them have a territory subject to their jurisdiction. That of Nuremberg is the largest, being 635 square miles (30 Germ.) Ulm has a territory of 360 square miles (17 Germ.); others, of from 10 to 120.

The most remarkable are :

1. Ratibon, or Regensburg, a large and populous city on the Danube, over which is an old bridge built of free stone. It was formerly the capital of Bavaria, and the residence of the elector. The grand diet of the empire has sat here, with very little interruption, ever since the year 1663, which has rendered this place well known in the history of modern Europe. The number of inhabitants is 21,500.

2. Augsberg, one of the oldest and most remarkable cities in Germany, and the capital of the circle of Swabia, is seated near the confluence of two small rivers,

* Ratibon or Regensburg.

† 1. Augsberg, 2. Ulm, 3. Eßling, 4. Reutling, 5. Nordling, 6. Swabishall, 7. Heilbrun, 8. Menningen, 9. Lindau, 10. Kempten, 11. Isny, 12. Leutkirch, 13. Gingen, 14. Buchhorn, 15. Aalen, 16. Bopfing, 17. Ueberling, 18. Rothweil, 19. Gemund, 20. Weil, 21. Wangen, 22. Pfullendorf, 23. Offenburg, 24. Zell, 25. Buchau, 26. Dinkelspiehl, 27. Biberach, 28. Ravensburg, 29. Kaufbeuren, 30. Wimpfen, 31. Gingenbach.

‡ Nuremberg, Rothenburg, Windsheim, Schweinfurt, Weissenburg.

§ Worms, Spire, Frankfort on the Maine, Wetzlar, Friedberg.

|| Cologne, Aix-la-Chapelle, Dortmund.

** Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, Goslar, Nordhausen, Muhlhausen.

in as beautiful a plain as can be imagined. It is one of the largest and handsomest cities of the empire. Many of the churches are stately, and adorned with curious workmanship and paintings. Its magnificent town-house is little inferior to that of Amsterdam. The colleges, public fountains, &c. are splendid; and the water towers, by which the whole city is supplied with water, are very curious. In short, every thing here tends to impress the mind with suitable ideas of the grandeur of this city, when at the zenith of its prosperity in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. . Then it was the principal commercial city in the south of Germany. The town contains at present 36,000 inhabitants.

3. Ulm, in Swabia, lies on the Danube, over which is built a stone bridge. The inhabitants are 15,000.

4. Nuremberg, or Nurnberg, is a large well-built city, in the circle of Franconia. It is rendered pleasant by the vast number of noblemen's seats, and fine villages, that adorn the neighbouring country. The city itself contains 500 streets, and the greater part of the houses are of stone. The number of inhabitants are not proportioned to the vast extent of the place, being only 30,000. Here watches were first invented in 1477.

5. Frankfurt on the Maine is situated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country, along the river Maine, by which it is divided into two parts, distinguished by the names of Frankfurt and Saxenhausen. Over the Maine is built a good stone bridge. This city is the usual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and emperors; and here the golden bull is preserved, which is the original of the fundamental laws of the empire. Here also is the general imperial post-office. Frankfurt may be pronounced a handsome, strong, and rich place. Its trade is very great. The inhabitants are at least 36,000 in number.

6. Worms, in the circle of the Upper Rhine, is a city often mentioned in history. Here many diets of the empire, &c. have formerly been held. The wine produced in the neighbourhood, is excellent. The inhabitants are 6000.

7. Spire, also in the circle of the Upper Rhine, was built before the birth of Christ. It was entirely destroyed by the French, in 1689, since which it has not recovered its former consequence. The inhabitants are 5,500.

8. Wetzlar, another ancient city, in the same circle, is chiefly famous because the imperial chamber court has been held there since the year 1693. It contains 8000 inhabitants.

9. Cologne, an ancient and celebrated city, in the circle of Westphalia, is seated on the river Rhine. It is fortified with strong walls, flanked with eighty-three large towers, and surrounded with three ditches; but these fortifications being executed after the ancient manner, could make but an indifferent defence at present. Though one of the largest cities of Europe, it is at the same time one of the most gloomy. The inhabitants are 40,000, a small number for so large a place; and the common people are very poor. This city is perhaps the most remarkable of any in the world, for the great number of precious relics it contains. Gunpowder was invented here in 1330, by Barthold Schwartz.

10. Aix-la-Chapelle, or Aachen, is also an ancient and celebrated city. All authors are agreed as to its antiquity, it being mentioned in Cesar's commentaries, and the annals of Tacitus. It lies in a valley, and is surrounded by two walls. The houses are well-built, the streets clean, and the public buildings magnificent. The market place is very spacious. In the middle, before the stadthouse, is a fountain of blue stones, which throws out water from six pipes, into a marble basin placed beneath, thirty feet in circumference. The stadthouse is adorned with the statues of all the emperors since Charlemagne. This fabric has three stories, the upper of which is one entire room, of 162 feet in length, and 60 in breadth. In this, the newly elected emperors formerly entertained all the electors of the

empire. Aix-la-Chapelle is famous for its warm baths, and for the peace concluded here in the year 1748. Its trade is considerable, and the inhabitants are computed at 25,000.

11. Hamburg, in Lower Saxony, see page 441.

12. Lubeck, in Lower Saxony, see page 440.

13. Bremen, a large, populous, and strong trading town, on the river Weser. It is divided into four quarters, each of which has a burgomaster; and in the middle there is a large market place, with the statue of Rolando. The inhabitants are 40,000.

COINS AND MONIES OF ACCOUNT.] There is no coin made under the name, and with the image and arms of the emperor. Not only the electors, but many other princes of the empire, and the imperial cities, have the right of coining. Among the different feet or standards for coining silver, the most noted are: the Zinna foot made in 1667, the Leipzig foot made in 1690, and the convention foot made in 1753. The latter is adopted in Austria, Bavaria, Electoral Saxony, Franconia, Swabia, and the Rhine circles.

The German gold coins are:

Portugalöser, coined in	Hamburgh and Lubec, value,	24	Span. dol.
Severins,	Austria, about,	6	
August dorsi,	Electoral Saxony,	3	2-3
Carolins,	Palatine Bavaria,	3	2-3
Georgs dor,	Hanover,	3	2-3
Friedrichs dor,	Prussian dominions,	3	2-3
Carl dor,	Brunswic Wolfenbuttel,	3	2-3
Max dor,	Bavaria,	3	2-3
Ducats,	in several states,	2	

Of silver coins great quantities of species thaler are coined in Saxony. A species thaler is equal to one and one-third of a rix dollar, and nearly agrees in value with a Spanish dollar. A gulden (florin) is half a species thaler.

Of the monies wherein accounts are kept, the most common are: reichsthaler (rix dollars) reichsgulden (florins) and mark. According to the convention foot, the reichsthaler is little more than two-thirds of a Spanish dollar, or sixty-six cents; the reichsgulden, equal to half a Spanish dollar, or fifty cents. A mark banco of Hamburg, is one-third of a Spanish dollar, and a mark courant a little less.

Accounts are kept: 1. In reichsgulden (florins) in the southern part of Germany, namely in the circles of Austria, Bavaria, Swabia, and Franconia; in the states of Mentz and Palatine in Lower Rhine; in Frankfurt on the Maine, and other places of the circle of the Upper Rhine; in Neuweid, Juliers, and Berg in Westphalia, and in Bohemia and Moravia. One reichsgulden (florin) is sixty kreutzer, at four pfennige. In the duchy of Wurtemberg, a florin is subdivided into twenty-eight shillings, at six pfennige.

2. In rix dollars, in the northern part of Germany, namely in the circles of Upper and Lower Saxony, in part of the circles of Westphalia, Upper and Lower Rhine, and in Lusatia and Silesia. The subdivisions of the rix dollars differ. In Leipzig and all electoral and ducal Saxony, in Berlin and the whole Mark Brandenburg, in the duchy of Magdeburg, the imperial city of Muhlhausen, and all Lusatia, a rix dollar is 24 groschen, at 12 pfennige. In Hanover, Brunswic, Hildesheim, Minden, Ravensberg, Osnabrig, and Paderborn, a rix dollar is 36 mariengroschen, at eight pfennige; in Hesse-Cassel, thirty-two albus at nine pfennige; in Munster, twenty-eight shillings, at twelve pfennige; in Hamburg, Lubeck, Mecklenburg, Holstein, and Swedish Pomerania, forty-eight shillings, at twelve pfennige; in Bremen, seventy-two grot, at five schwar; in Aix-la-Chapelle, fifty-four mark, at six buschen; in Cologne, eighty albus, at twelve heller; in Treves, fifty-four peter-

manngen; in Frankfurt on the Maine, ninety kreutzer, at four pfennige; in Breslau and all Silesia, thirty silbergroschen, at twelve denaren; in East Friesland, fifty-four stuver at ten witten; in Cleves, Prussian Guelderland, Mark, and Meurs, all in the circle of Westphalia, sixty stuver, at four ort; at Tecklenburg and Osnabrig, twenty-one shillings, at twelve pfennige.

3. Marks of sixteen shillings, at twelve pfennige, are the monies of account in Hamburg, Lubeck, Mecklenburg, Holstein, and other parts of Lower Saxony circle.

HISTORY.] The first notice of Germany, by ancient historians, occurs in the commentaries of Julius Cæsar. He says, that the Gauls, in the course of their domestic quarrels, had invited over the Germans to assist them in deciding the contest. From being the allies of one party, these foreigners very soon became the oppressors of both. In a few years, they multiplied, to an hundred and twenty thousand, and there appeared no end to their demands, and depredations. Cæsar wished only for a pretence to employ his legions; and at the desire of some nations of the Gauls, he gave battle to these barbarians. Eighty thousand Germans are said to have been slain. Three years after this decisive victory, an immense body of these people, to the amount, as Cæsar affirms, of four hundred and thirty thousand persons, were driven out of their country into Gaul, by the Suevi, a tribe of uncommon ferocity. Cæsar attacked the fugitives, who were routed with a prodigious slaughter. The Roman commander next threw a bridge over the Rhine, and entered Germany, not with a view to conquest, but by way of bravado. From this time, the wars of the Germans with the Roman empire, became almost incessant. In the latter end of the reign of Augustus, three entire legions, consisting of perhaps twenty thousand men, were surprised and cut to pieces by Arminius, a German of superior military talents. Tacitus has left behind him a treatise on the manners of the Germans. He expatiates on their martial and domestic virtues; but, after all that he has said, it appears that they were a race of restless barbarians, whose thirst for blood was insatiable. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occasionally connected by a military union, for defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberty of the whole. At length the Roman power, directed by policy, prevailed over a great part of Germany, which was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was invaded by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480, and a considerable part of it long remained in subjection to earls and marquisses 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, when Charlemagne, one of those eccentric and superior men, who sometimes arise 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, resuming their original independence, rejected the Carolinian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has 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 those emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and in-

veteracy, disturbed the empire for several ages. The emperors were likewise frequently at war with the Turks; and the German princes often contended for the succession to the imperial dignity. 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 kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raised by Charlemagne, fell asunder, all the different independent princes assumed the right of election; and those who have since been 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. As they lived near the king's person, and had, like all the other princes, independent territories belonging to them, they gradually increased their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III. of the house of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor. Thus, while in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and 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 rights of the people. Otho I. having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, obtained 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. in the year 1122, surrendered up the right of investiture and other powers; but pope Benedict XII. refusing, in 1338, absolution to Lewis V. of Bavaria, it was declared, in the diet of the empire, that the majority of suffrages of the electoral college should confer the empire, without the consent of the pope; that he had no superiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II. archduke of Austria, was elected emperor, and the imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his successors, Maximilian, married the heiress of Charles duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the house of Austria. Charles V. grandson of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards; and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in several parts of Germany, which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Westphalia, 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 his ambitious projects at the commencement of his reign, his good fortune, at last, began to forsake him; which, with other reasons, occasioned his abdication of the crown. The great duke of Sully, in his inestimable memoirs, has recorded his opinion of this emperor. He displays, in terms of contempt and indignation, the folly and guilt of the designs of Charles; and he embraces the same opportunity to reprobate, in the most unqualified language of abhorrence, the idea of a nation attempting to become powerful by foreign conquest. Ferdinand I. the brother of Charles, who in 1558 succeeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. His son Maximilian was declared king of the Romans in the lifetime of Ferdinand, who died in 1564. By his last will he ordered, that if either his own male issue, or that of his brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates should revert to his second daughter Anne, wife of the elector of Bavaria, and her posterity. We mention this destination, as it gave rise to the late opposition made by the house of Bavaria to the pragmatic sanction, in favour of the empress-queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian

II. was disturbed with internal commotions, and an invasion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Austria in his life-time. Rodolph was succeeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans, and Calvinists, were so much divided among themselves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The danger to which they were exposed, from 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 hoped to exterminate 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 James I. of England. Frederic accepted of the crown; but he soon 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 led gallant 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 best generals of the age. Christian IV. king of Denmark declared for them; and they were secretly supported by Richlieu, the French minister, who was averse to the aggrandizement of the house of Austria. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian, having put himself at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, a famous German general. Ferdinand so grossly abused the advantages obtained over the protestants, that they formed a fresh confederacy at Leipzig, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. We have already described his amazing victories and progress, till, in 1632, he was killed at the battle of Lutzen. But the protestant cause did not die with him. He had formed a phalanx of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torstenson, Banier, and others, who shook the Austrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munster, in the year 1648; which, till the present war against France, formed the basis of the political system of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637. His son Ferdinand III. died in 1657, and was succeeded by the emperor Leopold, a severe, unamiable, and unfortunate prince. He had two great antagonists to contend with; France on the one side, and the Turks on the other; and he was unfortunate in his wars 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 received into the Austrian service, and promoted to the grade of general, gave the Turks the first checks that they received in Hungary. By the peace of Carlowitz in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could hardly have withstood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards 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 successes of the duke of Marlborough did not prove to be so decisive as they were at first supposed. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was evident by his conduct, that he expected England should bear the burden of a war, which was chiefly carried on for his advantage. The English were disgusted at his torper and selfishness. He died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male children, he was succeeded in the empire by his brother Charles VI. whom the allies had been 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 made a feeble attempt to continue the war; but found himself incapable, when forsaken by the English. He was therefore obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden, in 1714, that he might attend the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat, from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They suffered another of equal importance from the same general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the Imperialists: and next year, the peace of Passarowitz was concluded between them and the Turks. Charles employed his leisure in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the house of Hanover; an event which gave him a very decisive weight in Europe, by the 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 capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones contradictory to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the safety of Hanover, and its aggrandisement, were the sole objects 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 sons. Mutual concessions upon those great points restored a good understanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony, allured by the prospect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished his claims upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor was very unfortunate in a war with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices that he had made in Italy to the princes of the house of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and there was 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 allay the apprehensions of the German and other European powers, had, before his death, given his eldest daughter, the late empress-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no sooner in the grave, than all the plans he had formed, must have been overthrown, but for the firmness of George II. The pragmatic sanction was attacked by various despots. The young king of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered, and conquered Silesia, which, he said, had been unjustly dismembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria asserted claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction, in which 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 free herself from the king of Prussia, was forced, by a formal treaty, to cede to that prince the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia.

Her youth, her beauty, her sufferings, and the fortitude with which she bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whose arms she threw herself and her infant son; and though they had been always remarkable for their disaffection to the house of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia. Charles VII. was at this time miserable on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions, as his ancestor in queen Anne's reign had been, for his alliance with France. He would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but she haughtily rejected all accommodation. This obstinacy afforded a pretence for the king of Prussia to invade Bohemia, in order to support 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 with great loss into 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, the emperor, 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. He enjoyed nothing but the title; for his spouse did not grant him even the shadow of authority.

The bad success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loss of the battle of Fountenoy, retarded the operations of the empress-queen against the king of Prussia. 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 so impolitic, that George II. guaranteed Silesia to the Prussians, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, Frederic 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 drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took possession of Dresden; which he held till a treaty was made, by which the king of Prussia acknowledged the duke of Lorraine as 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 terminated 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 coinciding with those of the empress-queen and the king of Poland, who were 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 George the second against that of the French. Upon these principles, all former differences between those monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000*l.* to Frederic during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now re-kindled with more fury than ever.

The elector of Saxony had been weak and wicked enough to enter into the conspiracy, which was formed for dividing the Prussian dominions. Frederic invaded his electorate. The Saxon army, to the number of seventeen thousand men, retired to the strong camp of Pirna. Frederic invested it, and Braun with an Austrian army attempted to give relief to the Saxons. His troops were repulsed in the battle of Lowositz, and the Saxon army, consisting of seventeen thousand men, surrendered at

discretion, and were enlisted by the king of Prussia. The next campaign was, so early as the 6th of May, distinguished by the battle of Prague, the most destructive perhaps that has been fought in the eighteenth century. The Prussians were victorious, with the loss of eighteen thousand men. Of the Austrians, nineteen thousand were slain, and five thousand taken prisoners. This is the statement of Frederic himself. His loss would have been much less, had not Mannstein, who commanded a part of the right wing of the Prussians, attacked the enemy in a situation almost impregnable, without waiting for orders. This act of temerity deranged the plan of Frederic; and the victory cost him, as he acknowledges, an exorbitant price. Part of the vanquished army, to the number of forty thousand men, fled into Prague. Frederic attempted to reduce it, and began his operations by a terrible bombardment. The immense garrison suffered much by famine; but count Daun advanced to relieve them, at the head of sixty thousand Austrians, and it was necessary for the king of Prussia to give him battle. Leaving part of his forces to continue the blockade of Prague, he advanced to meet the enemy. They engaged at Colin, on the 17th of June, 1757, and here Frederic, who, since his succession to the throne, had gained seven great victories, first experienced a defeat. The battle was extremely hard fought, and it was owing to the rashness of Mannstein, by engaging a second time unseasonably, that the Prussians lost it. Eight thousand of their infantry fell; and the carnage of the Austrians was undoubtedly very great. The king in his memoirs says, that if he could only have commanded a reserve of four battalions, he would have won the day, which would have rendered him in fact almost master of the German empire. The siege of Prague was instantly raised, and had Daun possessed courage or activity to pursue his advantage, the consequences must have been fatal to Prussia. So singular were the difficulties of Frederic, that he found it requisite to leave the presence of his victorious enemy, and give battle in another quarter of his dominions to a French army. They were routed at Rossbach on the 5th of November, with the loss of ten thousand men; and it was his next task to engage count Daun, who in his absence had defeated his general, the prince of Bevern, with great slaughter on both sides. Daun had sixty thousand men, and the king only thirty-three thousand. He acknowledges that on this battle, which was fought on the 5th of December, 1757, depended the fate of Prussia. By a variety of movements he deceived the enemy, and cast his whole army on the front, flank, and rear of one of the Austrian wings. The contest was supported with the most obstinate intrepidity on both sides; but the Austrians were compelled to yield. Breslau, the capital of Silesia, was immediately besieged, and soon after captured by the Prussians. The battle and the siege together cost the Austrians forty one thousand four hundred and forty-seven men. Thus ended the second campaign of the celebrated war of seven years, a war which, when considered in all its circumstances, has no parallel in history.

The third campaign began by the siege of Schweidnitz, which surrendered to the Prussians on the 14th of April, 1758. The king next attempted the capture of Olmutz, the capital of Moravia; but, after overcoming many difficulties, he was, on the 1st of July, forced to quit his works before that place. In June, of the preceding year, the Russians had invaded Prussia, which then lay at a considerable distance from the other dominions of the court of Berlin. They have since been united by the seizure of the Western Prussia, at the division of Poland, in the year 1771. The Russian army consisted of one hundred thousand men, and the Prussians of twenty-four thousand. A battle ensued at Jöägerndorf, on the 30th of August, 1757. The Prussians, who attacked an enemy four times their number, in strong entrenchments, were repulsed. But the Russians retreated soon after. They had re-

turned into Prussia, in the Summer of 1758, and had begun the siege of Cultrín. The whole country around this town was ravaged by Cossacks and other barbarians, who followed the Russian camp. The villages were in flames, and the inhabitants robbed and often murdered. Frederic advanced by one of these incredible marches, which excite, perhaps, still greater surprise than his victories, and, on the 26th of August, he attacked the enemy. The king, in his memoirs, says, that if he had not been straitened for want of time, he could easily, by a few marches, have forced the Russians to quit the country, without risking a battle. On that day, fifteen thousand of these savages were cut to pieces; for the Prussian cavalry gave them no quarter. An hundred and three field pieces, twenty-seven pair of colours and standards, eighty-two officers, and about two thousand private men, were taken. The victors lost about thirteen hundred men; and, had not their powder fallen short, the whole Russian army would, most likely, have been destroyed. The remains of the invaders fled with precipitation, and with additional loss, from the confines of Prussia. Frederic had not leisure to pursue this advantage, being compelled to march back to the former scene of action, to resist Daun. On the night of the 13th of October, the king was attacked in his camp at Hochkirchen by the Austrian general. He was reduced to the necessity of a retreat, with the loss of three thousand men. Of a considerable number of prisoners whom he had seized in the confusion of this obstinate engagement, only one general, and seven hundred men were brought safe to head quarters. The singularity of Frederic having been surprised, has induced historians to magnify this affair into a defeat; but Daun on the same day returned into his former camp, and “did not,” says the king, “appear to have obtained a victory.” Keith, a Scotchman, and some other officers of the highest merit, on the side of the Prussians, were slain.

On the 23d of June, 1759, the Prussian army, under general Wedel, attacked the Russians not far from Crossen, and were repulsed with the loss of between four and five thousand of their troops. On the 12th of July following, this army was attacked at Cunnerdorf, by Frederic himself, at the head, as has been said, of about fifty thousand men. The enemy had been reinforced by Laudohn, the Austrian general, with twelve thousand cavalry, and amounted to at least double the number of the Prussians. Frederic attacked them, drove them from several batteries with a terrible slaughter, and was on the point of gaining a complete victory. His account of the reverse of fortune, deserves to be inserted in his own words.—“The enemy abandoned a grand battery, at the Jewish burial-ground. On this battery, the Prussian infantry, which was only eight hundred paces distant, made an attempt to seize. *Who but must remark the slender thread, by which victory hangs suspended!* As they came up, within an hundred and fifty paces, Laudohn, perceiving the error of the Russians in forsaking their battery, arrived with his reserve sooner than the Prussians. He instantly caused the artillery to be loaded with case shot, which played upon, and deranged the assailants. The attack was several times renewed, but it was impossible to carry this battery, which commanded the whole ground. Laudohn, perceiving the countenance of the Prussians less firm, attacked them on the right and left with cavalry; the confusion became general, and the troops fled in disorder.” The Prussians lost ten thousand men, including three thousand prisoners; and the Russians twenty-four thousand. In October following, an entire army of Prussians, consisting of between twelve and fifteen thousand men, under general Finck, were forced to surrender their arms to Daun. Yet, after a campaign so fatal, Frederic still found himself in possession of all the ground which he had occupied during the former Winter.

In 1760, the first affair of consequence was the destruction of a Prussian army of eight thousand men, under general Fouquet. They were defeated by Laudohn

at the head of twenty-eight thousand. Nobody but the king of Prussia would have dreamed of victory after such severe losses. His troops had been so much destroyed, that one-half of them were recruits from the Saxon peasantry, and the rest deserters. Yet, with an army of thirty thousand men, he opposed Daun and Laudohn, commanding thrice that number. They determined to surprise him in his camp. "Daun," says he, "had more than troops sufficient. It was not numbers which he wanted, but the talent to employ them with timely promptitude." To accomplish their design with greater certainty, the two Austrian generals proposed to attack him from two different quarters with their respective armies. He suspected their intentions, and had adopted proper measures to disappoint them. At this critical moment, on the 15th of August, in the evening, an Austrian officer, who had deserted, was brought to the king. He was intoxicated, and could only stammer out that he had a secret of importance to reveal. Some basons of warm water were poured down his throat to relieve his stomach, after which he informed the king, that Daun was to attack him that very night. The Prussians advanced in an opposite direction, and, some hours before day-light, fell in with Laudohn, who was pushing forward to support the attack of Daun. The Austrians were completely routed. Four thousand were killed on the spot, and six thousand were made prisoners. The king had bread only for one day. He had eleven hundred wounded men to guard, and six thousand prisoners. Daun might still with facility have prevented him from drawing provisions from Schweidnitz, and the Russians, who were approaching with a third army, could have blocked up his passage to Breslau. He dispatched a letter to his brother Henry, informing him that he had entirely defeated the Austrians, and would very soon join Henry himself, in order to pay the same compliment to the Russians. The letter was entrusted to a peasant, who was persuaded to suffer himself to be made a prisoner by the scouts of the Russian army. Their general Czernicheff had scarcely read the letter, when he began his retreat. This was exactly what Frederic wanted. He could not, however, hinder a combination of the forces of these two nations much longer. On the 9th of October, twenty thousand Russians and eighteen thousand Austrians entered Berlin. Sixteen thousand of the Prussian forces retired before them, as the city, from its vast extent, and its want of fortifications, was incapable of defence. Had the king himself been at the head of those sixteen thousand men, perhaps the conjoined forces would not have waited for his approach. Frederic advanced to the relief of Berlin. The enemy retired without delay, on the 12th of October, after being in possession of that capital for about three days. To obtain proper winter quarters for his army, it was requisite to drive Daun from his entrenchments at Torgau. It has been said, on respectable authority, that the Austrian army amounted to eighty thousand men, and that of Frederic only to fifty thousand. Of the Prussians three thousand were slain, three thousand made prisoners, and seven thousand more wounded. But the Austrians lost twenty thousand men, of whom eight thousand, with four of their generals, were taken.

The year 1761 was not distinguished by any battle of equal importance. On the 8th of January, 1762, the empress of Russia died, and her successor, the unfortunate Peter III. "happened," says Frederic, "to possess an excellent heart, and sentiments more noble, and more elevated, than are usually found among sovereigns." He was in peaceable possession of the kingdom of Prussia, which in the course of this dreadful struggle had been wrested from its native sovereign. He restored this prize to its lawful monarch, and demanded in return only the alliance and the friendship of Frederic. "A proceeding so uncommon, so generous, so noble," says the royal historian, "deserves not only to be transmitted to posterity, but should be written with letters of gold in the cabinets of kings."

There is no other monarch in Europe, whose dominions are so thinly peopled, as those of Petersburg. The empress Elizabeth had supported five bloody campaigns against Frederic, with the loss, most likely, of two hundred thousand of her subjects, that she might conquer the kingdom of Prussia, though her empire was already by far the most extensive in the world. She gained the useless prize, which was restored by her successor, without his even asking an equivalent. History has not recorded a more signal example of guilt and folly, than in the conduct of Elizabeth, or of justice and magnanimity, than in that of Peter.

From this period, the war languished, and, happily for mankind, was, on the 15th of February, 1763, terminated by a general peace. The only action, after that of Torgau, which deserves notice in an epitome of this kind, was a victory obtained by Prince Henry of Prussia, in the end of October, 1762, over the Austrians. This affair, in which the vanquished army lost eight thousand of their number, becomes the more remarkable, because, except the victory of Kesseldorf, which was gained upon the 15th of December, 1745, by the prince of Anhalt, it was the only action of great importance that was ever won by the troops of the king of Prussia, in the absence of their monarch. By the peace, neither the empress nor Frederic obtained a foot of territory. Prussia had been deprived by the war, of an hundred and eighty thousand soldiers, besides thirty-three thousand of the peasantry and others who perished principally by the ravages of the Russians. Those barbarians had lost an hundred and twenty thousand men. The Austrians estimated their loss at an hundred and forty thousand; the French computed theirs at two hundred thousand; the English and their German allies reckoned an hundred and sixty thousand; the Swedes, twenty-five thousand; and the troops of the circles of the empire, who had made but a very sorry appearance, twenty thousand. These different numbers amount altogether to eight hundred and eighty-six thousand men. But this estimate, given by the king, is certainly very much inferior to the truth, with respect to Russia and Austria. It may be affirmed, without presumption, that the destruction of human lives in this furious and useless contest, did not fall short of a million.

In all the European editions of this work, it has been affirmed, that towards the close of the war, the empress-queen, in spite of the defection of Russia, could have overwhelmed Frederic, if it had not been for *the wise backwardness of the other German princes to annihilate the house of Brandenburg, and the visible backwardness of her own generals to execute her orders*. We have in vain searched, through various publications, for any evidences of this capacity on the part of the empress-queen, or of this imaginary reluctance on the part of her generals. As to the latter, they were mere soldiers of fortune, whose importance depended entirely on their implicit submission to the orders of their mistress; nor is there the least reason to believe, that they would have dared to hesitate about executing the most impolitic or barbarous commission.

Germany enjoyed tranquillity from this time, for about sixteen years. Upon the death of the emperor Francis, in 1765, his son Joseph, who had been crowned king of the Romans, in 1764, succeeded him in the imperial title. The late emperor, as we remarked above, had never been suffered by the empress-queen, to enjoy even the vestige of influence. In the war of seven years, he sold forage, as a private merchant, to the king of Prussia, when fighting with his own wife. He even lent her money to assist her in supporting her campaigns, upon receiving bonds, with proper security for their payment. Joseph, the eldest son of this extraordinary pair, was more ambitious than his father had been, and possessed a considerable share of authority, during the subsequent years of the reign of Maria Theresa. He was a partner in the execrable dismemberment of Poland, in the year 1771, and the king

of Prussia, in his account of that transaction, ascribes its origin to the restless ambition of the empress-queen. She had excited the confederates of Poland to a civil war, and there was the strongest ground to believe, as Frederic affirms, that she would have interfered in the contest between Turkey and Russia, in behalf of the former. Her minister Kaunitz was even base enough to obtain from the court of Constantinople, a sum in advance, on the promise of the assistance of the empress. At this time he had signed the treaty with the Turks, and a counter treaty, as to the division of Poland, with the courts of Petersburg and Berlin; nor was it known, which of them, his mistress or he, would have had the least scruple of breaking. Frederic says, that the partition of Poland was the only measure, by which a fresh war in Germany could be avoided. He does not attempt to vindicate the dismemberment, upon any pretence, but that of political expediency, and the absolute necessity of soothing the passions of Maria Theresa. This woman has been celebrated for her piety, which produced nothing but monuments of illiberal superstition, and atrocious despotism. Though, after the loss of Silesia, she possessed a much larger extent of dominion than almost any human capacity was equal to the task of governing with propriety, her rage for empire was insatiable. She declared, as her great antagonist has told us, that she would rather part with her under petticoat, than give up Silesia. She adhered to this declaration, till it had cost Germany a war of seven years, and Europe nine hundred thousand or a million of lives. Six years of peace had scarce elapsed, when she was once more ready to have plunged the north of Europe into an Abyss of bloodshed; and this catastrophe was only prevented by the most shameless transaction of modern ages, the partition of Poland. Yet the petty debaucheries of Messalina are mentioned with horror; while Maria Theresa is revered by one half of mankind as a saint, and by the other, as a virtuous and accomplished sovereign. The death of the elector of Bavaria produced, in 1778, a short war, in which Joseph on the one part, and the king of Prussia and the elector of Saxony on the other, were the principal parties. The claims of the emperor were extremely unjust. Vast armies were, on each side, brought into the field; consisting of not less, than between six and eight hundred thousand men. No action happened of much importance, and, in 1779, an accommodation took place. Joseph acquired a trifling tract of territory, at an expense, ten or perhaps an hundred times greater than it was worth. Into this contest the empress-queen was forced with the utmost reluctance. Though she had discovered such profound contempt for the sufferings, and the lives of her subjects, yet she was not divested of the common sensibilities of a parent. Her son, the emperor, had, in the course of the first campaign, exposed himself to personal danger; and from her correspondence with Frederic, as recorded in the memoirs of that monarch, it appears, that her anxiety for the safety of Joseph, hastened the termination of hostilities.

The emperor, had he died in an early part of his reign, would have descended to posterity with some degree of reputation, of which he unfortunately survived the last remnant. When young, he was universally and justly respected for his good sense, and humanity. He cultivated an intimacy with men of letters. He endeavoured to abolish in his dominions the feudal system. He suppressed several of the religious orders; and though this step was accompanied, in some cases, with much hardship and injustice to the individual friars and nuns, who were the immediate objects of it, the enlightened part of mankind were disposed to approve the general principle on which it was founded. He prohibited, in courts of justice, the use of the torture, that utmost reproach of modern jurisprudence. He granted a very liberal toleration of religious opinions. Amidst an immense mass of capricious and tyrannical edicts, he relieved the inferior classes of his subjects

from many grievances. But, when deprived of the superior cunning and abilities of his mother, his character incessantly declined. He was at once, like Peter the first of Russia, fired with a rage of foreign conquest, and domestic legislation. But he had neither the good fortune, nor the genius of that splendid barbarian. His attempt to open the navigation of the Scheldt, of which we have already taken notice, has indeed been vindicated, by candid and intelligent writers; but his method of enforcing, and his levity in deserting his demands, diminished his political reputation. His conduct in the Netherlands has been described under a former head. His demolition of the chain of fortresses in that country, the cause of so many bloody contests, can be ascribed only to infatuation. It serves to explain the subsequent progress of Dumourier, so rapid, when compared with that of Marlborough. He entered, in 1788, into a war with the Turks, professedly but as an auxiliary to the empress of Russia, without the smallest pretence of provocation from the Ottomans, who had made the most humiliating concessions to satisfy his rapacity, and to flatter his pride. At the time of his death, he may be said to have drank the bitterest dregs of the cup of human misery. Brabant was torn from him; Hungary asserting its independence; his armies, on the frontiers of Turkey, at best, in a very critical situation; his treasury exhausted; and his sister, the queen of France, just commencing the dreadful series of her calamities. As the last pang of distress, his daughter-in-law, the princess Elizabeth, expired, a few hours before himself, in child-birth. Adversity seems to have softened a heart of more than usual hardness, and some passages in his will announce a melancholy sensibility suitable to his condition. He died at Vienna, on the 20th of February, 1790, in the forty-ninth year of his age, in the twenty-sixth of his reign, as emperor of the Romans; and the tenth, asking of Hungary and Bohemia. By his first wife, the Princess of Parma, he had a daughter, Theresa Elizabeth, born in 1762; but she is dead. In 1765, he was married a second time, to the princess Josephina Maria, of Bavaria. She died in 1767. By her, he had no children, and he did not espouse a third consort. An epitaph, which he is said to have once wrote for himself, was thus accurate, even to minuteness. "Here lies Joseph the second, unfortunate in all his undertakings."

Few princes have ascended the throne, at a more critical period than Leopold the successor of Joseph. On the side of Turkey, he was involved in a destructive and unfortunate contest, from which it was impossible to retreat without disgrace. The nobles of Hungary were extremely discontented; and the Netherlands, the richest and most flourishing part of his dominions, were in a state of victorious rebellion. His treasury was exhausted, and the flower of his armies had perished in the preceding campaigns. By a series of good conduct and of good fortune, Leopold soon restored the importance of the house of Austria.

Under the article of the NETHERLANDS, we have already recited a part of the history of the revolution in that country. This affair was terminated by the prudence of Leopold. The particulars are as follow. In the month of January, 1790, just before the death of Joseph, the Belgic states had formed the outlines of a federal constitution. But here, as in the other old governments of Europe, a powerful aristocracy opposed the completeness of reformation. The leaders of the revolt were of that class; and their particular privileges were but so many infringements on the general rights of the citizens. When Joseph subverted the constitution of these provinces, the privileges of the superior orders were involved in one common ruin with the liberties of the people. All parties, therefore, were at first unanimous in reclaiming the ancient system, as more tolerable than the tyranny of Austria. But, when they had purchased their freedom at the price of their blood, the enlightened part of the community conceived, that, in establishing the new government, some alterations ought to be adopted. They

proposed to copy the modern and liberal ideas of civil policy ; and to suppress such parts of the ancient system as were unjust and oppressive. This plan did not correspond with the sentiments of the ruling powers. They bestowed additional privileges on the nobles and the clergy, and imposed additional burdens on the people.

They began by a public declaration of intolerance in religion. The liberty of the press was prohibited ; and state licensers were appointed. Arbitrary imprisonment was permitted ; and the friends of reformation were insulted, by the most alarming riots at Brussels and other places.

The death of Joseph was an inauspicious event for the independence of the Netherlands. Personal hatred, and dread of his revenge, had produced no small share of the resistance which he encountered. Leopold had offended nobody, and though his administration in Tuscany, had, in some respects, been capricious and despotic, it was, upon the whole, benevolent and liberal. The character of the new sovereign himself, was mild and popular. One of his first measures was to publish a conciliatory proclamation, inviting the revolted provinces to return to their allegiance. He pledged himself to restore their civil and ecclesiastical constitution, and promised to redress every grievance. He likewise entered into separate negotiations with the leaders of the two contending parties ; a circumstance which increased their mutual aversion and distrust.

The conduct of the governors of the Netherlands was badly adapted to strengthen their cause. Their sense of augmenting danger, did not induce them to pursue humane and generous measures to unite the affections of the nation. They commenced a career of tyranny, more odious and intolerable, if possible, than that of Joseph himself. The dungeons were crowded with state prisoners. For the regulation of their armies, the most sanguinary code of laws was established, that has, perhaps, ever been heard of since the days of Draco. To complete the impolicy and absurdity of their proceedings, several of the first nobility were arrested as traitors. Their real crime was, that they had been solicitous to extend to the inferior classes of the community the advantages of a better government. Hence, this party was at once thrown into the scale of Leopold.

As one specimen of the administration of the masters of Belgium, we shall mention their treatment of the French clergy. They expressed the utmost resentment at the proceedings of the revolutionists in France, for the confiscation of the estates of the monasteries ; and, as an evidence of their detestation of this measure, they themselves confiscated the estates of the French monks in the Netherlands. Thus they did exactly what the French reformers would have done, had they been in possession of the country.

Van der Mersch, their general, had acquired much reputation by his conduct ; but, having incurred the suspicion of the Belgic congress, he was committed prisoner to the castle of Anvers. He was succeeded in the command of the army by baron Schoenfeld, a Prussian. This officer was as arbitrary as the leaders of the revolt could desire. He hanged thirty soldiers in one day, for having deserted their posts ; and he forced a great number of able officers to quit the service. On the 23d of September, 1790, the insurgents, to the amount of sixty thousand men, came to a decisive engagement with the Austrians, who were only a fourth of that number. The Belgians were defeated with the slaughter of eight or ten thousand men. Multitudes were cut to pieces while begging for mercy. A number were hanged on the field of battle, and among the rest an hundred and ten of the clergy. Forty-three thousand Austrian troops soon after spread over the Netherlands. The desertion of the powers of Europe, on whom the insurgents depended for protection, struck them with general dismay ; and the domination of Leopold was restored almost

without the pretence of military opposition. On the first of January 1791, *Te Deum* was sung at Brussels, to celebrate the success of the conqueror. He had sufficient wisdom and humanity to use his victory with moderation; and the Belgians appear, upon the whole, to have had no reason for regretting the good fortune of the Austrian arms. Leopold, in the Summer of 1790, had entered into a negotiation with the Ottomans, which ended in a treaty, by which the conquests on both sides were restored. Such was the termination of a war into which Joseph had entered without even the semblance of provocation, which involved him in prodigious debts, and cost him the lives of perhaps an hundred and fifty thousand men.

Leopold was elected king of the Romans on the 30th of September 1790, and was crowned emperor, on the 9th of the following October. His interposition in the affairs of France forms the only other event of his short reign, after the reduction of the Netherlands, that deserves notice in this work. The same reasons which have induced us to defer the sequel of the history of the United Provinces, make it proper to defer that of Germany till we arrive at the article of France. Leopold died on the first of March 1792, of an inflammatory fever which proved fatal, upon the third day of his illness. He was born on the first of May 1747, and his reign, computing from the death of his brother Joseph, lasted only two years, and eight days. He was succeeded by his eldest son Francis the second, the present possessor of the imperial crown of Germany. Leopold was of a feeble constitution, but libidinous in his manners. He supported several mistresses, and immediately after his death, his widow, who had borne him a very numerous family of about twenty children, displayed her attachment to female virtue by the expulsion of these ladies from Vienna; a striking example of the mutability of fortune!

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, } **T**HIS country is bounded to the north by part
AND EXTENT. } of Samogitia; to the south, by Poland Proper, and Masovia; to the east, by part of Lithuania; and to the west, by Polish Prussia and the Baltic. Its greatest length is about an hundred and sixty miles, and its greatest breadth about an hundred and twelve.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, } The name of Prussia is probably derived from
AND RIVERS. } the Borussi, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholesome, and the soil fruitful in corn. The country affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horses, sheep, deer, and game, wild boars, foxes, &c. Its rivers and lakes are well stored with fish; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coast towards the Baltic. The woods furnish the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, besides quantities of pot-ashes. The rivers here sometimes do damage by inundations. Of these rivers, the principal are, the Vistula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the passarge, and the Elbe.

Since the beginning of the present century, Prussia has become a respectable power on the continent of Europe. Its territories lie scattered in various parts of Germany, Poland, Switzerland, Bohemia, the Netherlands, and other countries. For the sake of perspicuity, we have arranged them in the following table.

Names of the countries.		Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Poland.	Ducal Prussia	9,950	160	112	KONINGSBERG
	Royal Prussia	6,400	118	104	Elbing
Up. Saxony.	Brandenburg	10,910	215	110	Berlin
	Pomerania	4,820	150	63	Camin
Lo. Saxony.	Swedish Pomerania	2,991	90	48	Stetin
	Magdeburg	1,535	63	50	Magdeburg
Bohemia.	Halberstadt	450	42	17	Halberstadt
	Glatz	550	38	23	Glatz
	Silesia	10,000	196	92	
	Minden	595	42	26	Minden
	Ravensburg	525	38	34	Ravensburg
	Lingen	120	15	11	Lingen
Westphalia.	Cleves	630	43	21	Cleves
	Meurs	35	10	6	Meurs
	Mark	980	52	43	Ham
	East Friesland	690	46	32	Emden
	Lippe	25	8	4	Lipstadt
	Gulich	528	44	24	Gulich
	Tecklenburg	36	12	6	Tecklenburg
Netherlands.	Gelder	360	34	23	Gelders
Switzerland.	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel.
Total		51,281			

We confine ourselves, in this place, chiefly to an account of Prussia. The other dominions fall under the description of the countries in which they lie.

Prussia is indebted for its political importance, to the extraordinary talents of Frederic the second. It is likewise from the writings of this monarch, that we are chiefly to derive our most authentic and interesting information, concerning both its civil and military progress. We have, in the preceding article, frequently cited the historical memoirs of this celebrated monarch, because they differ, in numberless points of fact, from other writers. The motives of action are traced up to their source. The characters of the sovereigns and the nations of Europe are delineated with candour, and without ceremony. The royal historian has acknowledged his own errors with the frankness and simplicity becoming a great man. He attacks without scruple, every sort of popular prejudice. Considered merely as a chaste and elegant author, he deserves an uncommon degree of praise. But as a comprehensive repository of that sort of knowledge which can be learned no where else, his writings deserve a still greater share of estimation. His posthumous works extend to thirteen volumes. They have been published since his death, at Berlin, by his favourite minister; and it must be considered as the most astonishing of all literary wonders, that his successor hath suffered them to appear, at least in their present form, because almost every page contains truths the most offensive to the ears of despotism.

Of the works of the king of Prussia, there is no portion more instructive than that part of his memoirs after the war of seven years, wherein he relates the measures which he employed to restore the prosperity of his dominions. He thus describes their situation at the end of that contest. The picture is drawn by the hand of a master, and must excite the attention of every reader.

"It is necessary," says Frederic, "that we should imagine countries entirely ravaged, where the traces of former habitations were scarcely discoverable; towns almost erased from the earth; others half consumed by the flames; thirteen thousand houses of which no vestige remained; fields lying fallow; the inhabitants destitute of the corn requisite for their support; the farmers in want of sixty

thousand horses for the plough; and a diminution of five hundred thousand inhabitants, since the year 1756; a very considerable number in a population of only four millions, and five hundred thousand. The noble and the peasant had been pillaged, ransomed, and foraged, by so many different armies, that nothing was left them except life, and the miserable rags by which their nakedness was concealed. They had not sufficient credit even to satisfy the daily wants of nature. There was no longer any police in the towns. To a spirit of equity and regularity, base self-interest, disorder, and anarchy had succeeded. The colleges of justice and of finance, had been rendered inactive, by the frequent invasions of such numerous enemies. The slumber of the laws produced a licentiousness of spirit in the public, and hence, avarice and rapacity took birth. The noble, the merchant, the farmer, the labourer, the manufacturer, all strove who should set the highest price on their commodities, their provisions, and their industry; and only seemed active to effect their mutual ruin. Such was the fatal spectacle which so many provinces, that had lately been so flourishing, presented at the conclusion of the war. There is no description, however pathetic, that can possibly approach the deep, the afflicting, the mournful impression which the sight of them produced." The king proceeds to inform us, by what methods he restored his territories to their former situation. In the course of this dreadful war, he had neither added a single new impost nor contracted any foreign debt; and yet he was enabled, at the end of it, to remit a great proportion of the taxes paid by his subjects. What is still more incomprehensible, his treasury supplied resources for the re-building of the towns and villages. His magazines furnished his people with corn to sow their lands, and likewise for their immediate subsistence. Thirty-five thousand horses, which had been destined for the use of the artillery, and waggons of the army, were employed in agriculture. Two millions three hundred and thirty-nine thousand crowns were given to the provinces, with which they discharged the debts that they had contracted during the war, in order to pay their contributions, and to satisfy those impositions which the vagrant enemy had exacted. Multiplied largesses restored courage to the Prussians, who had begun to despair amidst their sufferings. The king dug canals; he drained marshes; in short, he neglected no measure which could, perhaps, have been devised by the duke of Sully himself, to secure the happiness of his people. Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, began in a few years to flourish. To enter, at present, into a farther detail, would trespass upon the limits of this work. "That the result," says he, "may be known, the best method will be to compare the population of the year 1740, with that of the year 1779; of which the following is an abstract.

Provinces.	1740. No. Inhabitants.	1779. No. Inhabitants.
Prussia,	370,000	780,000
Brandenburg,	480,000	710,000
Magdeburg & } Halberstadt, }	220,000	280,000
Silesia,	1,100,000	1,520,0
	<hr/> 2,170,000	<hr/> 3,290,000

"Increase, one million one hundred and twenty thousand."—The reader will observe, by comparing this statement with the preceding table, that the king does not comprehend in these calculations, his part of Westphalia, and some other scattered territories. The augmentation in the number of his subjects, within the space of thirty-nine years, is however very great. But it must add infinitely to our fur-

prize, if we reflect, that, during the same period, Frederic had been engaged in four bloody wars, in the course of which, his armies had fought above twenty pitched battles, and that in one of these wars only, he lost, by his own account, one hundred and eighty thousand soldiers, besides vast numbers of the peasantry. We have already quoted his remark, that in the year 1756, the total population of his territories amounted to four millions five hundred thousand, and that, at the end of the war, they had been reduced to four millions. At his accession to the crown, in 1740, the dominions which he inherited from his father contained, all together, only two millions two hundred and forty thousand people*. Within a few years after the war of 1756, the population of his territories rose to its former height, and at his death in 1786, they contained, including his acquisition of Polish Prussia, more than six millions of people. The number of births and deaths is carefully registered in the Prussian dominions; and, upon one of the late annual examinations, it was found that within the preceding year, the former outnumbered the latter, by more than fifty thousand.

Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 colonists have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburghers. These emigrants have built 400 small villages, 11 towns, and 50 new churches. They have founded 1000 village schools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

We have extended this article to an uncommon length, for the sake of inserting much curious and authentic information, which has been omitted even in the last London edition of this work.

The manners, customs, and diversions of the inhabitants differ but little from those of the Germans.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, AND } The established religions are those of the Luth-
ACADEMIES. } rans and Calvinists, though chiefly the former: but
Roman catholics, antipædo-baptists, and almost all other sects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in schools. An university was founded at Königsberg in 1544; but we know of no very remarkably learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Prussia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains two hundred and eighty parishes, and the latter one hundred and five.

Königsberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, seated on the river Pregel, over which, it has seven bridges, is about eighty-four miles from Dantzic. According to dr. Busching, this city is seven miles in circumference, contains three thousand eight hundred houses, and about 60,000 inhabitants. Königsberg has a considerable share of commerce and shipping, as the Pregel is navigable for ships, of which four hundred and ninety-three foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, besides, two hundred and ninety-eight coasters. Three hundred and seventy-three floats of timber were, in the compass of that year, brought down that river. This city, besides its college or university, which contains thirty-eight professors, has magnificent palaces, a town-house, and exchange. It has a good harbour and a citadel, which is called Fredericburg, and is a regular square.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Frederic the second, endeavoured to increase the commerce of his kingdom; but the despotic nature of his government was not favourable to trade and manufactures. The Prussian manufactures,

* Frederic himself states them at three millions; but his English translator adds in a note, that they extended only to the number specified in the text. We may observe, once for all, that the king sometimes contradicts himself in details of this sort. For such inaccuracies, his extreme candour forms an ample apology. His attention was engrossed by duties more important, or at least more interesting, than those of an historian.

however, 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 hempseed, oatmeal, fish, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is said that five hundred ships are loaded every year with those commodities, chiefly from Königsberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The king of Prussia is absolute. The principal ministers of the kingdom are; 1. The great master; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marshal. There are also some other councils, and seventeen bailiwicks. The states consist, 1. Of counsellors of state; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. Of deputies from the commons.

REVENUES.] Frederic the second, by means of the happy situation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own skilful political regulations, derived an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the seat of poverty and barbarism. It is said, that amber alone brought him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues arose from his demesnes, his duties of customs and tolls, and the subsidies yearly granted by the several states; but the exact sum is not known; though we may conclude that it was very considerable. His revenues, after the acquisition of Polish or Royal Prussia, must have been greatly increased. Exclusive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local situation was of vast importance, as it lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Prussia. By this addition, his dominions became compact, and Prussian troops may now march from Berlin to Königsberg without interruption.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Prussian army, even in time of peace, consists of about 180,000 of the best disciplined troops in the world; and, during the war of 1778, 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 inconsistent with the interest 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 population of the division, have been originally raised, and, from it, the recruits continue to be taken. Each particular regiment is always quartered, in the time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of sons a peasant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the service, except one, who is left to assist in the management of the farm. The rest wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are destined to be soldiers, and obliged to enter into the service, whenever they are called upon. But the maintenance of so large an army, in a country naturally so little equal to it, has occasioned such a drain from population, and such a reduction of the number of labourers, that Frederic the second endeavoured in some degree to save his own peasantry, by drawing as many recruits as possible 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 employ themselves in any other way that they please.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people; they were descended from the Sclavonians, and refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Christianity, wanted to reduce them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleslaus IV. they 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 con-

version 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 extirpated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the most incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After a vast waste of blood, a peace was, in 1466, 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, but were to acknowledge 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, since called, for that reason, Ducal Prussia, but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to descend to his male heirs; and, upon failure of his male issue, to his brothers and their male heirs. Thus ended the sovereignty of the Teutonic order in Prussia, after it had subsisted for almost three hundred years. In 1657, the elector, Frederic-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 Frederic, the son of Frederic-William, was raised to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states, and proclaimed, January 18, 1701, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, the late king of Prussia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of the first king's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederic-William, who succeeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of strong natural parts, and performed services to his country, but too often at the expense of humanity. At his death in 1740, he left eight millions and seven hundred thousand crowns in his treasury. His son 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, in future, should be practised in honour of his person, assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was due solely to the Divinity. In 1782, he expended almost two millions of Crowns in draining marshes, establishing factories, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of policy and benevolence.

Frederic II. king of Prussia, and elector of Brandenburg, was born in 1712, and married in 1733, to Elizabeth-Christina of Brunswic Wolfenbittel, born in 1714, by whom he had no issue. He died August 17, 1786, aged seventy-four, having reigned forty-six years, two months, seventeen days, and was succeeded by Frederic-William his nephew, and son of his brother William Augustus. His conduct as to Holland, has been related in the history of that country. He was born in 1744, and married, in 1765, to the princess Elizabetha Christina Ulrica, of Brunswic Wolfenbittel: and, secondly in 1769, to Frederica Louisa, of Hesse Darmstadt. Issue by the first, a princess; by the second, Frederic-William, prince royal, and several other children. Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina, his sister, was, in 1767, married to the prince of Orange.

THE KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 478 } Breadth 322 }	between	{ 48 and 52 north latitude. { 87 and 94 west longitude, from Philadelphia.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the north; by Poland and Hungary, on the east; by Austria and Bavaria, on the south; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the west; formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Silesia; and 3. Moravia.

Divisions.	Chief towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. mostly subject to the house of Austria	{ Prague, W. lon. 89-20. N. lat. 50. Königsgrätz, E. Glatz, E. subject to the king of Prussia. Egra, W.	{ Length 162 Breadth 142	{ 12,060
2. Silesia, east, mostly subject to the king of Prussia.	{ Breslaw, W. long. 92. N. lat. 51-15. Glogaw, N. Crossen, N. Jagendorf, S. Tropaw, S. subject to the house of Austria. Teschchen, S. subject to the house of Austria.	{ Length 196 Breadth 92	{ 10,250
3. Moravia, S. entirely subject to the house of Austria.	{ Olmutz, W. lon. 91-45. N. lat. 49-40 Brin, middle Igla, S. W.	{ Length 120 Breadth 88	{ 5,424

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia Proper, is not thought so wholesome as that of Germany, though its soil and produce are much the same.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction; its woods are numerous. The chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } We have no certain account of the
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } present population of Bohemia; about one hundred and fifty years ago, it was computed to contain near three millions of inhabitants; but they are thought at present not to exceed two millions one hundred thousand. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits, and manners, resemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle state of people; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. But the late emperor generously discharged the Bohemian peasants, on the imperial demesnes, from the state of vassalage in which they had been so long, and so unjustly retained; and it will be happy if his example should be followed by the Bohemian nobility. Although the Bohemians, at present,

are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as intrepid assertors of civil and religious liberty; witness the many defeats they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay; as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit; though it is certain that their internal jealousies and dissensions greatly contributed to their subjection. Their customs and diversions are the same as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though the Roman catholic religion is established in Bohemia, yet there are many protestants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exercise of their religion; and some of the Moravians have embraced a system of protestantism, which they have propagated, by their zealous missionaries, in several parts of the globe.

ARCHBISHOPRIC AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbishopric. The bishoprics are Koningsgratz, Breslaw, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Slavonian; but they generally speak German.

UNIVERSITY.] The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, could never completely invest it. The inhabitants scarcely exceed seventy thousand Christians, and about thirteen thousand Jews. It contains ninety-two churches and chapels, and forty cloisters. It is a place of little or no trade; and therefore, the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are said to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, some of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for strength nor manufactures. Olmutz, the capital of Moravia, is well fortified. Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, hath been already described.

MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures are of woollens, linens, copper, iron, paper, glass, and gun-powder.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; for the government, under the house of Austria, is despotic. Their states are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of the towns. Their sovereigns, of late, have been averse to provoking them by ill usage, as they have a general dislike to the Austrians. This kingdom is frequently described as part of Germany, but with little reason, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. What gives some colour to this mistake is, that the king of Bohemia is the first secular elector of the empire, and its kings have been, for many years, elected emperors of Germany.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000l. a year.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes imposed a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Austria, received three crowns, viz. those of Hungary, the empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414, John Hufs and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had 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 imperial forces in several engagements, and drove them out of the kingdom.

The divisions of the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperors to keep possession of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a protestant king, in the person of the prince Palatine, son-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. Hewas driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being stripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for subsistence. After a war of thirty years duration, which desolated the whole empire, the Bohemians have, since that time, remained subject to the house of Austria.

H U N G A R Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 300 }	between	{ 92 and 98 east longitude, from Philadelphia. }	{	36,060.
Breadth 200 }				
		{ 45 and 49 north latitude.	}	

BOUNDARIES.] **H**UNGARY formerly included Transylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Walachia, and other countries. That part of it which belongs to the house of Austria, is bounded by Poland on the north; by Transylvania and Walachia, on the east; by Sclavonia, on the south; and by Austria and Moravia, on the west.

The kingdom of Hungary is usually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF THE DANUBE. Chief town.	LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF THE DANUBE. Chief town.
Presburg, situated on the Danube, E. lon. 92-30, N. lat. 48-20.	Buda, on the Danube, E. long. 94-20, N. lat. 47-40.

To which may be added Temeswar, which has been considered as distinct from Hungary, because it was formerly governed by an independent king. It has several times been under the dominion of the Turks; but the Austrians gaining possession, it was, in 1778, incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary. The province of Temeswar is ninety-four miles long, and sixty-seven broad, containing about three thousand eight hundred and fifty square miles. It has been divided into four districts, Csadat, Temeswar, Werschez, and Lugos. Temeswar, the principal town, is situated E. lon. 97-15, N. lat. 45-54.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and consequently the climate of the southern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, stagnated waters, and marshes; but the northern parts are mountainous and barren, and the air is sweet and wholesome. No country in the world can boast of a richer soil than that plain which extends three hundred miles from Presburg to Belgrade. It produces corn, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, hops, pulse, millet, buckwheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, chefnuts, and wood. Corn sells for one-sixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] These are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyffe, Merish, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains several lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains of considerable extent, and abounding with fish. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are esteemed the most salutary of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raised by the Turks when in possession of the country, particularly those of Buda, are suffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which, on the north, divide Hungary from Poland, are the greatest in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their sides grow some of the richest grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well stocked with both. It abounds not only in gold and silver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, opiment, quicksilver, cryfocolla, and terra figillata. Before Hungary became the seat of destructive wars between the Turks and Christians, or fell under the power of the house of Austria, those mines were furnished with proper works and workmen, and produced vast revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and silver employed mint-houses, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and other parts of Europe; but all those mines are now greatly diminished in their value, their works being destroyed or demolished. Some of them, however, still subsist.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE 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 animal and vegetable productions are in general the same with those of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, and in particular those of Tokay, are preferable to any other, at least in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } It was late before the northern bar-
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } barians drove the Romans out of Hun-
gary, and some of the descendants of their legionary forces are still to be distinguished in the inland parts, by their speaking Latin. Before the Turks got possession of Constantinople, Hungary was a very populous and powerful kingdom; and if the house of Austria should give proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might hereafter become so. Both Hungaries, at present, exclusive of Transylvania and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themselves. They pique themselves on being descended from those heroes, who formed the bulwark of Christendom against the infidels. In their persons they are well made. Their fur caps, their close-bodied coats, girded by a sash, and their cloak or mantle, which is so contrived as to buckle under the arm, that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them a military air. The men shave their beards, but preserve their whiskers on their upper lips. Their usual arms, besides their fire-arms, are a broad-sword, and a kind of pole-ax. The ladies are reckoned handsomer than those of Austria, and their sable dress, with sleeves strait to their arms, and their stays fastened before with small gold, pearl, or diamond buttons, are well known to the French and English ladies. Both men and women, in what they call mine-towns, wear fur and even sheep-skin dresses. The inns, upon the roads, are miserable hovels, and even those seldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peasants, and the poultry, live in the same apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, are 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. They are in general a brave but ignorant people. Their ancestors, even since the beginning of the present century, were jealous of their liberties, and rather than be tyrannised over by the house of Austria, they have often put themselves under the protection of the Ottoman court.

The inhabitants of Temeswar are computed at four hundred and fifty thousand. There are in this country, many faraons, or gypsies, supposed to be real descendants of the ancient Egyptians, whom they are said to resemble in their features, and in many of their manners and customs. It is asserted that the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, is still in use among the female gypsies in Temeswar.

RELIGION.] The established religion of the Hungarians is the Roman catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are protestants, or Greeks. 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, Sclavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects. The better sort speak German, and many, even of the common people, speak Latin, either pure or barbarous, so that Latin may be said to be here still a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the universities, if they may be properly so called, of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caschaw, are professors of the several arts and sciences, who used generally to be Jesuits. The Lutherans and Calvinists, go to the German and other universities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } The artificial curiosities of this country
NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } consist of its bridges, baths, and mines.
The bridge of Esseck, built over the Dunube 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 have been the most magnificent 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 object of great curiosity. Astonishing rocks are common in Hungary. Some of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDI- } These are greatly decayed from
FICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } their ancient magnificence; but many of the fortifications are still very strong, and kept in good order. Presburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia are kept. They were lately removed to Vienna, by the emperor Joseph the second, in the meridian insolence of his despotism. This capricious insult excited indignation; and when his ill success against the Turks had rendered him as contemptible, as he was hateful, he, on his death bed, restored them to their former place. The crown was sent, in the year 1000, by pope Sylvest.

ter II. to Stephen king of Hungary, and was made after the model of that of the Greek emperors. It is of solid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with fifty-three sapphires, fifty rubies, one large emerald, and three hundred and thirty-eight pearls. Besides these stones, are the images of the apostles and 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 the apostolic king; the use of which was renewed under the reign of the empress-queen Maria Theresa. The sceptre and the globe of the kingdom are of Arabian gold. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its strength and fortifications. 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.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is sufficient to say, that the chief manufactures and exports consist of metals, drugs, and salt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians dislike the term of queen, and even called their late sovereign king Theresa. Their government preserves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, and a Hungary office, which resides at Vienna; as the stadtholder's council, which has a municipal jurisdiction, does at Presburg. Every royal town has its senate. Besides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other subordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring into the field, at any time, fifty thousand Hungarians in their own country, but seldom draws out of it above ten thousand; these are generally light-horse, and well known to modern times by the name of Hussars. They are not near so large as the German horse; and therefore the Hussars stand upon their short stirrups when they strike. Their expedition and alertness have been found so serviceable in war, that some of the greatest powers in Europe have troops which go by the same name. Their foot are called heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies whom they pretend to have killed. Both horse and foot form an excellent militia, very good at 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 some 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 any other in Europe.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after subduing this country, in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, in place of Pannonia. They were succeeded by the Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; and they by the Avari, who were, in the beginning of the ninth century, followed by the Sclavi. 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. The first who assumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Christianity. In his reign, the form of government was established, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert ascended the throne, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Slavonia, and many other provinces; but many of those conquests were afterwards seized by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the fifteenth century, Huniades, who was the 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 had almost proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke, Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the sister of Lewis, he claimed the crown of Hungary, to 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.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

THESE countries are thrown under one division, 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 Carpatian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the east, by Moldavia and Walachia; on the south by Walachia; and on the west, by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between ninety-seven and one hundred degrees of east longitude, and forty-five and forty-eight of north latitude. Its length is extended about one hundred and eighty, and its breadth one hundred and twenty miles; it contains nearly fourteen thousand four hundred square miles, and 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 the wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanstadt; and its interior government still partakes greatly of the ancient feudal system, being composed of many independent states and princes. They owe not much more than a nominal subjection to the Austrians, who leave them in possession of most of their privileges. Roman catholics, 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. All sorts of provisions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanstadt is a strong, large, and well-built city, as are Claufenburg 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, meet by summons, and receive the commands of the sovereign, to whom, of late, they have been more devoted than formerly. They have the liberty of making remonstrances and representations in case of grievances.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be subdued. It was over-run by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and afterwards by the Huns. Their descendants retain the same military character. The population of the country is not ascertained; but if the Transylvanians can bring into the field, as has been asserted, thirty thousand troops, the whole number of inhabitants must be considerable. During the last two wars, in which Austria was engaged, the Transylvanians were highly serviceable to her. Hermanstadt is the 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, intro-

duced Christianity into the province, about the year 1000; and it was afterwards governed by a Hungarian vaivod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in its government prove its 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, the natives are under an 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 sixteen thousand peasants assembled and committed great depredations on those whose conduct had been reformed. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to escape with their lives. The revolted were disappointed in their attempt on Claufenburg; and afterwards offered to separate, and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. In the present situation of the Austrians, lenient terms have been granted to them, and, with the punishment of a few, the insurrection has been suppressed.

Sclavonia lies between the 91st and 98th degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is thought to be about two hundred miles in length, and sixty 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. 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, because liberty here made its last stand against the Roman arms, which, by degrees, forced the remains of the different conquered nations 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 valour. The Sclavonians formerly gave so much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought that 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 Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Transylvania, yet the ravages of war are still visible in the face of the country, which lies, in a great measure, unimproved. The Sclavonians are zealous Roman catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two bishoprics; that of Pofega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no universities. Esbeck is a large and strong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marshes, five miles long, and fifteen paces broad. It was built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin, are places noticed in the wars between the Austrians and Turks. The inhabitants are composed of Servians, Radzi-ans, Croats, Walachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a number of other people, whose names were unknown even to the Austrians themselves, but from the military muster-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the wars of 1741 and 1756. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the states send representatives to the diet of that kingdom.

Croatia lies between the 90th and 92d degrees of east longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is eighty miles in length, and seventy in breadth, and contains about two thousand five hundred square miles. The manners, government, religion, language, and customs of the Croats, are similar to those of the Sclavonians and Transylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irre-

gular troops, and as such are famed in modern history, under the name of Pandours, and various other designations. The house of Austria finds its interest in suffering them, and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. Carlsstadt is a place of some note. Zagrab is the capital of Croatia. All the sovereignty of the Austrians seems to consist in the military arrangements for bringing the Croats occasionally into the field. A viceroy presides over Croatia, jointly with Slavonia, and Hungarian Dalmatia.

This last province lies on the upper part of the Adriatic sea, and consists of five districts. Segna 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. Ottoschatz is a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governor and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall, and some towers. But the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uscocs, a people, who being galled by oppression, escaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uscocs, from the word Scoco, which signifies a *deserter*. Some of them live in scattered houses, and others in large villages. They are a rough, savage people, large bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their principal employment is grazing. They use the Walachian language, and in their religious sentiments and mode of worship approach nearest to the Greek church. Some of them are Roman catholics.

A part of Walachia belongs also to the emperor, as well as the Turks. It lies to the east of Transylvania, and its principal towns are Tregonitz, Bucharest, and Severin.

S P A I N.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	700	} between	{ 65 and 72 east longitude, from Philadelphia.
Gr. breadth	500		{ 36 and 44 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **S**PAIN is bounded by Portugal and the Atlantic ocean on the west; by the Mediterranean sea 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.

* We have deferred the account of Poland and France, in order to gain time for more full information.

Spain.	Names of provinces.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
	Castile, New	27,840	220	180	MADRID { N. lat. 40-30. W. lon. 4-15.
	Andalusia	16,500	273	135	Seville
	Castile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos
	Aragon	13,818	190	105	Saragossa
	Estremadura	12,600	180	123	Badajos
	Galicia	12,000	165	120	Compostella
	Leon	11,200	167	96	Leon
	Catalonia	9000	172	110	Barcelona
	Granada	8100	200	45	Granada
	Valencia	6800	180	75	Valencia
	Biscay and Ipufcoa	4760	140	55	Bisboa
	Austria	4600	121	55	Oviedo
	Murcia	3600	87	65	Murcia
	Upper Navarre	3000	92	45	Pampeluna
In the Me-	Majorca I.	1400	58	40	Majorca
diterranean	Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica
	Minorca I.	520	41	20	Citadella.
	Total	150,763			
	The town and fortrefs of Gibraltar, fubject to Britain.				

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the names of Iberia, Hesperia, and 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 larger part, comprehended all that lay south of that river.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and serene, but is excessively hot in the southern provinces, in June, July, and August. The vast mountains that run through it 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, and their instruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from rust. Besides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of most diseases which infest the principality of Asturia. Yet, although subject to such a variety of endemical diseases, few countries can produce more instances of longevity. Many persons live to the age of an hundred, some to an hundred and ten, and others much longer. The same observation may be extended to Galicia, where, in the parish of St. Juan de Poyo, A. D. 1724, the curate administered the sacrament to thirteen persons, whose ages together made one thousand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngest of these being one hundred and ten, and the oldest one hundred and twenty-seven. But in Villa de Fofinanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1727, aged more than one hundred and forty-six years.

The soil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately suffered much through their indolence; the causes of which, we shall hereafter explain. 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. Its wines, especially sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners. There are, in the district of Malaga, according

to mr. Townsend, the latest traveller, fourteen thousand vine presses, chiefly employed in making the rich wine, 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 wine is sold, according to quality and age, from fifty-eight to seventy dollars the butt, of one hundred and thirty-five gallons. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thousand vessels enter the port of Malaga, every year, of which about one-tenth are Spanish; and the exports in wine, fruit, oil, and fish, are computed at above sixteen hundred thousand dollars 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 a greater number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food; such are the generous qualities of its soil. Sugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields saffron, honey, and silk, in great abundance. Ustariz, a modern Spanish writer, computes the number of shepherds in Spain, to be forty thousand; and has given us an interesting detail of their economy, their changes of pasture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars, till lately, unknown to the public. Those sheep-walks afford the finest of wool, and are in themselves a treasure. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed, to the tops, with trees, fruits, and herbage. Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which render the taste of their kids and sheep exquisitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds so much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its silk amounts to nearly a million of dollars a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and less to industry.

The waters of Spain, especially those that are medicinal, are little known; but many salutiferous springs are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. In Spain, the waters are found to have healing qualities, inferior to none in Europe.

MOUNTAINS.] It would be tedious to specify these, they are so numerous; the chief and the highest, are the Pyrenees, near two hundred 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. The road over the pass that separates Roussillon from Catalonia, reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. Formerly it required the strength of thirty men to support, and nearly as many oxen, to drag up a carriage, which four horses now draw 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. Mount Calpe, now called the rock of Gibraltar, was, in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, stands opposite to it, in Africa.

Among the mountains in Spain, Montserrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; as one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape, and composition. It stands in a vast plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians *Monte Serrado*, or *Mount Scie*, words which signify a cut, or 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 seems, at a distant view, to be the work of man; but, upon a nearer approach, appears to be evidently the production 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 fourteen miles in circumference. Mr. Swinburne estimates its height at three thousand three hundred feet. 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 to which pilgrims resort from the farthest parts of Europe. All the poor who come there, are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick are received into the hospital. Mr. Thicknesse, who has published a particular description of this mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often saw from his habitation the islands of Minorca, Majorca, and Ivica, and the kingdoms of Valencia, and Murcia.

RIVERS, LAKES, STRAITS, AND CURRENTS.	}	The Duero, formerly Durius, falls into the Atlantic ocean below Oporto, in Portugal. The Tajo or Tagus, falls into the Atlantic ocean below Lisbon. The Guadiana falls into the same ocean near Cape Finisterre ; as does the Gaudalquiver, now Turio, at St. Lucar. The Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean sea below Tortosa.
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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 happen to fall into it and rest upon another, they both become in a year's time perfectly united and conglutinated. This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dyes of the same colour as its waters. No kind of verdure will grow where it reaches, nor any fish live in its stream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink ; but, in general, no animals will drink out of this river except goats, whose flesh nevertheless has an excellent flavour. These singular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature : for, when it passes by Nielba, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean sea six leagues lower down.

The straits of Gibraltar are about twelve leagues in extent, from Cape Spartel to Ceuta Point, on the African coast ; and from Cape Trafalgar to Europa Point, on the coast of Spain. At the western entrance, they are in breadth about eight leagues. At Gibraltar and Ceuta, they are about seven leagues broad.

Philosophers differ widely in accounting for the disposition of that continual influx of waters, which, it is natural to suppose, would, without some consumption or return, soon overflow the boundaries of the Mediterranean sea. Dr. Halley was of opinion, that this perpetual supply of water from the Atlantic ocean was intended by nature to recruit what was daily exhaled in vapour : others imagine that the waters which roll in with the centre current, are returned, by two counter streams, along the African and Spanish shores. That there are two counter streams is without doubt ; but their rapidity and breadth bear little proportion to the principal current. A third class suppose a counter current beneath, and of equal strength with the upper stream ; and this opinion appears confirmed, by a circumstance related by col. James, of a Dutch ship sunk in an action by a French privateer off Tarifa, which some time afterwards was cast up near Tangier, four leagues to the *westward* of the place where she disappeared, and directly against the current. This hypothesis receives also additional support from the repeated disappointments which have been experienced by many naval officers, in attempting to sound the depth of the straits with the longest lines ; for the opposition between the currents, probably, carries the line in such directions as to defeat the intention of the experiment.

These facts seem strongly to indicate a recurrency to the westward ; which, though it may not be so rapid as the upper stream, yet, with the assistance of the currents along the Spanish and Barbary shores, and the necessary exhalations, may account for the Mediterranean sea never increasing by the constant supply received from the Atlantic ocean. The rapidity of the superior current renders the passage from the Mediterranean to the westward very precarious and uncertain, as ships can never stem the stream without a brisk easterly wind. Vessels, therefore, are often detained weeks, and sometimes months, waiting for a favourable breeze ; in which case they find a comfortable birth in the bay of Gibraltar.

BAYS.] The chief bays are those of Biscay, Ferrol, Corunna, commonly called the Groyne, Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthage, Alicante, Altea, Valencia, Roses, Majorca, and port Mahon, in the island of Minorca. The strait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety as any other country of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadstones, jacinths, turquois stones, quicksilver, copper, lead, alum, calamine, crystal, marbles of several kinds, porphyry, the finest jasper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethysts, are found here. The Spanish iron furnishes excellent arms ; and, in former times, brought in a considerable revenue to the crown ; the art of working it being here well understood. Even to this day, Spanish gun barrels, and swords of Toledo, are highly valued. Among the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and silver mines. Since the discovery of the American mines, those in the mother country are no longer worked.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS } BY SEA AND LAND. } The horses of Andalusia are among the handsomest in Europe, and they are, at the same time, very fleet and serviceable. The king endeavours to monopolize the finest breeds for his own stables. Spain likewise furnishes mules and black cattle. The bull-fights were formerly the most magnificent spectacle which the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now disused. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey in Spain, which abounds with all the game and wild fowl, that are to be found in the neighbouring countries. 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. Mr. Dillon observes, that, in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, while the horrors of famine assailed the fruitful provinces of Andalusia, 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 of Estremadura been rendered more dismal than the Winter of Holland. Their sense of smelling is so delicate, that they can discover a corn-field or a garden, at a considerable distance ; and they ravage it almost in an instant. Mr. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and observation, might destroy the eggs of these formidable insects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

Mr. Townsend observes, that these insects commit the greatest devastations in the south of Spain, and that this proceeds not merely from the warmth of climate, but from the want of cultivation ; because the females never deposit their eggs in cultivated land, but always in the deserts. For this reason, Galicia is little infested with the locust. Of the locust tribe, Linnæus reckons twenty species. Their jaw bones are strong and dented like a saw. Their head resembles that of a horse, and this similitude has been remarked among the whole genus. They are commonly seen only in the forests ; but, when the season has been peculiarly favourable for propagation, these rapacious insects darken the air. Their assembled hosts fall upon rich pastures. They rob the vines and olives of their foliage. They devour the corn. They enter the houses, and lay

waste every thing before them. During four successive years, from 1754, to 1757, inclusive, they ravaged all the southern provinces of Spain and Portugal.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } Spain, formerly one of the most
CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } populous kingdoms in Europe, is
now but thinly inhabited. The present number of people has been computed by Feyjoo, a Spanish writer, to amount to nine millions two hundred and fifty thousand ; so that England, in proportion to its extent, is three times more populous than Spain.

Many splendid accounts have, long since, been published, as to the wealth and population of this country, during the empire of the Moors, and even so late as the discovery of America. They have lately been given to the world, in all their lustre, by lord Kaims, in his ingenious but inaccurate sketches of the history of man, and by dr. Robertson, in his pompous view of the progress of society in Europe. That the situation of Spain was formerly superior to what it has been, for the last two centuries, appears to be certain. But many writers on this subject, have been inclined to rhodomontade ; and all history has a portion of untruth. We can, therefore, safely conclude that very large deductions may be made from the incredible romances composed on this subject. Dr. Adam Smith, in his enquiry, which the reader, as to this point, may consult with much satisfaction, relates an observation made by Charles the fifth, which entirely contradicts the magnificent ideas of the state of Spain in the sixteenth century. In travelling through France, this emperor remarked, that France had every thing, and that Spain *wanted every thing*. The present remarkable desolation of Spain, has been ascribed to many inadequate causes. The emigrations to South-America, have always been held out as a reason for the diminution of the number of the people. But, among other instances, Britain has, during the same time, sent out, or driven from her bosom, colonies at least equally numerous, without feeling the loss. The immense body of monks and nuns has likewise been assigned as a cause ; but the same institutions have not desolated Italy, France, or Germany. The expulsion of the Moors affords a third source of depopulation ; but this also is very unsatisfactory. France, in the civil wars of the sixteenth century, and Ireland, in the last century, when desolated by the banditti of the commonwealth of England, suffered a greater destruction of lives than has been ascribed to Spain by the expulsion of the Moors ; and yet both France and Ireland are at this day much more populous than before the massacres of the house of Guise and of Cromwell, were successively perpetrated. It is not, therefore, to the Roman catholic vow of celibacy, nor to American emigrations, nor to the expulsion of the Moors, that the depopulation of Spain must be attributed ; since other countries, under circumstances nearly similar, have, instead of wasting, augmented with rapidity. The horrid system of oppression exerted in raising taxes, has reduced Spain to its present comparative state of insignificance, poverty, and desolation. The rapacity of the government has produced a *celibacy* infinitely more hostile to the multiplication of the species, than the vows of persons destined for the convent or the church. Some idea of the unexampled havoc committed in collecting the revenues of Spain, may be formed from examining the sketches of the history of man, to which we above alluded. "The present generation," says dr. Johnson, "is sufficiently disposed to leave another behind it." The human race will always multiply, or at least support their numbers, unless when every dream of domestic happiness has been, as it happened in Spain, blasted by oppression. The military system adopted by the Spanish monarchs, cost her, within an hundred years after the discovery of America, undoubtedly, a much greater waste of population, than the three causes above stated put together. Dr. Smith remarks that Spain was overwhelmed with public debts, an hundred years before England owed a shilling. Now, even England, po-

pulous and wealthy as she is, might have been twice as populous, and perhaps ten or fifty times as wealthy, but for her abominable wars, since the revolution, and their necessary consequence, an abyss of debts and taxes. But that system which hitherto has only obstructed the prosperity of England, had been carried, in Spain, to its utmost height, two hundred years ago; and its continuation ever since, super-added to the ravages of an absolute government, affords a melancholy, but satisfactory explanation of her present state. England, as a political body, may be compared with a robust debauchee, at the age of thirty-six, or perhaps of fifty; while Spain, commencing her career of debts and taxes above an hundred years earlier, is, on that account, more exhausted and debilitated, and resembles the situation of a man of pleasure, at seventy or fourscore.

The Spaniards are generally tall; their hair and complexion swarthy, but their countenances are expressive. The court of Madrid has, of late, been at great pains to clear their upper lips of mustachios, and to introduce among them the French dress, instead of their black cloaks, short jerkins, strait breeches, and long Toledo swords; and this last dress is now chiefly confined to the lower class.

“Throughout the whole of Spain,” says Mr. Townsend, “I cannot recollect to have seen a single country residence, like those which every where abound in England: the great nobility surround the sovereign, and are attracted by the court; the nobles of inferior rank or fortune, are either assembled at Madrid, or establish themselves in the great cities of the distant provinces.” This desertion of the country, has arisen, not as in other countries, from the oppressions of the great barons, and from the franchises enjoyed by cities, but from two other causes, more extensive in their operations. The first of these was, the distracted condition of the empire till the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, divided into separate kingdoms of small extent, all engaged in never-ceasing wars against each other, which drove men of property into cities; the second, the jealousy of the court, which soon followed the expulsion of the Moors; a jealousy, which, for more than a century and a half, was merely political, lest the grandees, supported by the people, should endeavour to regain their consequence. To this fear, at the accession of the present family, succeeded one of a more alarming nature, from the attachment which many of the great families had discovered to the house of Austria. For this reason, they were assembled round the throne, and kept constantly in sight.

By the best accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards in America, gave humane relief to all British subjects who were in distress, and fell into their hands. They supplied them with necessaries and money; and treated them in a hospitable manner while they remained amongst them.

The character of the Spanish nobility, gentry, and traders, deservedly ranks very high. In no country exists a higher sense of national honour. The lower ranks are like those of other countries. The kings of Spain, of the house of Bourbon, have seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards, of great families, as their ministers, and have been but indifferently served in the cabinet. Their ministers have generally been Frenchmen, or Italians, whose counsels have been pernicious. Alborni embroiled his master with nearly all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi, the last of their Italian ministers, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppressive and unpopular measures.

Among the common people who live on the coasts, are to be found an assemblage of Jews, French, Russians, Irish, and English. There are about 40,000 gypsies, who, besides their trade of fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the small towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards, is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne, an author of merit, 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 fullen, sedate race, better adapted to the occupations of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind than the former. The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and rhodomontadors of Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Castilians are perhaps the least industrious of the whole nation: The Old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of the ancient simplicity of manners; both are of a firm, determined spirit. The Arragonefe are a mixture of the Castilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans than the province of an absolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding, pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of an hardly-earned subsistence."

Spain produces fine women; yet beauty is far from forming the general character of Spanish ladies. In their persons, they are commonly small and slender; but they are said to employ arts, common in some other countries, to supply the defects of nature. It is allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

The Spaniards have refined notions and excellent sense; and these, if improved by study and travelling, would render them superior to most people. Their slow, deliberate manner of proceeding, both in council and war, has, of late years, worn off to such a degree, that, during the two last wars, they were found to be as prompt, both in resolving and executing, as their enemies. Their secrecy, constancy, and patience, were always 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.

The temperance of the Spaniards in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfast, as well as sup, in bed: their breakfast is usually chocolate; tea being very seldom drank. They live much upon garlic, sallad, and radishes. The men drink very little wine; and the women use water or chocolate. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, such as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where, generally speaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are mostly in the habit of rising much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furnish spirits sufficient to resist the effects of the violent heat through the whole day, without some refreshment; it is, therefore, almost the universal practice to go to sleep for some hours after dinner, which, in those countries, takes place early; and this time of repose lasts for two or three hours. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that one may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are insipid and ludicrous. 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 Portugal, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of showing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier is absurdly proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls, that he has killed in these encounters.

Most towns in Spain have a square for the exhibition of bull-feasts. The inhabitants of the poorest villages will unite in the expence of buying a cow or an ox; and, for want of horses, fight them riding upon ass-back.

RELIGION.] The ardent zeal which formerly distinguished the Spaniards above

the rest of the Catholic world, has lost much of its activity; and the power of the clergy and inquisition, has, of late years, been much reduced. A royal edict has been issued, to prevent the admission of noviciates into the different convents, without special permission; a regulation, which has a great tendency to reduce the monastic orders. It is said, that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 secular clergy. The expulsion of the Jesuits was an act of injustice executed with circumstances of wanton barbarity. An hundred and fifty years ago, it might have cost the monarch his crown; but in this age, it hardly produced even a murmur.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain, there are eight archbishoprics, and forty-six bishoprics. The archbishop of Toledo, the primate of Spain, has a revenue of 100,000*l.* sterling per annum; but the Spanish court has, of late, adopted many ways of lessening the emoluments of the church, as by pensions, donations to hospitals, and premiums to the societies of agriculture. The see of Toledo pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Escorial, besides other pensions; and, it is asserted, that every bishopric in Spain has some body quartered upon it. The second-rate benefices, are believed to be in the same situation.

The archbishops, bishops, and convents, from their ample revenues, give away immense sums in what is absurdly stiled *Charity*. “In traversing the streets of Seville, (says Mr. Townsend) I was struck with the multitude of beggars clothed in rags; and was at first inclined to attribute this to the decay of trade; but, upon examination, I found a more abiding cause in the distribution of alms at the archbishop’s palace, and at the gates of twenty convents, daily, and without distinction, to all who make application for relief. Such misplaced benevolence is a bar to industry, and multiplies the objects of distress, whose numbers bear exact proportion to the provision made for their support. This is the case, not in one, but in every place, where beggars abound; for, by the mistaken benevolence of the bishop, of the canons, and of the convents, in distributing alms to all who ask, there is such ample provision made for laziness, that every street swarms with vagabonds, not merely with those who are proper objects of compassion, but with wretches, who, if compelled to work, would be found abundantly able to maintain themselves. What incitement can there be here to industry? Hence it comes to pass, that wherever these indiscriminate charities abound, few traces of it are to be seen; whilst filth and nastiness, immorality and vice, wretchedness and poverty, the inevitable consequences of undistinguishing benevolence, prevail. How evident is it from hence, that he who finds employment for the poor is their greatest friend; whilst he who indiscriminately feeds them, should be ranked amongst their enemies?”

LANGUAGE.] The basis of the Spanish language, like that of the Italian, is the Latin; and it might be called a dialect of Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, especially the former. It is at present a majestic and expressive language, and by a person acquainted with the Latin, may be acquired in a few weeks. While the Italian, and still more the French tongue, is in a state of incessant fluctuation, the Spanish, correspondent with the grave and steady character of the nation that speaks it, has retained its purity for upwards of two hundred years. The Spanish Paternoster runs thus: *Padre nuestro, que estas en el cielo, santificado se el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; bagase tu voluntad, assi en la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nuestro de cada dia da nos le oy; y perdona nos nuestras deudas assi como nos otros perdonamos a nuestros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le reyno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los siglos. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Antiquity was indebted to Spain for several valuable writers, and, in particular, for three celebrated poets, Seneca, Martial, and

Lucan. As a moral philosopher, Seneca is universally known. As a poet, ten Latin tragedies bear his name. They have been much and undeservedly neglected*. Objections have been made, and sometimes with reason, to the conduct of his plots; but his chorusses alone are worth whole libraries of the ordinary productions of the dramatic muse. They frequently express the most philosophical and profound ideas, adorned with the most splendid felicity of poetical expression. Nor is he incapable of the pathetic; of which the lamentation on the death of Hercules affords, among other passages, a memorable evidence. Yet a croud of tasteless critics have insulted the literary world, by an indiscriminate censure of this poet. It is, however, an object of doubt, with some learned men, whether these tragedies are all the work of Seneca, or if he was the same person with the famous moralist. Lucan is much better known. Martial wrote, besides other short poems, fourteen books of epigrams; but the two last of these are evidently spurious, for they bear not the smallest trace of his well-known features. This observation is hazarded from an intimate acquaintance with the writings of this amiable poet. Martial deserves, in the highest sense of the word, the title of a *Classic*. Though he spent thirty-four years of his life in Rome, and was in habits of friendship with Juvenal, Quintilian, Pliny the younger, and a croud of other eminent characters, the pedants of modern ages pretend to have discovered in his style, marks of Spanish barbarism; an accusation which may be ranked as the climax of censorial impertinence. He is distinguished by a strong vein of common sense, by genuine good humour, and by a perspicuity and completeness of expression, which Horace often fails to attain. The title of his epigrams has misled many persons, and among others, the learned and intelligent Mr. Hume, to imagine, that he was a mere punster, and that his verses contained nothing better than a play upon words. In Greece and Rome, the title of *Epigram* was given to many kinds of short poems; and a great part of those of Martial have not the most distant resemblance to punning. He has left behind, many very beautiful lessons of morality. His addresses to his wife Marcella, to Quintilian, and to many others of his friends of both sexes, are master-pieces of elegant composition. We have been more copious on the characters of Seneca and of Martial, because they are very generally misrepresented and misunderstood.

In modern ages, "the greatest impediment to the progress of literature in Spain, is the despotic nature of its government. Learning owes something to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and to cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. The inimitable Cervantes, born at Madrid, in 1549, enlisted 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. He was long a prisoner and a slave, in Barbary. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much service to his countrymen, by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his memory. He was in prison for debt when he composed the first part of this history, and is to be placed at the head of Spanish authors.

The visions of Quevedo, and some other of his humorous and satirical pieces, are translated into the English language, and 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. He was skilled in the oriental languages, and possessed great erudition. His works have appeared in three quarto volumes, 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.

* Of this work, there is a beautiful edition, by far the most elegant that we have any where seen, in the public library at Philadelphia.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. After the Saracens had settled themselves in that country, 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, they 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 inhabitants of Spain could then write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compose verses in that language, with fluency and elegance. The Spanish Jews made a figure in literature, which was promoted by teachers 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. He was desirous of returning to his own country; but the Moorish king of Cordova would not give his consent, satisfied 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, which produced a number of Hebrew poets, 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, which have crept into the Castilian language, and form a conspicuous part of its phraseology. To these Jews the Spanish language is indebted, for a curious version of the Hebrew books of the Old Testament, which was afterwards printed at Ferrara, in 1553, in a Gothic-Spanish letter.

The Spanish writers also boast of their Troubadours as early as the twelfth or thirteenth century, the Provençal and Galician dialects being then very prevalent. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1434, was the author of that famous work, the *Arte de la Gaya Sciencia*, which comprehends a system of poetry, rhetoric, and oratory, besides describing all the ceremonies of the Troubadours at their public exhibitions. He was also the author of a Spanish translation of the *Æneid*. Juan de Mena, of Cordova, was likewise, in his own time, celebrated as a poet: His works 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 an essay on the art of poetry, and other works, which were printed at Saragossa, in 1516. Boscan, Villegas, and other Spanish poets, also obtained great reputation in their own country. Mr. Hayley, in the notes to his third epistle on epic poetry, has obliged the world with some curious anecdotes of Lopez de Vega. He was born on the 25th of November, 1562. He served on board the Invincible Armada, in which he lost a brother in an engagement with some Dutch ships. He died on the 25th of August, 1635, in the 73d year of his age. It would be difficult to name any poet, ancient or modern, who, while living, was so universally idolized by all ranks of people, and so magnificently rewarded by the great. Buchanan excepted, no modern author has perhaps been so much distinguished by the multitude of his poetical panegyrics. A volume of verses in his praise, the joint production of above an hundred and fifty writers, was published soon after his death. He declared, that he constantly wrote five sheets a day. Hence his biographers compute, that he must have composed twenty-one millions three hundred and sixteen thousand verses. An elegant edition of his poems has lately been printed in Spain. They extend to nineteen quarto volumes. "His dramatic works," says Mr. Hayley, "are to be added to this collection, and will probably be still more

voluminous." That the reader may form an idea of the prodigious bulk of his writings, we may observe, that Pope's translation of the Iliad and Odyſſey extends only to about thirty-fix thouſand verſes. If we compute the whole remaining works of Homer, including his hymns, at forty thouſand lines, and thoſe of Lopez de Vega at twenty millions, the Spaniſh bard is five hundred times more voluminous than the Greek.—To Lopez de Vega we may apply what Quintilian ſays of Steſichorus: "He is redundant, and diffuſive, which, though it is to be cenſured, is yet the fault of a powerful mind."—He was an amiable man, and liberal in the praiſe of Ercilla, Camoens, and his cotemporary poets. It is, however, a remarkable circumſtance, that he is hardly, if at all known, except in his native language.

Alonzo de Ercilla is another celebrated poet of Spain. He was born at Madrid, on the 7th of Auguſt, 1533; and, in 1554, embarked, as a ſoldier of fortune, for Chili. He was in active ſervice in that country for about eight years, and on his return to Europe, formed the plan of an epic poem, entitled *La Araucana*, which will tranſmit his name with reputation to diſtant poſterity. He publiſhed the firſt complete edition of this performance in 1590. It conſiſts of thirty-ſeven cantos. It is irregular in the plan, and unequal in the execution; but it has been admired and celebrated, as a work of uncommon excellence, by many Spaniſh critics, and among others, by the illuſtrious author of *Don Quixote*. Like almoſt every man of ſuperior poetical talents, Ercilla was a perſon of uncommon modeſty. It is ſaid that once in addreſſing his ſovereign, Philip the ſecond, his voice failed. "Don Alonzo," replied the king, "Speak to me in writing." He did ſo, and obtained his requeſt. He had acted as a page to Philip, when infant of Spain; and experienced from that unfeeling tyrant, the neglect and abandonment which men of talents have met with in all ages from the great. Like Cervantes, he died in obſcurity, and perhaps, like him, in want. The poem, like the Iliad and *Æneid*, is chiefly exceptionable in a moral point of view, as repreſenting the countrymen of the author to be the favourites of heaven, and conſequently entitled to exterminate their antagoniſts. The ſecond great objection is, that it contains an improper mixture of hiſtory and fable. By attempting to combine the almoſt incompatible characters of a poet and an hiſtorian, Ercilla partly fails in both. But after all, his *Araucana* demonstrates the uncommon abilities of its author, by many pathetic narratives, many ſtriking deſcriptions, and many noble and generous ſentiments. The time of the death of this author is unknown.

Herrera has diſplayed great abilities, by inveſtigating the antiquities of America, and writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by his countrymen. Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed. His performances diſplay ingenuity, extenſive reading, and liberality of ſentiment. Many of them have been tranſlated into Engliſh, and publiſhed in four volumes, 8vo.

Some Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts. The cities and palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover many ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects: Palomina, in a 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 end of the reign of Philip the Fourth. Among the moſt eminent Spaniſh painters, were Velasques, Murillo, who is commonly called the Spaniſh Vandyke, Ribeira, and Glaudio Coello, whoſe ſtyle of painting was very ſimilar to that of Paul Veroneſe.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are twenty-four univerſities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains twenty-one colleges, ſome of which are very magnificent. Many of the nobility of Spain ſend their ſons to be educated here. The others are, Seville, Granada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Huelſca, Sa-

ragoffa, Tortosa, Oſſuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTI- }
FICIAL AND NATURAL. } 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 one hundred and fifty-nine arches. It reaches about one hundred and forty yards; and, where it crosses the valley, it is something more than ninety-four feet high. Its solidity, which has braved upwards of sixteen centuries, seems inexplicable, on closely observing the simplicity of its construction. It is composed of square stones, placed one upon another, without any exterior appearance of cement, though, as they are cut and placed with peculiar art, we cannot now be certain whether they were really united without this aid, or whether the cement has been destroyed by time. Other Roman aqueducts and theatres are to be found at Terrago, and in other parts of Spain. Near Salamanca are the remains of a Roman highway, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church. It is six hundred feet in length, five hundred in breadth, and of a proportionable height. The roof is amazingly bold and lofty, and is supported by three hundred and fifty pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are three hundred and sixty-six altars, and twenty-four gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built, in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had existed one thousand nine hundred and eighty-five 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 Morviedro, formerly Saguntum, are the ruins of a Roman theatre. It is an exact semicircle, about eighty-two yards diameter. Some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and nine thousand persons might, without inconvenience, attend the exhibitions.

The Moorish antiquities are magnificent. Among the most distinguished of these is the royal palace of the Alhambra, at Granada, one of the most entire and splendid buildings, erected by the Moors in Spain. It was built, in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is situated on a hill, which is ascended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace which was never finished, though the shell of it remains. It is built of yellow stone; the outside forms a square of one hundred and ninety feet. The inside is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuscan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each supported by thirty-two columns, made of as many single pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jasper; on the pedestals of which are representations of battles, in marble basso relievo. The Alhambra itself is a mass of many houses and towers, walled round, and built of large stones, of different dimensions. Almost all the rooms have stucco walls and ceilings, some carved, some painted, and some gilt, and covered with various Arabic sentences. Here are several baths, the walls, floors, and ceilings 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 Ginaraliph, 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 that 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 are the medicinal springs. The river Guadiana, like the mole in England, runs under ground, and afterwards emerges. The royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid was opened to the public by the king's orders in 1775. This collection is arranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, besides being shown 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, should care be taken to get the productions of the Spanish American colonies. The cabinet 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 of St. Michael, eleven hundred and ten feet above the level of the earth. Many pillars of various sizes, some of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. 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 Algeiras, and the Alpuxarra 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.] Madrid is the capital of Spain, and contains about three hundred thousand inhabitants. It is surrounded with very lofty mountains, whose summits are frequently covered with snow. It is well paved and lighted, and some of the streets are spacious and handsome. The houses of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for show, 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 have more the appearance of 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 Edinburg. 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, nor coffee-house, nor newspaper, except the Madrid Gazette, is to be found in the whole city. The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the west side of the city; it is a spacious magnificent structure, consisting of three courts, and commands a very fine prospect. Each of the fronts is four hundred and seventy feet in length, and one hundred high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence. The great audience-chamber is one hundred and twenty feet long, and hung with crimson velvet, richly embroidered with gold. It is ornamented also with twelve looking-glasses, made at St. Ildefonso, each ten feet high, with twelve tables of the finest Spanish marble. The other royal palaces are designed for hunting-seats, or houses of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues.

The palace of Aranjuez and its gardens are said to be 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 those alleys is formed by two double rows of elm trees. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreast, and between 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 at large, with numberless hares, and rabbits, besides pheasants, partridges, and other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through the place. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly surrounded by the garden, and is adorned with fountains and statues; it also contains a variety of the most beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itself, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered, and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. The gardens are on a declivity, on the top of which is a great reservoir of water, which supplies the fountains. The water-works are excellent. The great entry of the palace, is somewhat similar to that of Versailles, and has a large iron pallisade. In the gardens are twenty-seven fountains. The basins are of white marble; and the statues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. These gardens are in the French style, and ornamented with sixty-one very fine marble statues, as large as life, with twenty-eight marble vases, and twenty leaden vases gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique statues, busts, and basso relievos. The money expended in this palace and gardens, was immense; but when we consider, says Mr. Townsend, that the whole of the garden was a barren rock, that the very soil was brought from a great distance, and that water is conveyed to every tree; when we reflect upon the quantity of lead used for the images, and of cast-iron for the pipes, with the expense of workmanship for both, together with all the other elegancies, corresponding to such an undertaking, we shall not wonder to hear, that this place cost forty-five millions of piastres, or, nearly thirty millions of dollars.

The Escorial, however, is the boast of Spain; and the natives say, that the building of it cost more than that of any other palace in Europe. The description of this palace, forms a quarto volume; and it is reported, that its founder, Philip II. expended upon it six millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows; 200 in the west front, and in the east 366. The apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, gems, and other curious stones. This building, besides its palace, contains a church, large, and richly ornamented, a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thousand volumes; but it is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuscripts, with which it is enriched. Above the shelves, are paintings *al fresco* by Bartholemi 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 mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very singular circumstance in this library is, that, on viewing the books, the reader will find them placed the contrary way, so that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contain their titles written on them. The reasons for this custom are, that Arias Montanus, a 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; and that he introduced his own method into the Escorial, which, since his time, for the sake of uniformity, has 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, adorned with fountains and costly ornaments. Two hundred fathers live in the convent, who have an annual revenue of twelve thousand pounds. 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 thirty-six feet in diameter, incrustured with fine marbles.

Philip II. erected this palace to commemorate the victory which he obtained over the French, at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king resides, is a long square of six hundred and forty feet by five hundred and eighty. The height to the roof is sixty 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 *tout ensemble*. The pictures and statues, which have found admission there, are excellent in their kind, and some of them can scarcely be equalled even 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, that joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay, is about five hundred 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 that their merchants have in the treasures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The streets are narrow, ill-paved, dirty, and full of rats in the night. The houses are lofty, with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the sea. The population is estimated at one hundred and forty thousand inhabitants, of whom twelve thousand are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral hath been already fifty years in building, and the roof is not half finished. The environs are exceedingly beautiful.

Cordova is now an inconsiderable place; the streets crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conspicuous for their architecture. The palaces of the inquisition and of the bishops are extensive and well situated. The cathedral was formerly a mosque, divided into seventeen aisles by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the silver candlesticks cost nearly four thousand dollars each. The revenue of the see amounts to three thousand five hundred pounds per ann.; but as the bishops cannot devise by will, the property of which they die possessed, goes to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largest city in Spain, but has greatly decayed both in riches and population. The shape is circular, and the walls appear of Moorish construction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The suburb of Triana is large, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle, where, in 1481, the accursed inquisition was first established in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and silk, which formerly amounted to sixteen thousand looms, are now reduced to four hundred, and its great office of commerce to Spanish America, is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious steeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and is referred to in Don Quixote. This steeple is one of the greatest curiosities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London; but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York-minster for lightness, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The first clock made in the kingdom, was set up in this cathedral in the year 1400, in the presence of king Henry III. The prospect of the country, round this city, beheld from the steeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, said to be founded by Hamilcar Bareas, is a large trading city, containing fifteen thousand houses, situated on the Mediterranean, opposite Minorca, and 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 which 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 one hundred and fifty thousand, who supply Spain with most of the clothing and arms for the troops.

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, abound in this city, whose inhabitants are computed at eighty thousand. Its archbishopric is one of the richest in Spain, the revenues amounting to nearly two hundred thousand dollars a year.

Carthagená is a large city, but has few good streets, or remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arsenal is a spacious square, south-west of the town, with forty pieces of cannon to defend it towards the sea. When Mr. Swinburne visited it, in 1775, there were eight hundred Spanish criminals, and six hundred Barbary slaves working at the pumps to keep the docks dry, &c. who were treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were sent there, deserved indeed exemplary punishments.

Granada stands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double summit between two rivers, the Dauro and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are passed away with its old inhabitants; the streets are now filthy, the aqueducts crumbled to dust, and its trade lost. Of fifty thousand inhabitants, only eighteen thousand are employed in labour; 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. The environs of the city are 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. The water is so conveyed into the streets, that they may be washed at pleasure; which renders Bilboa one of the cleanest 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, of a circular form, surrounded with a double wall, strengthened by stately towers, and has nine gates. A Moorish castle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The streets are narrow, and the most remarkable building is a stupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. said to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The bishop's income is nearly eighty thousand dollars.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two vallies, and on every side surrounded with prospects of fine houses, noble seats, gardens, orchards, fields, and distant villages; and is 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 the 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 at the top. The lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the square, extending two hundred and ninety-three feet on each side. In this square the bull-fights are exhibited for three days, 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, which is 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 who remain, and assists, in some degree, those small manufactures of sword-blades and silk-stuffs that are established in this city. It is exceedingly ill-built, poor, and mean, and the streets very steep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Castile, but is now in obscurity. The cathedral is one of the most magnificent structures of the Gothic kind in Europe.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortress of Andalusia, is, at present, in possession of Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place about the year 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 chiefly owing to accident. The prince of Hesse, with eighteen hundred 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 fifteen thousand shot, without making any impression on the works, so that the fortress seems to be equally impregnable both to the British and Spaniards, except by famine. At last, a party of sailors rowed close under the New Mole in their boats, and as they saw that the garrison, who consisted only of one hundred men, did not perceive them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mounted the Mole, hoisted a red jacket as a signal of possession. This being observed from the fleet, more boats and sailors were sent out, who likewise ascended the works, got possession of a battery, and soon obliged the town to surrender. After many fruitless attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the English by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated endeavours have been since made to wrest it from England, but without success. The last war has 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. It must be granted, that the place is by nature almost impregnable. Near three hundred pieces of cannon, of different bores, and chiefly brass, which were sunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raised, and sold, and the price of them distributed among the garrison. It has a commodious port, 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. A current sets through the Straits from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the last siege was totally destroyed by the bombs of the enemy; but, on account of its fortifications, it is esteemed the key of Spain, and is always furnished with a garrison well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is accessible on the land side, only by a narrow passage between the rock and the sea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and so inclosed by high steep hills, as to be almost inaccessible that way. It has two gates on that side, and as many towards the sea. Across this isthmus, the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garrison of Gibraltar from

having any intercourse with the country behind them: notwithstanding which, they carry on a clandestine trade, particularly in tobacco. The garrison is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces scarcely any thing, all their provisions are imported either from England, or from Ceuta, on the opposite coast of Barbary.

The chief islands belonging to Spain in Europe, are those of Majorca, Minorca, and Yvica. Minorca was taken by the English, under general Stanhope, in 1708, and confirmed to Britain, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but it was retaken by the Spaniards, on February 15, 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of peace, signed at Paris, September 3, 1783. It contains about twenty-seven thousand inhabitants.

The inferior order of Spaniards, even in the greatest cities, are miserably lodged. Many of the poorer sort, both men and women, wear neither shoes nor stockings. Coarse bread steeped in oil, and occasionally seasoned with vinegar, is the common food of the country people through several provinces. In Spain, a traveller ought to carry provisions and bedding with him, and even when he meets with the appearance of an inn, he must often cook his victuals, it being beneath the dignity of a Spaniard to perform these offices for strangers; but lately some tolerable inns have been opened by Irish and Frenchmen in cities, and upon the high roads. The indolence and want of industry of many of the Spaniards, are powerful inducements to their industrious neighbours the French, who are to be found in all parts of the kingdom; many of the recent improvements of which, are owing to their activity and exertions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards make gold and silver the chief branches of their exports and imports. They import them from America, and then export them to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. Hither other European nations send their merchandise, to be shipped off in Spanish bottoms for America, sheltered under the names of Spanish factors. Those foreign nations have here their agents and correspondents, and the consuls of those nations make a considerable figure. Cadiz has been said to have the finest store-houses and magazines for commerce, of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly carry the treasures of Spanish America. The proper Spanish merchandises imported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandise sent thither would yield a great revenue, were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding those duties.

At St. Ildefonso the glass manufacture is carried on to a great degree of perfection. The largest mirrors are made in a brass frame, one hundred and sixty-two inches long, ninety-three wide, and six deep, weighing near nine tons. These are designed wholly for the royal palaces, and for presents from the king. Yet even for such purposes it is ill placed, in a country where provisions are dear, fuel scarce, and carriage exceedingly expensive. Here is also a royal manufacture of linen, employing about fifteen looms; by which, it is said, the king is a considerable loser.

In the city of Valencia, there is a very respectable silk manufacture, in which five thousand looms, and three hundred stocking-frames, give employment to upwards of twenty thousand of the inhabitants, without enumerating those who prepare the wood and iron-work of so great a number of machines, or spin, wind, or dye the silk. At Alcora, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been successfully established; and they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, the 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 Carthage, 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.

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. A custom in 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 liable to break, after being used but a short space of time.

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; at present they are able to do without the assistance, in this article, of any other nation. The kingdom of Granada already furnishes them with the greatest part of the hemp that 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.

One of the most important productions of this country, and the most valuable article of commerce, is barilla, a species of pot-ash, procured by burning a great variety of plants almost peculiar to the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia. 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 its superior excellence has hitherto secured the barilla the preference. The country producing it, is about sixty leagues in length and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Mediterranean. The quantity exported annually from Spain, 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 saltpetre, a most important article of commerce. The account of this surprising manufacture we shall abridge from Mr. Townsend. "I observed, says he, a large inclosure, with a number of mounds of about twenty feet high, at regular distances from each other. These were collected from the rubbish of the city of Madrid, and the scrapings of the highways. They had remained all the winter piled up in the manner in which I found them. At this time men were employed in wheeling them away, and spreading abroad the earth to the thickness of about one foot, whilst others were turning what had been previously exposed to the influence of the sun and air. The preceding summers these heaps had been washed, and, being thus exposed, would yield the same quantity of salt again, and, as far as appears, the produce would never fail; but, after having been washed, no saltpetre can be obtained without a subsequent exposure." Some of this earth they can lixivate once a year, some they have washed twenty times in the last seven years; and some they have subjected to this operation fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye when they may wash it to advantage, and by their taste, if it has yielded a lixivium of a proper strength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtain the saltpetre.

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 deriving the chief advantage of the American commerce; but these never can be successful, till a spirit of industry is awakened among the natives, so as to enable them to supply their American possessions with their own commodities and merchandize. The English, French, Dutch, and other nations, who carry on this contraband trade, are greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themselves are, the clear profits seldom amounting to less than twenty per cent.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, once 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 of Spain, once the grand bulwark of the people against regal usurpations and tyranny, 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 controul 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 cognizance of military affairs only. The council of Castile is the highest law tribunal of the kingdom. The several courts of the royal audiences, are those of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragossa, Valencia, and Barcelona. These judge primarily in all causes within 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 apart, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magistrates, who, in their respective districts, are 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 viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are so considerable, that they are seldom confided to the same person for more than three years; and their emoluments are sufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain, besides those in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Mafulquiver, on the coast of Barbary in Africa; and the islands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Asia.

REVENUES.] The revenues arising to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to about twenty-four millions of dollars, some writers say, above thirty-six. His American income is immense, but it is generally embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the silver mines that are worked; but little of it comes into his coffers. He devises means, however, in case of a war, or any public emergency, to sequester great part of the American treasures belonging to his subjects, who never complain, because they are always punctually repaid, with interest.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues arise, they are various, arbitrary, and so much dependant on emergencies, that they cannot be accurately ascertained. They are imposed upon all kinds of goods, houses, lands, timber and provisions; the clergy and military orders are likewise taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of Spain, in time of peace, are about seventy-thousand; but in war they have amounted to one hundred and ten thousand. The late king was at great expense to raise a powerful marine; and the Spanish fleet, in Europe and America, at present exceeds seventy ships of the line. Along the coasts of Spain are watch towers, at a mile's distance from each other, with lights and guards at night, so that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilbao to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be speedily alarmed in case of an invasion.

ROYAL TITLES.] Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, the whole of which, with several others, were by name entered into the royal titles, so that they amounted to about thirty-two. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued; but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majesty. He is inaugurated by the delivery of a sword, without being crowned. The signature never mentions his name, but, I THE KING. His eldest son is called prince of Asturias; and his younger children, of both sexes, are, by way of distinction, called infants, or *infantas*, that is, children.

HISTORY OF SPAIN.] Spain was probably first peopled by the Celtæ, from Gaul; to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow strait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the rise of Rome and Carthage, the possession of this kingdom became an object of contention between those republics; but at last the arms of the Romans 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 country among them; but in the year 584, the Goths again became the masters. These were, in their turn, invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the seventh century, had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and not content with the immense regions that formerly composed great part of the Assyrian, Persian, Macedonian, and Roman empires, crossed the Mediterranean, ravaged Spain, and established themselves in its southern provinces.

Don Pelago is on record as the first Spanish prince who distinguished himself against these barbarians, who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania. He assumed the title of king of Asturia, about the year 720. His successes animated other Christian princes to take arms likewise; and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal were, for many ages, perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were superior to all their cotemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman race kept possession of the throne nearly 300 years. Learning flourished in Spain, while the rest of Europe was immersed in ignorance and barbarity. But the Moorish princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief ministers proud and insolent. A series of civil wars ensued, which at last overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities arose on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent sovereign. Every adventurer was entitled to the conquests which he made upon the Moors, till Spain was at last divided into twelve or fourteen kingdoms. About the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his son Alphonso threw off the dependence on Leon, and declared himself king. A succession of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, until about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms of the peninsula, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Isabella the heiress, and afterwards queen of Castile. They took Granada, and published an edict commanding all the Jews who would not renounce their religion, and become Christians, to quit Spain. Immense numbers of them fled to Algiers. The rigours exercised against the Moors, obliged numbers of them to flee in like manner.

The expulsion of the Jews, and the emigration of the Moors, in part depopulated Spain of artists, labourers, and manufacturers. To complete her misfortunes, Ferdinand and Isabella introduced the inquisition, that utmost instance of human depravity, 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, in the year 1516, to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of

Ferdinand and Isabella. He was a perfidious and unfeeling tyrant. 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 wars with other princes, or with his own protestant subjects, whom he in vain attempted to compel within the pale of the catholic church. He consigned to the executioner, from fifty to a hundred thousand of his protestant subjects in the Netherlands; and it is somewhat strange, that Robertson, in his copious history of this emperor, omits all mention of this dreadful butchery. He 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 retired from any concern in public affairs, that he might spend the remainder of his days in retirement and solitude.

He resigned Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor. They conferred the imperial crown upon Ferdinand, brother to Charles; thereby, wisely dividing the very 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, who still possess them.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, and hardly any of his virtues. He was austere, haughty, exorbitantly ambitious, and, through his whole life, a cruel bigot. He is, upon the whole, probably, the most detestable of modern monarchs. His gloomy character was not irradiated by a single spark of virtue, or benevolence; nor, perhaps, is the black narrative of his crimes interrupted by a single act of generosity. His marriage with queen Mary of England, his unsuccessful addresses to her sister Elizabeth, his resentment, his unfortunate wars with that princess, his tyranny and persecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loss of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned, in the history of those countries.

In Portugal he was more successful. That kingdom, after having been governed by a race of wise and brave princes, fell to Sebastian, about the year 1557. Sebastian lost his life and a considerable army, in an expedition against the Moors in Africa; and, in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his 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. For some time before his death, Philip had become, by a most loathsome disease, an object of pity, and of horror.

The descendants of this monarch were very weak princes; but Philip and his father had so 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. Portugal has, ever since, 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 title 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 peace of Utrecht, in 1713. Thus Lewis XIV. accomplished his favorite 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 secured that kingdom for his son Carlos; the Sicilians, through the oppression of the Imperialists, readily acknowledging him for their sovereign.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of Elizabeth of Parma, his wife, Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand VI. a mild and pacific prince, who reformed many abuses, and endeavoured to promote the commerce and prosperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. Ferdinand was succeeded by his brother Charles the III. then king of Naples and the two Sicilies, late king of Spain, and son to Philip V. by his wife, the princess of Parma.

Shortly after his accession, war being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the port and city of Havannah, in the island of Cuba; but the conquest was extremely ill conducted, and obtained at a prodigious expense of lives.

In consequence of a peace, the Havannah was restored to Spain. In 1765, an expedition was concerted against Algiers, by the Spanish ministry, which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of twenty-four thousand, 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 twenty-seven officers killed, and one hundred and ninety-one wounded; and five hundred rank and file killed, and above two thousand wounded. In the years 1783 and 1784, they renewed their attacks against Algiers by sea; but, after spending much ammunition, and losing many lives, were forced to retire, without doing that place much injury.

When the war between Britain and America 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 Britain. The Spaniards, in 1779, absurdly began their first operations, by closely besieging Gibraltar, both by sea and land. The siege was continued throughout the war, with occasional fierce attacks on both sides, though what the garrison had chiefly to dread, was famine; and so soon did this begin to make its appearance, that, about the middle of January, 1780, not only bread, but every article necessary to the support of life, was difficult to be procured, and only at exorbitant prices. Captain Drinkwater, in his history of this siege, informs us, that veal, mutton, and beef, sold from two shillings and six-pence, to four shillings sterling per pound; fresh pork, from two to three shillings; salt beef and pork, one shilling and three-pence per pound; fowls, eighteen shillings per couple; ducks, a guinea; and other articles in proportion. And though the troops were frequently relieved, yet the same difficulties very frequently returned. However, the garrison still held out; and though the Spanish army and train of artillery continued daily to increase, the utmost efforts of their power were insufficient to make impression on this impregnable fortress. So little regard, indeed, was paid to the formidable preparations of the Spaniards, that, even from the beginning of the siege, it had been customary with general Elliot, the governor, to allow them to bring their works to perfection, and then to demolish them. The more frequently the besiegers were disappointed, the more eager they seemed for the accomplishment of their point. The most prodigious number of cannon, mortars, and all other destructive engines of that kind, that perhaps ever were assembled in any one enterprise, were now brought before a single fortress, with little or no effect. By the violence of their fire, indeed, the houses were reduced to ruins, and the inhabitants were obliged to remove to England; but the fortifications were scarcely ever damaged in the least. The soldiers were so much accustomed to shells falling and bursting near them, that they became, in a manner, insensible of danger; and their officers were frequently obliged to call to

them to avoid them, when just ready to burst at their feet. The historian gives many instances of their destructive power, particularly in a wounded matross, when a shell from the mortar-boats fell into the ward of the hospital, and rebounding fell upon the bed where he lay. The convalescents and sick, in the same room, instantly summoned up strength to crawl out on hands and knees, whilst the fuse was burning ; but this wretched victim was kept down by the weight of the shell, which after some seconds burst, took off both his legs, and scorched him in a dreadful manner ; he survived for some time, and only regretted that he had not been killed on the batteries.

The grand attack was made on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ships, from six hundred to one thousand four hundred tons burden, carrying in all two hundred and twelve brass guns, entirely new, and discharging shot of twenty-six 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 scarcely ever before occurred in any siege since the invention of gunpowder. The irresistible impression of the red-hot balls, which were sent from the garrison, was soon conspicuous ; for, in the afternoon, smoke was perceived to burst from the admiral's ship and another ; by one o'clock 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 most heroically distinguished himself in this humane undertaking, and with twelve gun-boats, saved nine officers, two priests, and three hundred and thirty-four men, all Spaniards, besides one officer, and eleven Frenchmen, who had floated in, the preceding evening. Such hazardous exploits of humanity, are superior to all praise, and deserve to be transmitted, on brass and marble, to the last generations of mankind.

Thus ended the hopes formed by the Spaniards of reducing the fortrefs of Gibraltar. But, great as was the bravery of the British garrison, the small numbers of the killed and wounded are alone sufficient to show, that they must have been assisted by very strong fortifications, or it was impossible that any skill whatever could have resisted such a tremendous power. Some unimportant operations continued on the side of the Spaniards till the restoration of peace, in 1783.

In other enterprises the Spaniards were more successful. The island of Minorca was surrendered to them on the 6th of February, 1782, after having been besieged for one hundred and seventy-one days. The garrison consisted of no more than two thousand six hundred and ninety-two men, while the forces of the besiegers amounted to sixteen thousand, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spanish commander at first attempted to corrupt general Murray, the governor ; but this being rejected with indignation, the siege was commenced in form. The scurvy soon made its appearance, and reduced the British troops to such a deplorable situation, that they were at last obliged to surrender, in spite of every effort of human fortitude or skill. The Spanish general allowed them to march out with their arms shouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, and paid them every mark of respect, to which unsuccessful bravery is entitled.

The late catholic king used much pains to oblige his subjects to change their ancient dress and manners, and carried his endeavours so far, that it occasioned an insurrection at Madrid, and obliged him to part with his minister, the marquis of Squit-lace. The smallest injury was not offered to individuals ; and several of the insurgents,

who had called for liquor in public houses, came back next day to pay their reckoning.

Charles III. late king of Spain, was born in 1716, succeeded to the throne in 1759, and died November 13, 1788. He was succeeded by his second son, Charles Anthony, prince of Asturias; the eldest having died in 1775.

Charles IV. present king of Spain, was born November 11, 1748, was married September 4, 1765, to princess Louisa of Parma, born December 9, 1751; and has had six children.

The present king of Spain has entered into the general combination of the sovereigns of Europe, against the republic of France. The consequences of this step shall be related under that head. We need here only mention that his life has been in the utmost danger. Five Frenchmen in his life guards, conspired to kill him. They fired, and some of the balls went through his clothes, without hurting him. An order was soon after published for the indiscriminate expulsion of all Frenchmen from Spain. The total number of these unfortunate people, in that country, is said to have been about seventy thousand. Of these, many were aristocrats; so that the edict was, in every point of view, and in every sense of the word, a most abominable act of tyranny. Vast multitudes of these victims have been driven out of Spain, without being allowed time to dispose of their property, and with only as much money, as would pay their passage to another country. Several of them have actually arrived in Philadelphia, some of whom had been obliged to leave their families and effects behind them, and take refuge in the first ship, which they could meet with. To Spain itself, such an act of despotism must be extremely injurious; and, it is likely, that its application will, in many instances, be softened, from the mere difficulty of carrying it literally into execution.

P O R T U G A L.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	300	between	37 and 42 north latitude.
Breadth	100		68 and 65 east longitude, from Philadel.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the north and east, and on the south and west by the Atlantic ocean, being the most westerly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS. } This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Lusitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It is divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and southern provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief Towns	Sq. M.
The Northern Division contains	{ Entre Minho,	{ Braga,	{ 6,814
	{ Douro,		
	{ Tralos Montes,	{ Oporto and Viana,	
		{ Miranda and Villa Real,	
The Middle Division contains	{ Beira,	{ Coimbra,	{ 12,640
	{ Estremadura,		
		{ Guada Castel Rodigro,	
		{ L I S B O N,	{ 38-42 N. lat.
			{ 66-25 E. lon.
		{ St. Ubes and Leira.	

Brought forward			18,454	
The Southern Division contains	{	Entre Tajo	}	8,397
		Guadiana		
		Alentejo		
		Algarva		
		Ebora, or Evora		
		Portalegre, Elvas, Beja		
		Lagos		
		Faro, Tavaró, and Silves.		
				<hr/> 27,851

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain, for fertility, especially in corn, which is imported from other countries; and in particular from the United States of America. Its fruits are the same as those of Spain, but not so highly flavoured. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are friendly to the constitution, and safe to drink*. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; it has a variety of gems, marbles, and mill-stones, and a fine mine of salt-petre, near Lisbon. Its cattle and poultry are esteemed but indifferent food. The air, especially about Lisbon, is soft and beneficial to consumptive patients.

MOUNTAINS.] Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky. The mountains are generally barren. The chief are those which divide Algarva from Alentejo; those of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Lisbon, at the mouth of the Tagus, or, according to its latest name, Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] In Portugal almost every brook is dignified by the name of a river. The chief Portuguese rivers have already been mentioned in our account of Spain. All of them fall into the Atlantic ocean. The Tagus, or Tajo, was celebrated for its golden sand. Some hot baths are found in the province of Algarva.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories, or capes of Portugal, are cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; cape Espithel, at the south entrance of the same river; and cape St. Vincent, on the south-west point of Algarva. The bays are those of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, south of Lisbon, and Lagos Bay, in Algarva.

ANIMALS.] The sea-fish, on the coast of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable food. Their mules are sure-footed, 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 nearly two millions of inhabitants. By a survey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom three thousand three hundred and forty-four parishes, and one million seven hundred and forty-two thousand two hundred and thirty lay persons, besides about three hundred thousand ecclesiastics of both sexes. This last number is enormous†.

About the era of the discovery of the passage to the East-Indies by the cape of Good-Hope, the Portuguese occupied a most distinguished place among the nations of Europe. Their seamen were among the most adventurous, and their soldiers among the bravest in the world. But their subjugation to the tyranny of Spain produced all the effects which the despotism of one nation, exercised over another, has in all ages and in all countries produced. Their character degenerated. They were exposed to all the horrors of wars entered into without their concurrence; and were

* The port-wines are made in the district round Oporto, which does not produce one half the quantity that is consumed under that name in the British dominions only. The merchants in that city have very spacious wine vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is said that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

† This number is copied from the London edition. We are satisfied that there must be a mistake in the account, and most likely by the addition of a cypher. We have not materials to ascertain the truth. It is quite impossible that Portugal could support so vast a number of religious incumbents. Spain, though five times as populous, and fully as much under the dominion of the church, has but an hundred and six thousand.

debarred from any participation in the advantages (if, from such a horrid source as war, any advantage can arise) attending on them. They were successively a prey to the Dutch and the English, who wrested from them some of their most valuable possessions.

The transition from the domination of the house of Austria to that of the Braganza family, being only the expulsion of one tyrant to make room for another, no material change was produced in the character or manners of the nation, no such renovation as arises from an exchange of despotism for liberty. And the benumbing effects of slavery, which increase in proportion to its duration, have not been likely to awaken the dormant dignity and majesty of the human character. Notwithstanding these unpropitious circumstances attending the Portuguese, which must have sufficiently darkened their moral character, the travellers and historians who have written about them, have added shade to shade, until they exhibited a picture of depravity and debasement, almost equal to that of the Romans under their detestable emperors. Were we to believe the writers on this subject, almost every vice, and every crime, of which human nature is capable, conspires to form the national character of this nation, and hardly is the ray of one virtue allowed to dissipate, in part, the clouds of villainy, vice, and folly. To the list of revilers of Portugal, Guthrie has added his name. In the last London edition of this work, the Portuguese are branded as proud, treacherous, ungrateful, revengeful, superstitious, and thievish; and, as if this was not enough, they are, in the gross, set down as addicted to various other vices.—This shocking character, probably drawn by some traveller, equally *accurate* and *intelligent* with Chastelleux, Smith, and Anbury, has been transcribed for a hundred years by the miserable herd of copyists. But it is full time, for the great family of mankind to cease from the fatal practice of portraying each other as angels of darkness, and then mutually exciting in their breasts a “holy abhorrence” of phantoms that have only an airy existence.

The Portuguese are neither so tall nor so well made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate. The nobility affect to be more gaily and richly dressed. The characteristic distinction between the Spaniards and Portuguese, is thus described by Mr. Costigan: “In Spain, the nobleman is what he ought to be; brave, sincere, and liberal, both in his sentiments and actions. In this country, he is perfectly the reverse. As you descend among the Spaniards, the national character vitiate. In Portugal, the lower that you descend in rank, the personal character rises, and improves upon you; and you will hardly meet with a peasant who is not courteous and affable.” The Portuguese ladies are slender and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expressive, and their features generally regular. 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 seldom discharge any who survive, after serving their ancestors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all, and, in imitation of the Moors, they sit cross-legged on the ground.

The Portuguese peasant has never derived any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vast countries that the kings of Portugal possessed in Africa, and the East, or of those still remaining to them in South-America. The only foreign luxury which 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 luxury to which he seldom dares aspire. A piece of bread, made of Indian corn, and a salted pilchard, or a head of garlic, to give the bread a flavour, compose his standing dish.

RELIGION.] The established religion of Portugal is Roman catholic. The Portuguese have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unless when a contention subsisted between the courts of Rome and Lisbon. The power of the pope in Portugal has been of late much curtailed. The royal revenues are greatly increased, at the expense of the religious institutions. The power of the inquisition is now taken out of the hands of the ecclesiastics, and converted into a state-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbishoprics 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 of a distinguished family.

LANGUAGE.] The Portuguese language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. The Pater noster runs thus: *Padre nosso que estas nos Ceos, sanctificado seio o tu nome; venha a nos tua reyno, seia feita a tua vontade, assi nos Ceos, commo na terra. O paoneſſa de cadadia, dano lo oei nestro dia. E perdoa nos, senhor, as nossas dividas, assi como nos perdonamos a nos nossos devedores. E nao nos dexes cabir om tentatio, mas libra nos do mal. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The literature of this country is in such a low state, as to excite the indignation, even of the Portuguese themselves. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by some of them, to draw their countrymen from this state of ignorance. The defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The ancestors of the present Portuguese were certainly possessed of more true knowledge, with regard to astronomy, geography, and navigation, than any other European nation, about the middle of the sixteenth century, and for some time after. Camoens, who was himself a great adventurer and voyager, was possessed of a true, but neglected poetical genius. His *Lusiad* is a kind of epic poem, on the discovery of the cape of Good-Hope, and the passage by that route to the East-Indies. It has merit, and is spoken of by Cervantes, in the highest terms. An English translation has been published by Mr. Mickle, which has very great merit.

UNIVERSITIES.] That of Coimbra was founded in 1291 by king Dennis; and had fifty professors. Buchanan was for sometime one of them. He has left us a variety of short poetical pieces respecting the manners of the students, and the characters of some of the professors; and the verses exhibit a very interesting picture of the age and nation. Evora was founded in 1559. There is also a college of the nobles at Lisbon, where the young nobility have an opportunity of being educated in every branch of polite learning, and the sciences. All the books that belonged to the banished Jesuits are kept here, and 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.

CURIOSITIES.] 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 Santareen are said to be likewise of Roman work. The church and monastery near Lisbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are magnificent. Several monasteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is one of the finest and richest in the world; the paintings are mosaic work, curiously wrought with stones of all colours. The king is possessed of the largest, though not the most valuable, diamond in the world. It was found in Brasil.

CHIEF CITIES.] Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, is thought to contain two hundred thousand inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, the 1st of November, 1755. The jails being thrown down, the criminals broke out, plundering and setting fire to several places of the town. Lisbon still contains many magnificent

palaces, churches, and public buildings. It rises from the Tagus in the form of a crescent, and its appearance is at once delightful and superb. It is 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 could make but a feeble defence against ships of war. All that part of the city which was demolished by the earthquake, has been since 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, they are built of white stone, and make a beautiful appearance. The second city in the kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain thirty thousand inhabitants. The chief article of commerce there is wine; and the inhabitants of half the shops are coopers. The merchants assemble daily in the chief street to transact business; and are protected from the sun by awnings hung across from the opposite houses. About thirty English families reside here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, } With regard to agriculture, this country is in a
AND MANUFACTURES. } wretched state, producing grain for only three months consumption, which renders corn the most considerable article of importation. This must be ascribed to the baneful influence of a despotic government; for such is the natural fertility of the soil of this country, that one province alone is said to be capable of producing twice the quantity of wheat necessary to supply the whole nation.

The Portuguese exchange their wine, salt, fruits, and most of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk and woollen stuffs, with a variety of straw work, and are skilled in preserving and candying fruits. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her. The European nations trading with her, engross, as well her own native commodities, as the gold, diamonds, pearls, sugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red-wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Brasil, the ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of Africa and the East-Indies, in exchange for the almost numberless manufactures, and the vast quantities of corn and salt fish, supplied by those European nations, by the United States, and by the English colonies.

Among the Portuguese foreign settlements, are, Brasil, the isles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They are of immense value, and vastly improveable. Gold is brought from their plantations on the east and west coast of Africa, and likewise slaves for manufacturing their sugars and tobacco in Brasil, and their other 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 Spanish America. It is computed, that the king's fifth of the gold sent from Brasil, amounts annually to above thirteen hundred thousand dollars, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade. What little shipping the Portuguese have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the slave trade; and in a correspondence with Goa, their chief settlement in the East-Indies, and their other possessions there, as Diu, Daman, Macao, &c.

The first conquests of the Portuguese in Asia and Africa, did not stifle the seeds of their industry. Though Lisbon was the general warehouse for India goods, their own manufactures in silk and wool, continued to flourish, and were sufficient for the consumption both of Portugal and Brasil. Among the many calamities that Spanish tyranny brought upon the country, Portugal could not complain of a cessation of domestic industry.

The revolution of 1640, which placed the duke of Braganza upon the throne, was followed by a long and bloody war with Spain, which reduced a great part of the

country to a state of desolation. We have seen, by what means, the monarch of Prussia restored his provinces, from a condition equally deplorable. But the masters of Portugal had neither the genius nor the benevolence of Frederic. This people, shut up in the corner of a peninsula, at the western extremity of Europe, wanted allies to protect them from the Spaniards, by whom they were surrounded on two sides. For this purpose, they formed alliances, and, to secure the fidelity of their new friends, granted them, in commerce, extensive privileges. France seems to have been the first of these mercantile protectors. England succeeded her; and, in 1703, a commercial treaty was subscribed between the two nations. This measure completely destroyed the remainder of Portuguese manufactures, and even a great share of that degree of agriculture, which had survived the ravages of war, and of domestic tyranny. The Portuguese traders could not enter into a competition with those of England. That country clothed her new ally. In return, she received from Portugal, wine, oil, salt, and fruit. What she bought, was trifling compared with what she sold; and the balance was received in the gold of Brasil. Raynal has said, that England supplied Portugal annually, with woollen manufactures, to the extent of thirteen hundred thousand pounds sterling; and that in return, she took, of wine, oil, salt, and fruits, to the value of only about one hundred and thirteen thousand pounds. This statement, if accurate, gives a yearly balance of gold in favour of England, on the account of woollen stuffs only, to the extent of almost eleven hundred thousand pounds sterling. But, besides this article, England furnished Portugal with almost all the luxuries, conveniences, and even necessities of life, and likewise ships, and naval and warlike stores. England carried on almost the whole navigation, and engrossed the inland trade of Portugal. English houses were settled at Lisbon, which received the commodities of Britain, and distributed them to merchants, who retailed them in the provinces. The fleets destined for Brasil, were, in fact, the property of British merchants. From the registers of the fleets, it has been said to appear, that one hundred and five millions sterling of gold had been transmitted from South-America to Portugal, in a period of sixty years, that is to say, from the discovery of the mines to the year 1756. Yet, in 1754, the whole current cash in Portugal was estimated not to exceed seven or eight hundred thousand pounds sterling, and at the same time the nation was indebted in three millions one hundred and fifty thousand pounds. Britain went farther still. She taught Portugal to lose all regard and weight in the political system of Europe, by persuading her to maintain neither forces nor alliances. Thus, without bloodshed or labour, and without any of the calamities that attend conquest, the British made themselves as effectually masters of Portugal, as the Spaniards had been under Philip II.

For almost forty years past, this monopoly has been upon the decline; and England is now supposed to engross not more than one-third of the Portuguese trade. This has produced numerous complaints from the British merchants; and Pombal, the Portuguese minister, committed, as might have been expected from his character and situation, some acts of despotism, in his endeavours to check the British commerce. The project, however, of rendering his country independent of a foreign monopoly, was, in itself, laudable. It is a melancholy proof of the reduced state of the Portuguese, that they import, annually, three-fourths of the corn which they consume. Before the ruin of the country, they not only supported themselves, but supplied other nations with that commodity.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is absolute; but the nation still preserves an appearance of its ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortes, or states, consisting of the clergy, nobility and commons. They pretend to a right of being consulted upon the imposition of new taxes, but the only real power which they have, is, that their assent is necessary in every new regulation,

with regard to the succession. But that assent, when demanded by an absolute monarch, can be nothing but a vain ceremony.

This government is one of the most despotic in Europe. The law is generally a dead letter, unless where its decrees are carried into execution by the supplementary mandates of the sovereign; and these are frequently employed in defeating the purposes of safety and protection, which law ought to extend equally over all subjects.

It is said, that the preamble of every new law, published in Portugal, 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, do, in consequence, order and command,*" &c. &c.

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, are disposed of in the council of state, which is composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treasury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the highest tribunal that can receive appeals; but the Casa da 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.

REVENUES 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. Foreign merchandise pays twenty-three per cent. on importation, and fish from Newfoundland, twenty-five per cent. Fish taken in the rivers, and in the neighbouring seas, is subject to twenty-seven per cent. and the tax upon the sale of lands, and cattle, is ten 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 that he draws out of Portugal, grants the king the money arising from indulgencies to eat flesh at times prohibited, &c. The royal revenues are greatly increased by the suppression of the Jesuits, and other religious orders and institutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portuguese government used to depend chiefly for protection on England; and hence, for many years, they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but this confidence does not at present subsist. In the late reign, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, the court judged it expedient to raise a considerable body of troops, who were chiefly disciplined by foreign officers. Since that period, the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the discipline of the troops. The military force of Portugal, amounts to twenty-five thousand men. The naval force of this country forms about seventeen ships of war, including six frigates.

ROYAL TITLES.] The royal titles are, king of Portugal and the Algarves, lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conquest, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and Brasil. The last king was complimented by the pope, with the title of, His most faithful majesty. That of his eldest son, is, prince of Brasil.

HISTORY.] Portugal comprehends the greatest part of the ancient Lusitania. In the contests between the Carthaginians and Romans, it shared the same fate with Spain; and in the fall of the Roman empire, was successively conquered by the Suevi, Alans, Visigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alphonfus VI. king of Castile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandson of Robert king of France, for his bravery and assistance against the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal, then in the hands of the Christians. Henry was succeeded by his son Alphonfus Henry, who in July, 1139, gained a decisive battle over five Moorish kings. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal; for Alphonfus was then proclaimed king by his soldiers. He reigned forty years, and was esteemed for his military conduct, and

his love of learning. His descendants maintained themselves on the throne for some centuries.

Dennis I. or Dionysius, rebuilt or founded forty-four cities and towns in Portugal. He was a very fortunate prince, and reigned forty-six years. Under his successor, Alphonso IV. happened several earthquakes at Lisbon, which threw down part of the city, and destroyed many lives. Under John I. and in the year 1470, Madeira and the Canaries were discovered. John took Ceuta, and, after a reign of forty-nine years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonso V. about 1480, the Portuguese discovered the coast of Guinea; and under 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 succeeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predecessors, fitting out fleets for new discoveries. In his reign, Vasco de Gama cruised along the coast of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indostan. In the year 1500, Alvarez discovered Brasil.

John III. succeeded, in 1521, and, while he lost some of his African settlements, made new acquisitions in the Indies. He established the inquisition in Portugal, anno 1526, against the entreaties and remonstrances of his people. Sebastian, his grandson, succeeded him in 1557. In a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, in Africa, he was defeated, and slain or drowned. This event happened in 1578. Henry, a cardinal, son of Emanuel, and uncle to Sebastian, succeeded, but died without issue in the year 1580; on which, Anthony, prior of Crato, was chosen king, by the states of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, as has been observed in our history of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, because his mother was the eldest daughter of the grandmother of the princes of Braganza. On such frivolous circumstances, do the *rights* of princes, and the peace of nations, depend. The duke of Alva subdued the country, and proclaimed Philip, king of Portugal, on the 12th of September, 1580.

The viceroys, under Philip and his two successors, Philip III. and Philip IV. behaved to the Portuguese with great rapacity and violence. The Spanish ministers treated them as vassals of Spain; and, by repeated acts of oppression and tyranny, produced, upon the 1st of December, 1640, a revolt at Lisbon. The people, in some measure, compelled the timid duke of Braganza, legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it. He succeeded by the title of John IV. almost without bloodshed, and the foreign settlements of Portugal 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 re-unite them, proved vain; so that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portuguese could not have supported themselves against Spain, had not the latter been engaged in wars with England, France, and Holland. Alphonso, son to John IV. was, at this time, king of Portugal. He quarrelled with his wife and his brother Peter; and, if we may judge from the subsequent effrontery of their conduct, he had the best reason. They dethroned him, and obtained from the pope a dispensation for their marriage. 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 died in 1750, and was succeeded by his son Joseph. The earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital. His succeeding administration was not distinguished by the acquisition of confidence at home, or of reputation abroad. It was deeply stained with domestic blood. In September, 1758, the king, on his return one evening from visiting a mistress, was attacked by assassins, and was desperately wounded. The families of Aveira, and Tavora, were destroyed by torture, in consequence of an accusation exhibited against them as authors of the conspiracy. They were condemned without proper evidence, and their innocence hath since been publicly and authentically declared.

The abolition of the society of Jesuits, originated in the court of Portugal, and deserves some notice in this place. The active genius of this order, which, at a very early period of the preceding century, had penetrated the remotest countries of Asia, directed their attention to the extensive continent of America, as a proper object of their missions, and they had formed a considerable settlement in the province of Paraguay. Here they made a rapid progress in the instruction of the Indians, in arts, religion, and the more simple manufactures, and accustomed them to the blessings of security and peace. A few fathers presided over many thousand Indians. The tyrants who overturned their authority pretend, that they soon altered their views, and directed them altogether to the increase of the opulence and power of their society. They annually exported, to Europe, quantities of gold; and with a design of securing to themselves, an independent empire in these regions, they industriously cut off all communication between their new subjects, and the Spaniards and Portuguese in the adjacent provinces. Such was the state of affairs, when, in the year 1750, a treaty was concluded between the courts of Lisbon and Madrid, which ascertained the limits of their respective dominions in South-America. Perhaps this measure was nothing but a pretence, employed by both cabinets, for dividing the dominions of these paternal sovereigns, whose administration presented a contrast so degrading to their own. On the *justice* of such a partition, it is needless to say much. The two nations were, in every part of South-America, both usurpers and despots. The Jesuits were the only Europeans in that region of the world, who possessed a legitimate title to exercise supreme authority. That title was founded on the consent, and employed solely for the benefit, of the Indians, the original proprietors and possessors of the soil. Why should we speak of the barbarous ravages of the Goths and Vandals, when every modern era is darkened with acts of atrocity not inferior to theirs? The Jesuits made some opposition, as we shall mention under the article of PARAGUAY, but were finally driven out of the country. Under pretence of their being concerned in the conspiracy against the life of the king, the Jesuits, of all descriptions, were, in the beginning of the year 1759, imprisoned, or banished from the kingdom of Portugal. Their immense property, the most probable cause of their persecution, was confiscated. The hostilities, which, not long after, commenced between Portugal and Spain, protracted the existence of the Jesuits in the latter kingdom. But the jealousy, which their conduct had excited in the court of Madrid, only lay dormant for a time. Their destruction seems a counterpart to the massacre of the Templars.

In 1752, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards and their allies, the French, attempted to force the king of Portugal into their alliance, and wanted to garrison his seaport-towns, against the English, with their troops. He rejected this proposal, and declared war against the Spaniards. Without resistance, they entered Portugal with a considerable army, while a body of French troops threatened it from another quarter. Some have weakly 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. Portugal was saved by the interference of England, and a peace was concluded at Fontainebleau in 1763.

The king having no son, his eldest daughter was, by dispensation from the pope, married 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 reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal; an event which excited general joy throughout the nation.

Maria-Francis-Isabella, queen of Portugal, born in 1734, married, 1760, to her

uncle, Don Pedro, who was born in 1717, by whom she has had two sons and two daughters. Of these, the eldest, Joseph-Francis-Xavier, prince of Brazil, was born in 1761, and married in 1777, to his aunt Mary-Francisca-Benedicta, born in 1746.

2. Infant John-Maria-Joseph, 1767.

3. Infanta Maria-Anna-Victoria, 1768.

4. Infanta Maria-Clementina, 1774.

The queen of Portugal has, for some time, been in a state of lunacy. An English physician, of great eminence, made some vain efforts to cure her. Her court has joined in the general combination against France. Her feeble power has been of little avail to the confederates; nor is it likely to be any injury to the republic. To the honour of the Portuguese, be it mentioned, that they have shown their abhorrence of the abominable machiavelism which has officiously let loose the Algerines to prey on the trade of the United States. They have granted a convoy to the homeward-bound American vessels, which were detained at Lisbon, through the apprehension of being captured by those free booters. Last Sunday (Jan. 12th) the first of these otherwise devoted ships, the Brandywine Miller, arrived in our port. Several others have since arrived in different parts of the union. The convoy, it is said, consisted of seven men of war, of various sizes, which received orders to escort our fleet to a latitude beyond danger. In addition to this wise and generous policy, an edict has been published, directing the Portuguese men of war and frigates, to stop all vessels of the United States, taken by the Algerines, and to release such of them, as shall appear, on due examination, to have been bound for any part of Portugal.

I T A L Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Degrees.
 Length 750 } between { 38 and 47 north latitude.
 Greatest breadth 400 } { 82 and 94 east longitude, from Philadelphia.

ITALY extends, from the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about seven hundred and fifty 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 four hundred miles. In some parts, however, it is scarcely one hundred.

BOUNDARIES.] This country, towards the East, is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic sea; on the South and West, by the Mediterranean sea; and on the North, by the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The contents of the whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corsica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other islands, are exhibited in the following table.

Italy.	Countries Names.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Belonging	To the king of Sardinia.	Piedmont 6619	140	98	Turin
		Savoy 3572	87	60	Chambery
		Montferrat 446	40	22	Casal
		Alessandrine 204	27	20	Alexandria
		Oneglia 132	24	7	Oneglia
		Sardinia I. 6600	135	57	Cagliari
	To the king of Naples.	Naples 22,000	275	200	Naples
		Sicily I. 9400	180	92	Palermo
	To the emperor.	Milan 5431	155	70	Milan
		Mantua 700	47	27	Mantua
		Mirandola 120	19	10	Mirandola
		Pope's dominions 14,348	235	143	ROME { N. Lat. 41-54- E. Lon. 87-45.
	To their respective princes.	Tuscany 6640	115	94	Florence
		Maffa 82	16	11	Maffa
		Parma 1225	48	37	Parma
		Modena 1560	65	39	Modena
		Piombino 100	22	18	Piombino
		Monaco 24	12	4	Monaco
	Republics.	Lucca 286	28	15	Lucca
		St. Marino 8			St. Marino
	To France.	Genoa 2400	160	25	Genoa
		Corsica I. 2520	90	38	Bastia
	To the republic of Venice.	Venice 8434	175	95	Venice
		Istria P. 1245	46	32	Capo d'Istria
		Dalmatia P. 1400	135	20	Zara
		Isles of Dalmatia 1364			
		Cephalonia 428	40	18	Cephalonia
		Corfu, or Corcyra 194	31	10	Corfu
		Zant, or Zacynthus 120	23	12	Zant
		St. Maura 56	12	7	St. Maura.
	Islands in the Venetian dominions.	Little Cephalonia 14	7	3	
Total		97,672			

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy foil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life, in great abundance. Wines, the most delicious fruits, and oil, are very general productions. As much corn grows as serves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export grain to their neighbours. There is a great variety of air in this country. Some parts of Italy bear a melancholy proof of the alterations that accidental causes make on the face of nature: for, the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed a most salubrious air, is now pestilential, through the putrid exhalations of stagnant water. The air of the northern parts of Italy, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places covered with snow in Winter. The Appennines, a ridge of mountains extending through the greater part of Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries South of them being warm, those on the North mild and temperate. The sea-breezes refresh the kingdom of Naples so much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithstanding its southern situation. In general, the air of Italy may be said to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and Appennines, which are the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Vesuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which last runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the southern boundary between Italy and the ancient Cisalpine Gaul. There are several lakes in Italy. They have nothing very remarkable.

SEAS.] The seas of Italy are the Adriatic sea, or gulph of Venice, the seas of Naples, Tuscany, and Genoa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral springs; some hot, some warm, and many of sulphureous, chalybeate, and medicinal qualities. Several mountains abound in mines which produce emeralds, jasper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable stones. Iron and copper-mines are found in a few places; and a mill for smelting and fabricating these metals is erected near Trivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected. Curious crystals and coral are found on the coast of Corfica. Beautiful marble, of all kinds, is one of the chief productions of Italy.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } The amphitheatres claim the first rank, as a species of the most striking magnificence. There are at Rome, considerable remains of that 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, besides 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 popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farnese, in particular, deprived it of some fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, and, with infinite pains and labour, took away what was practicable of the outside casing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farnese. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the consul Flaminius, is thought to be the most entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of steps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thousand persons may be seated here at their ease, allowing one foot and a half for each person. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greatest care, at the

expense of the inhabitants. They frequently exhibit in it plays, combats of wild beasts, and other public spectacles. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are also visible in other places. The triumphal arches of Vespasian, Septimius Severus, and Constantine, are still standing, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, answer all the ideas which we can form of Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which has been converted into a church, and which, from its circular figure, is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple 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 freestone, and within, it is encrusted 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 perforated stone. The colonnade 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. At 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 one hundred and seventy-five 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 venerable column erected by Duilius, in commemoration of the first naval victory that 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 antiquities, transmitted, unhurt, to the present times; not to mention the infinite variety of medals, seals, and engraved stones, which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the first two hundred, the second one hundred and thirty, and the third fifty miles in length, are in many places still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, and the like, every where present themselves.

The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground; witness the common sewers; and the catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above thirty years since a painter's apprentice discovered the ancient city of Pæstum or Posidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, still standing. An infinite variety of curiosities has been already dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Vesuvius, which, in the reign of Nero, was almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, anno 79, overwhelmed by a stream of the lava of Vesuvius. The melted lava, in its course, filled up the streets, in some places, to the height of sixty-eight feet above the tops of the houses, and in others one hundred and ten feet. The lava is now of a consistency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away. It is composed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified sandy substances, which, united, form a close and heavy mass. In the revolution of so many ages, the spot which it stood upon was entirely forgotten; but, in the year 1713, when digging in these parts, somewhat of this unfortu-

nate city was discovered, and many antiquities were dug out ; but the search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a statue of gold, and the inscription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre, were the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horses of the same, likewise gilt : this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. There were likewise found among the ruins, multitudes of statues, busts, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils. 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 were paved with mosaic, others with fine marble, or with bricks, three feet long and six inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up so unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greatest part of the inhabitants from escaping, with many of their rich effects ; for when the excavations were made, there were not more than a dozen skeletons found, and but little of gold, silver, or precious stones. The difficulty of removing the rubbish, induced the king to roll it in again as he went on, after collecting all the moveables of any consequence. The theatre alone is left open. It is larger than any in England. The ends of the beams, burnt to coal, still adhere to the walls ; but all the ornaments that withstood the eruption, are removed to Portici.

The town of Pompeia was destroyed by the same eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which occasioned the destruction of Herculaneum ; but it was not discovered till near forty years after the discovery of the latter. One street, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared ; and that with more facility than at Herculaneum, no lava having ever gone over the ashes which buried Pompeia. The street is well paved with the same kind of stone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow causeways are raised, a foot and a half on each side, for the convenience of foot passengers. The street itself is not so broad as the common streets of Philadelphia, 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 animals. They are tolerably well executed, and, on 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 showing the goods to the greatest advantage. In another part of the town, is a rectangular building, with a colonnade towards the court. This has every appearance of a barrack and guard-room ; the pillars are of brick, covered with shining stucco, elegantly fluted ; the scrollings and drawings, still visible on the walls, are such as might be naturally expected on the walls of a guard-room, where soldiers are the designers, and swords the engraving tools. They consist of gladiators fighting, some with each other, some with wild beasts ; the games of the circus, as chariot races, wrestling, and the like ; a few figures in caricatura, designed probably by some of the soldiers in ridicule of their companions, or perhaps of their officers ; and there are many names inscribed on various parts of the wall. At a considerable distance from the barrack is a temple of the goddess Isis, the pillars of which, are of brick, stuccoed like those of the guard-room ; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The best paintings, hitherto found at Pompeia, are those of this temple ; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few skeletons were found in the streets of this town ; but a con-

siderable number in the houses. In one apartment were the skeletons of seventeen wretches, who had been confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, and some of them in circumstances which plainly show that they were endeavouring to escape, when the eruption overtook them.

With regard to modern curiosities in Italy, they are as numerous as the remains of antiquity. Rome itself contains three hundred 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 chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination.

The natural curiosities of Italy are numerous. Mount Vesuvius, which is five Italian miles distant from the city of Naples, and Mount *Ætna*, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Vesuvius, towards the sea, is every where planted with vines and fruit trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful prospect, and the air is clear and wholesome. The south and west sides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and stones. The height of Mount Vesuvius has been computed to be three thousand nine hundred feet above the surface of the sea. An animated description of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witness to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but small and moderate. At the latter period, it broke out with accumulated fury, and spread desolation for miles around. In 1694, there was a great eruption, which continued near a month, while 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, sweeping every thing before it, which lay in its way. In 1707, there was another eruption, and such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark in Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the twenty-seventh from that which destroyed Herculaneum in the time of Titus. In this last eruption, the ashes, or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the street were obliged to use umbrellas, or adopt some other expedient, to guard 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*.

This gentleman, the British envoy at the court of Naples, took great pains to investigate the phenomena of this volcano. From the time of his arrival at Naples, in 1764, he paid particular regard to the state of the mountain at all times; and observes, that the smoke is much more considerable in bad, than in fair weather; and that the inward explosions of the mountain are often, in bad weather, heard at Naples. On looking into the mouth, from whence the fire issues, in fair weather the smoke has often been so little, that he has seen a great way down, and observed the sides to be incrustated with salts and minerals of various colours, white, green, deep, and pale yellow. In bad weather, the smoke was moist, white, and much less offensive than the steams which issued from the cracks in the sides of the mountain. The signs of an approaching eruption, are an encrease of the smoke in fair weather; and after this has continued for some time, a column of black smoke is frequently observed to shoot up in the middle of the white kind, to a prodigious height; and these columns are attended with considerable explosions. While Vesuvius was in this state, sir William ascended to the top. It was about the beginning of November, and the upper part of the mountain was then covered with snow. A little

hillock of sulphur, about six feet high, had been thrown up, by the mountain and burned with a blue flame at the top; but while our author was examining this phenomenon, a sudden and loud report was heard, a column of black smoke shot up with violence, and was followed by a reddish flame. A shower of stones fell, which obliged him to retire; and he informs us, that it is by no means safe to approach too near to the mountain in this state, as some gentlemen, whom he mentions, were wounded by the stones which were thrown out by a similar explosion. As the eruption proceeds, the smoke becomes totally black in the day time, and at night appears like clouds tinged by the setting sun. Afterwards it appears like flame in the night; showers of ashes are thrown out, earthquakes are produced, and great volleys of red-hot stones are discharged to an immense height in the air. The height and distance to which these stones are thrown, is generally in proportion to the magnitude of the volcano which emits them, and hence the explosions of Vesuvius are, for the most part, less terrible than those of *Ætna*. This, however, is not always the case; and the eruption, in 1779, from Vesuvius, seems to have been as violent as we have an account of in any volcano whatever. The largest stone thrown out by Vesuvius, whose dimensions have been measured, was twelve feet in length, and forty-five in circumference. It was projected to the distance of a quarter of a mile from the place whence it was emitted; but much larger ones have been thrown out from volcanoes of a superior magnitude: and Mr. Brydone was assured by the canon Recupero, that he had seen stones of immense magnitude thrown out from *Ætna*, to the height of more than seven thousand feet above the top of the mountain, as he computed from the time that they took in falling. Added to these dreadful phenomena, the smoke which issues from the mountain, is in a highly electrified state. The small ashes which the mountain continually throws out, with the stones and cinders, are attracted by the smoke, and form with it, one vast, and to appearance, dense column, from whence continual flashes of forked, or zig-zag lightning issue, sometimes attended with thunder, and sometimes not, but equally powerful with the ordinary lightning. This phenomenon has been taken notice of in the accounts of all volcanoes. Pliny mentions it in his account of the great eruption in the year 79; it has been observed in those of the Icelandic volcanoes; in *Ætna*; and Sir William Hamilton has more than once seen it proceed from the smoke of Vesuvius.

There was an eruption on the 28th of March, 1766, about seven at night. The lava began to boil over in one stream, but soon after divided itself into two. It was preceded by a partial earthquake, in the neighbourhood of the mountain, occasioned by a violent explosion; and a shower of red-hot stones and cinders were thrown up to a considerable height. The lava had the appearance of red-hot and liquid metal, such as the vitrified matter of the glass-houses, on which were large floating cinders, half-lighted, and rolling one over another, down the mountain, with great precipitation, forming a most beautiful and uncommon cascade. The colour of the fire was much paler and brighter during the first night than afterwards, when it became of a deep red, probably owing to its having been, at first, more impregnated with sulphur than in the end. In the day time, unless when viewed very near, the lava has no appearance of fire; but its course is marked by a thick white smoke.

So great was the heat of the lava, as not to admit an approach nearer than within ten feet of the stream, and such its consistency, though it appeared as liquid as water, as almost to resist the impression of a long stick, with which the experiment was made. Large stones, thrown upon it with the utmost force, did not sink; but, making a slight impression, floated on the surface, and were carried out of sight in a short time; for, notwithstanding the consistency of the matter, it ran with great velocity; not less, in Sir William Hamilton's opinion, than that of a rapid river. The stream was about ten feet wide at its source, but soon extended itself, dividing into

three branches, so that these rivers of fire, communicating their heat to the cinders of former lavas, between one branch and the other, had, at night, the appearance of a continued sheet of fire, four miles long, and, in some places, near two in breadth.

Next year, there was a much more violent eruption of the mountain; and the frequent emissions of red-hot stones and cinders, which took place previous to the eruption, had, at last, by their continually falling back into the place from whence they were emitted, formed a small mountain within the mouth of the great one. From the top of this small mountain, the smoke issued so thick, that it seemed to have a difficulty in effecting a passage: while volleys of great stones were, every minute, thrown up to an immense height. At last the whole took the shape of a huge pine-tree, which appearance was taken notice of by Pliny, in his account of the eruption in 79. The column ascended to such an extraordinary height, as, when bent by the wind, to reach the island of Caprea, not less than twenty-eight miles from Vesuvius. These violent symptoms ceased on the bursting forth of the lava; after which, our author, supposing the danger was over, went to the mountain to make his observations. But while he was thus employed, a violent noise was heard within the mountain, immediately after which the lava broke out from a new mouth, only a quarter of a mile distant from where he stood, springing up to a considerable height in the air, and rolling directly towards him. He was now in extreme danger, the earth shaking with such violence as to endanger the fall of some of the rocks under which he must necessarily pass, while the showers of cinders and pumice stones threatened to overwhelm him; and the clouds of smoke produced such an intense darkness, that he could not see which way to go. The sulphureous smell was likewise very offensive, and the explosions of the mountain were much louder than thunder. In this situation, he ran three miles before he got out of danger, and afterwards perceived that the lava had actually covered the road by which he retreated, to the depth of no less than sixty or seventy feet. The concussions of the air were so violent upon this occasion, that windows and doors of houses, even though locked, were burst open. There was likewise a continual and subterraneous noise; which lasted for several hours, and which was probably owing to rain-water lodged in the cavities of the mountain, and meeting with the lava.

The eruption of 1779, was much more violent than that already described. It commenced in the month of August, and, besides the usual symptoms of volleys of stones, and immense clouds of smoke, a most extraordinary scene was presented by the approach of a thunder cloud. No sooner did this come over the mouth of the inflamed volcano, than the fire from its bowels spouted out in a vast column to meet that in the cloud; both together producing an appearance not to be paralleled. Next night the lava, which had not hitherto got sufficient vent, after a most astonishing explosion, spouted up to the height of at least ten thousand feet above the summit of the mountain, while the smoke around it, emitting continual flashes of zig-zag lightning, gave an appearance much more awful and tremendous, though less beautiful, than that of the preceding evening. On this occasion, the town of Ottaviano, upon which the volcanic shower was driven by the wind, narrowly escaped the fate of Herculaneum and Pompeia. The vast stream of lava, indeed, did not reach it, otherwise its fate was inevitable.

To the subterraneous fires, by which the volcanoes are produced, we must undoubtedly ascribe the frequency of earthquakes in this country. In the year 1783, the southern part of Italy was ruined by one of the most violent earthquakes mentioned in history. It affected also the island of Sicily, but less dreadfully. Its violent effects were confined within a circle whose circumference is two hundred and twenty Italian miles, and its centre the town of Oppido.

The most terrible shock happened about noon, on the 5th of February. It came on instantaneously, without any warning, and seemed to be directed perpendicularly upwards. Oppido is situated on a mountain, surrounded by two rivers, in a very broad and deep ravine. Into this, vast peices of the plain were detached, in such a manner as to stop the course of both the rivers, and to form two great lakes. Part of the rock, on which the town stood, was also precipitated into the same hollow, with several houses which had been built upon it. Vast tracts of land, with large plantations of vines and olive trees, were thrown from one side of the hollow to the other, though the distance was more than half a mile; and upon one of these fragments of earth, a countryman was transported, with his field and two oxen, which were drawing a plough, to the distance above-mentioned, without receiving any injury. The most extraordinary circumstance, however, was, that a hill, about two hundred and fifty feet high, and one thousand three hundred in circumference, was moved from its place near four miles down this ravine, before it settled. In several places, also, the soil, though there was no appearance of fire upon it, had run like the lava of a volcano, and overflowed, like it, the neighbouring grounds.

At Terra Nuova, the ground on which the town stood, was split under it, and many hundred houses, with the earth on which they were built, were, in a similar manner, thrown about half a mile from their former position; and what is very surprising, some of the inhabitants were dug out of the ruins alive, and even unhurt. At Casal Nuova, the princess of Gerace Grimaldi, and more than four thousand of her subjects, were destroyed in a moment. Several persons, who had been dug alive out of the ruins, declared that they felt their houses suddenly lifted from the foundation, without having had the least previous warning. One of them, who happened to be on a hill, which at that time, overlooked the town, turned about on feeling the shock, but, instead of the town, saw only a vast cloud of white dust in the place where it had been. The whole, indeed, was so effectually overthrown, as to be converted into one promiscuous heap of ruins. Near Scilla, a mountain fell into the sea, and raised such a strong wave, as at once swept away the prince of Scilla, with four hundred and seventy-three of his subjects. A great part of the town of Messina was overthrown. That part of Calabria, most affected by this grievous calamity, lies between 38 and 39 degrees. These were some of the particulars of this earthquake, remarkable not only for its violence, but for the number and continuance of its shocks, which scarcely ceased for a whole year after its commencement. The number of persons who lost their lives, was computed to be forty thousand. The damage, in other respects, was prodigious.

It has been observed by a modern traveller, that though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet, as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some good; even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous, and nitrous manure, and the heat of its subterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country around it, and to the profusion of fruits and herbage, with which it is every where covered. Besides, it is supposed that the mountain, being open and active, proves less hostile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions ceased, and its struggles were confined to its own bowels*.

The plain of Solfaterra, so called from the vast quantities of sulphur, which are continually forced out of the cliffs by subterranean fires, is justly considered as one

* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May, 1783, gives several reasons for believing that they were occasioned by the operation of a volcano, the seat of which lay deep, 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.

of the natural curiosities of Italy. It is situated between the lakes of Agnano and Puzuoli, and seems the crater of an ancient volcano, or the hollow from whence its eruptions formerly issued. Smoke still bursts from many parts, as well of the plain, as of the sides. From these places, they collect a kind of sal-ammoniac, but in a very awkward manner, by heaping stones upon one another to collect the vapours as they rise. From the soil of the plain, sulphur and alum are extracted. The hollow sound produced by throwing a heavy stone upon the plain of Solfaterra, seems to indicate that it is supported by a kind of vault; and it is also probable, that there is underneath it a pool of water, which boils by the heat of a subterraneous fire still deeper. On the outside, and towards the lake Agnano, water gushes out of the rock, so hot, as to raise the quicksilver in Fahrenheit's thermometer, to the boiling point. After heavy rains, however, the heat of this fountain is diminished. On a near approach to the rocks whence the water issues, a boiling noise is heard, which seems to proceed from the huge cauldron, that may be supposed to be under the Solfaterra.

Mount *Ætna* is ten thousand nine hundred and fifty-four feet in height, and has been computed to be sixty 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 abound with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper are, 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 eighteen thousand people perished.

The grotto del Cane is remarkable for its poisonous steams. It derives its name from its being fatal to dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there; which, to gratify the cruel curiosity of travellers, is often done. Its noxious properties would be equally felt by any other animal; but the faithful dog seems, alone, devoted to the fatal experiment. The vapour is fixed air, which is produced, probably, from the effervescence of an acid and alkaline mixture; and this, being heavier than common air, is near the earth, and fatal to those animals whose heads are so low as to breathe it. Scorpions, vipers, and serpents, are said to be common in Apulia.

Among the 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 inclose the vale of Chamouny, and are separated by wild forests, corn-fields, and rich meadows; so that, immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, and perpetually succeed to each other, in the most singular and striking 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 eastern hemisphere; but, for a fuller description of this celebrated mountain, and of the glaciers that surround it, we refer our readers to the account of Switzerland.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } Authors are greatly divided on the
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } head of Italian population. The subjects of the king of Sardinia, in Italy, are about two millions and three hundred thousand. The city of Milan contains, by the best accounts, three hundred thousand people, 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 was said to contain fourteen millions of inhabitants. The Campagna di Roma, and some others of the beautiful parts of Italy, are at present

in a manner desolate; but the modern Italians are, in a great measure, free from the constant wars, which formerly, even down to the sixteenth century, depopulated their country. Besides, the princes and states of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which promote population; so that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we assign to Italy twenty millions of inhabitants. Some calculations greatly exceed that number*.

The Italians are generally well proportioned, and of a swarthy complexion. They have such expression in their looks, as has greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. This is the common observation. But Angelica Kauffman, who is, at present, the best painter of Italy, and therefore, in such a case, a judge above exception, gave, some years ago, when in London, a different opinion. She said, that in Italy, the features were commonly more elegant than in England, and the northern climates; but that, at the same time, they had much less force and variety of expression. Dr. John Moore, in his travels, thinks that he has discovered, in many of the citizens of Rome, a peculiar dignity of mien. Italian women are often well shaped and sprightly. Much has formerly been said as to their infidelity to their husbands, who were equally noted for their amours. Dr. Moore has enlarged, at some length, on this head, and shows that a great part of their gallantry is but an empty name. The great in Italy, as elsewhere, are often much in want of amusement, from their having neither the good fortune to be under the necessity of pursuing some profession, nor that superiority of mind, which can, in every chasm or vicissitude of life, turn inwards, and enjoy resources derived from itself. These unhappy beings are, in Italy, as in most other countries, frivolous, fantastical, and insignificant. They feel not those tender and delightful emotions, which, in the domestic connexions of an *inferior* station, soothe and reconcile us to the emptiness of existence. They presume, that to be useless is to be great—to be seen, is to be admired—to be thoughtless, is to be happy. Dr. Moore gives a very ludicrous description of some of those assemblies in Italy, in which the nobility of both sexes meet to enjoy the pleasures of conversation. His account of the situation of the poorer classes deserves insertion. “I have not,” says he, “seen so much poverty as I was taught to expect, yet I have seen far more poverty than misery. Even the extremity of indigence is accompanied with less wretchedness here, than in many other countries. This is partly owing to the mildness of the climate and fertility of the soil, and partly to the peaceable, religious, and contented disposition of the people. The miseries which the poorer part of mankind suffer, from cold, are, perhaps, greater than those derived from any other source whatever. But in Italy, the gentleness of the climate protects them from this calamity nine months of the year. If they can gather as much wood as to keep a moderate fire during the remaining three, and procure a coarse cloak, they have little to fear from that quarter. Those who cannot get employment, which is often the case in this country, and even those who do not choose to work, which is the case with numbers all the world over, receive a regular maintenance from some convent. With this, and what little they can pick up otherwise, in a country where provisions are plentiful and cheap, they pass through life, in their own opinion, with more satisfaction, than if they had a greater number of conveniences obtained by much bodily labour. Whereas, in Britain, Germany, and other northern countries, the poor have no choice but to work; for, if they remain idle, they are exposed to miseries more intolerable than the hardest labour can occasion to the laziest of mankind. They are invaded at once by the accumulated agonies of hunger and cold; and if they have ever had sufficient credit to contract a little debt,

* Mr. Swinburne says, that in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples amounted to 4,249,439, exclusive of the army and naval establishment.

they are continually in danger of being thrown into a jail amongst pick-pockets and felons. With respect to the lowest of the trades-people and the day-labourers in this country, their wages are certainly not high; nor are they willing, by great efforts of industry, to gain all they might; but what they do gain, is never wasted in intemperance, but fairly spent in their families on the real necessaries and comforts of life.

“The Italians are the greatest loungers in the world; and while walking in the field, or stretched in the shade, seem to enjoy the serenity and genial warmth of their climate with a degree of luxurious indulgence, peculiar to themselves. Without ever running into the daring excesses of the English, or displaying the frisky vivacity of the French, or the invincible phlegm of the Germans, the Italian populace discover a species of sedate sensibility to every source of enjoyment, from which, perhaps, they derive a greater degree of happiness than any of the other.”

The same ingenious writer, speaking of Naples, has the following remarkable passage. “A coxcomb tricked out in his fantastical dress, or any of the liveried slaves of the great, make no ceremony of treating those poor fellows with all the insolence and insensibility natural to their masters, and for no visible reason, but because he is dressed in lace, and the other in rags. Instead of calling to them to make way, when the noise in the streets prevents the common people from hearing the approach of the carriage, a stroke across the shoulders with the cane of the running footman, is the usual warning they receive. Nothing animates this people to insurrection, but some very pressing and very universal cause; such as a scarcity of bread. Every other grievance they bear as if it was their charter. When we consider thirty thousand human creatures without beds or habitations, wandering almost naked, in search of food, through the streets of a well-built city; when we think of the opportunities they have of being together, and of comparing their own destitute situation with the affluence of others, one cannot help being astonished at their patience.”

In their dress, the Italians affect a medium between the volatility, which, till lately, was regarded as the characteristic of the French, and the solemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans frequently dress in black. The Italians excel in the fine arts; though they make, at present, but a very inconsiderable figure in the sciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal music, at a very dear rate, by the atrocious practice of emasculating their males when young.

In Italy, parents of distinguished or wealthy families, sometimes hire for their sons, mistresses for a month, a year, or some other determined time. Concubinage is often an avowed and licensed trade. The Italian courtezans make a kind of profession in all their cities. Masquerading and gaming, horse-races without riders, and conversations or assemblies, are the chief entertainments of the Italians, except religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations. Dr. Smollet, describing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians, and their manner of living. “Give what scope you please to your fancy, (says he) you will never imagine half the disagreeableness that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian nastiness, offer to an Englishman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can express the wretchedness of the other inns. No other beds than those of straw, with a mattresses of straw, and next to that a dirty sheet, sprinkled with water, and consequently damp; for a covering, you have another sheet, as coarse as the first, like one of our kitchen jack towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedstead consists of four wooden forms or benches. An English peer and peers must lie in this manner, unless they carry an upholsterer’s shop with them. There are, by the bye, no such things as curtains; and in all their inns, the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been washed since it was first laid. One of the most indelicate customs here is, that men,

and not women, make the ladies' beds, and would do every office of a maid-servant, if suffered. They never scour their pewter; and 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 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, that 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."

The account of Mr. Arthur Young is much to the same purpose. In his travels through France, and some parts of Italy, in the years 1787, 1788, and 1789, he has, under the article of Bologna, the following description. "We dined at Loiano much in the style of hogs; they spread for us a cloth, that had lost, by the snuff, and greasy fingers of *vetturini*, all that once was white. Our repast was black rice broth, that would not have disgraced the philosophy of Lycurgus, liver fried in rancid oil, and cold cabbage, the remnant of the preceding day. We pleaded hard for sausages, eggs, or good bread and onions; but in vain. We lay, not slept, in our clothes at Covigliano, hoping, not without fears, to escape the itch. Such accommodations, on such a road, are really incredible. It is certainly one of the most frequented that is to be found in Europe. Whether you go to Florence, Rome, and Naples, by Parma, Milan, or Venice—that is, from all Lombardy, as well as from France, Spain, England, Germany, and all the north, you pass by this route; consequently, one would expect a tolerably good inn, to catch the persons, whom accident, business, or any other derangements of plan, might induce to stop between Bologna and Florence. The only place possible to sleep at, with comfort, is Maschere, about forty miles from Bologna; but, for travellers who go any other way than by post, forty miles are no division of sixty-four. If the roads were in England, with a tenth of the traffic, there would be an excellent inn at every four or five miles, to receive travellers properly, at whatever distance their accidental departure made most convenient; but England and Italy have a gulph between them, as to the *comforts* of life, much wider than parts Dover and Calais."

Mr. Young, in some other places, gives examples of Italian nastiness, which a respect to decency prevents us from inserting. We had intended to leave out of this edition the passage already quoted from Dr. Smollet. But, upon examining Mr. Young, the latest writer on this subject, we find that his representations are considerably worse. It is impossible to read Smollet's Travels, without discovering how well he fitted the character drawn of him by Sterne, under the title of Smelfungus. No censure of this kind, can be cast upon Mr. Young, who appears upon every occasion, to possess that most valuable of all blessings, a disposition to please and to be pleased. We may here remark, in general, that no part of this work affords us less satisfaction than that which essays to represent the characters of nations. The task is, in itself, extremely difficult. Of the multitude of travellers who undertake it, there is hardly one, out of an hundred, who is equal to it. Involved in a mass of contradictions, and of untruths, the embarrassed compiler knows not on which hand to turn, or what author deserves the greatest degree of credit. It is well known, amongst a thousand other instances, what an assemblage of fictions Montesquieu has embodied in his

book, on the spirit of laws : a publication which has acquired a much higher degree of celebrity than its intrinsic merits justify. This philosopher pretends to ascertain the moral character of a people, by the degree of latitude under which they are born. But, besides the difficulty of obtaining exact information, the genius and manners of a nation have sometimes undergone a complete revolution in the course of a few years ; so that, even to quote the most candid and well-informed author, is often hazardous. The heroes, who have just now driven the Austrians from their camp at Maubeuge, bear no more resemblance to the poltroons who fled from Rosbach, than the present inhabitants of the United Provinces do to the intrepid assertors of liberty, who repulsed the duke of Alva.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman catholic. The inquisition here is little more than a sound. Persons of all sects live unmolested in Italy, provided no gross insult is offered to the established worship. 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, when the reigning pope was a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, the pope regulates himself according to the nomination of the princes who profess that religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron ; generally his nephew, or near relation.

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty-eight archbishoprics in Italy. The number of bishops is fluctuating.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its smoothness, and the facility with which it enters into musical composition. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is easily acquired by a good classical scholar. Almost every state in Italy has a different dialect ; and the great attention paid by the literary societies there, may at last fix the Italian into a standard language. At present, the Tuscan style of writing is most esteemed.

The Lord's prayer runs thus : *Padre nostro, che sei nel cielo, sia sanctificato il tuo nome ; il tuo regno venga ; la tua volonta sia fatta, siccome in cielo cosi anche in terra ; dacci oggi il nostro pane cotidiano ; e rimettici i nostri debiti, siccome noi ancora rimettiamo a' nostri debitori : e non induci in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno ; perciochè tuo è il regno, è la potenza, è la gloria in sempiterno. Amen.*

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STA- }
TUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS. } at the head of the historians of ancient Rome. As an elegant and entertaining writer, he deserves the highest praise ; but his faults are extremely numerous. In common with most historians of those times, he presents to the reader, speeches said to have been pronounced, upon particular occasions, by generals and statesmen. Of these, not one in twenty has the smallest pretence to authenticity. He sometimes begins one of his books, with a list of perhaps fifty or a hundred prodigies, which he alleges to have been observed at that particular juncture. He is very partial to the valour and virtues of his countrymen, which might perhaps be a necessary artifice to obtain their attention. He has many extravagant stories of all kinds ; such as that of Hannibal deserting his camp, on the day before the battle of Cannæ, that he might seduce the Roman army into an ambuscade. His tale of the Roman capitol being saved from the Gauls, by the cackling of geese, the tragical surrender of Saguntum, the crucifixion of Regulus, and some other passages of the same complexion, are tacitly or expressly contradicted by Polybius. About three-fourths of his history have been lost. Had the remainder been abridged to half its present size, by the extrusion of what is evidently fabulous or nonsensical, he would have deserved a great part of those unbounded encomiums,

with which he has been overloaded by every modern critic. Sallust is a very different writer. His style is concise, nervous, and delightful, in a degree of which it is impossible to form a conception, without perusing his original text. His portraits of Cato, Cesar, Cataline, Sempronius, Sylla, and Jugurtha, may be read a thousand times over with unwearied admiration. His descriptions of battles are likewise almost unrivalled. His harangues, however, are hardly more authentic than those of Livy; and, after having perused his two histories, an intelligent reader has numerous questions to ask, which Sallust has not resolved. Cesar is a much less artificial historian than either of the former. He seems to have related exactly what he believed to be true, excepting a natural partiality in favour of himself. He has neither the rapid sublimity of Sallust, nor the copious minuteness of Livy. But he is, upon the whole, a very pleasing writer. Indeed, the chief objection both to Cesar and to almost every other historian, ancient and modern, is, that they vindicate the system of war and conquest, and represent, as the patterns of human excellence, ambitious conquerors, who deserve to be remembered by nothing but their crimes. To put books like those of Cesar and Livy, into the hand of a boy at school, is the shortest and most certain method that can be devised, for the extirpation of sympathy with the calamities of mankind. The observation may seem harsh, but is unquestionably just, that an history of the shambles of a butcher, if it should ever be written, would be less dangerous to the morals of young men, than the great body of historical writings. This opinion is not advanced for the sake of singularity, but from a conviction that it is absolutely true. Had the first battle, since the existence of the human species, been fought yesterday, the narrative would have filled every eye with tears, and every heart with horror. But, as the system of education now stands, we are taught, by the familiar perusal of Cesar, and other writers of that class, to hear, with almost as much indifference, of the massacre of two hundred thousand people in a single day, as if they had been only a nest of hornets. Tacitus is another of the most distinguished amongst the Roman historians. He is remarkable for concise and striking sentences. His descriptions are frequently as picturesque, as if drawn by the pencil of Shakespeare himself. He describes, with the utmost freedom, the vices of his age. If he could have avoided a disagreeable vein of affectation, both in style and sentiment, he would have deserved a much higher rank, than he is at present entitled to claim. Not more than a fourth or fifth part of his works hath survived the wreck of time, and even these are mutilated in some of the most interesting passages. There are several other historians of ancient Rome, who have obtained the name of classics, and who possess considerable merit. Quintilian has left us two large volumes on rhetoric. The most curious part of his work is the critical account of a great number of Greek and Roman authors, of whom nothing, or very little, is now known, but what he has told us. Had his treatise consisted chiefly of such materials, it must have formed a very precious repository of literary knowledge. No writer has attracted more attention than Cicero, and he was undoubtedly a person of superior talents. Yet, his orations contain an immense quantity of extraneous matter; and might, without injury to his fame, be condensed, for the most part, into one-half, and sometimes, into one-sixth part of their present amplitude. He frequently digresses into the most egregious scurrility, and yet, he has been, a thousand times, dignified with the title of a consummate master of eloquence. When we read his gross invectives against Mark Anthony, which, for eighteen centuries, have been termed *divine* productions, it is not to be wondered at, that a person, such as he describes the Triumvir to be, should embrace the first opportunity to involve him in the general proscriptions. His vanity is infinitely tiresome, and so prominent a feature in his character, as to have excited, on a perusal of many of his productions, especially his epistles, the ridicule of schoolboys. He was, upon every occasion, disposed to pour

out a torrent of words. A modern orator, who should form himself upon the exact model of Cicero, would scarcely be heard a second time, in an American congress. The poets of Rome have, in general, composed their works in a style that approaches much more closely to truth, and to nature, than some of her principal historians. Plautus is the most ancient Latin poet, whose writings have descended to modern times. He composed comedies, of which twenty are preserved, though with some mutilations. He appears to have been a writer of very great genius. Many passages in his plays discover a remarkable vigour of style, and impetuosity of imagination. His prologues are commonly admirable; and if he is often very much inferior to himself, the same exception lies against the dramatic writers of all ages. Terence has received a profusion of panegyric. He is elegant, but feeble. We have no third comic writer of Rome extant. Lucretius is as much a metaphysician as a poet. There is in his verses a kind of simplicity that cannot be described, and which seems peculiar to himself. Catullus is likewise distinguished by simplicity and sweetness of versification. He wrote a great number of short poems. Some of these are pleasing and pathetic. Others, such as that inscribed to Julius Cæsar, upon his invasion of Britain, are polluted with the most shocking obscenity. Yet, Mr. Hume affirms, that in this author, "each line, each word, has its merit." Of Virgil and Horace, as they are in the hands of every body, it is perhaps unnecessary to offer any account. The former, though certainly a very great poet, was, if possible, a greater plagiarist. He not only borrowed from Homer, without end, but from Theocritus and many other writers; and had his poetical predecessors descended entire to posterity, it would, most likely, have been difficult to find in his whole writings, ten lines together that were fairly his own. In all the modern editions of this author, except a very few, there is omitted a poem that he wrote on the death of a fly, which is ascribed to him by Martial, who certainly was a competent judge of its authenticity. It is of considerable length, and ought, surely, to have received more notice than it has met with. Critics have harassed the world with objections to the plan of his epic poem, but they have forgotten its greatest fault. For, as Chesterfield has remarked, Eneas, as an unprovoked invader, had no just pretensions to piety. Horace is, perhaps, the most popular writer that has descended from antiquity. Dr. Blair, in his lectures on rhetoric, is of opinion, that every one of his odes, has very great beauties. The reverend critic should have recollected, that several of them contain nothing but indecency. Quintilian, in his treatise, has made a very singular mistake, in saying, that the Greeks were unacquainted with satires like those of Horace; and this fancy hath, as usual, been adopted by all the succeeding critics. In the remains of the minor Greek poets, there are several pieces exactly in the same style; such as the satire of Theocritus, on the discouragement of men of letters, that of Simonides against women, and many others. Propertius and Tibullus are justly celebrated, as writers of elegy. Ovid was, it appears, the most fertile of all the poets of ancient Rome. His metamorphoses are one of the most extraordinary productions, in any language, and will bear incessant perusal. It has been strangely said, numberless times, that his genius declined, when he was banished from Rome by Augustus Cæsar, and that his verses from Pontus are much inferior to his preceding compositions. A reader, who is willing to judge for himself, must discover that his epistle to Augustus from the place of his exile, is a masterpiece of eloquence. Statius is a very indifferent poet; but Juvenal is, in himself, worth a whole nation of ordinary satirists. The ninth satire is not equal to the others; and the sixteenth is said to be spurious. The rest of them exhibit nothing but unvaried excellence. His descriptions of the luxury, and the vices, of his countrymen, exhibit the most disgusting and detestable picture of human depravity, that ever existed. Claudian is distinguished, in his satires, by a copiousness of sentiment, a fluency of expression, and, above all, by a ferocity of contempt, which can hardly be

equalled and never will be excelled. His address to the emperor Honorius, on his wedding night, cannot fail to discompose the muscles of the gravest reader. Ausonius was, perhaps, the last Roman writer who deserved the title of a poet. Some passages in his works are beautiful. There are several other Latin poets, some of whom well deserve a perusal. Persius has received much more than his due proportion of praise. In the original text, he is almost unintelligible; but Dryden, by an excellent translation, has converted him into a pleasing and instructive poet. In modern ages, Italy has produced a great variety of writers of Latin verse; but, perhaps, there is none of them that has approached to the voluptuous sweetness of the *Bassa* of *Nicholaus Secundus*; and it has been frequently admitted, that they can oppose no rival to the universal excellence of Buchanan. 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; but the wily artifices of his political system have been generally and justly reprobated. Among the prose writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the most correct in point of style. He was a very natural painter of life and manners; but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the spirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Ariosto, and Tasso, are the most distinguished. There are said to be upwards of a thousand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent; but Metastasio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces, set to music. Sannazarius, Fracastorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have distinguished themselves by the elegance, correctness, and spirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compositions approaching in some degree to the classics themselves. Socinus, who was so much distinguished by his opposition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, sculptors, architects, and musicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but in their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the sack of Constantinople by the Turks, revived taste likewise, and gave mankind a relish for truth and beauty in design and colouring. Raphael, from his own ideas, assisted by the ancients, struck out a new creation by his pencil, and still stands at the head of painting. Michael Angelo Buonarrotti excelled at once in 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.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, } Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the
AND CHIEF CITIES. } Italian states are not, like the republics of
Holland, or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable (for every Italian state has distinct interests, trade, and forms of government) we 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
Vol. I. 6 K

royal title from that Island, is a powerful prince in Italy*. His capital, Turin, is strongly fortified, and 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, honest people. The king is so absolute, that his revenues consist of what he pleases to raise upon his subjects. His ordinary income, besides his own family revenues, is above two millions of dollars; out of which he maintains fifteen thousand men in time of peace. During a war, he can bring into the field forty thousand men. The aggrandizement of the present Sardinian sovereign is chiefly owing to England. Savoy is celebrated for its breed of mules: and Piedmont raises large quantities of silk. Its wines are highly esteemed. The Sardinians are among the nations combined against the French. From such documents as have been received in this country, it seems probable, though we do not assert it positively, that the aggression on this nation by the French troops, was not sufficiently justifiable. Suspensions arose, and hostile preparations were made on both sides. These fanned the spark to a flame. The French charged the Sardinian king, with a design of joining the confederates. The republican troops poured into Savoy, and in a few days the king found himself stripped of almost the whole of his continental dominions. The French were afterwards obliged to evacuate a part of their conquests; but according to appearances, at the date of the last European advices, the republican standard is likely to be again hoisted throughout Savoy.

The MILANESE, belonging to the house of Austria, is a considerable state, and formerly, when under the government of its own dukes, gave law to Italy. The fertility and beauty of the country, are almost incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, are very strong. There is in this city, 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 revenue of the duchy is above thirteen hundred thousand dollars annually, which is supposed to maintain an army of thirty thousand men. The natives are fond of literary and political assemblies. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the exports of Milan are very inconsiderable. So that the revenue, unless the court of Vienna should pursue some other system of improvement, cannot be much augmented. The duchy of Mantua, being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Austrian Lombardy.

The republic of GENOA has sunk from its ancient power and opulence, though the spirit of trade still continues among the nobility and citizens. Genoa is a superb city, and contains several magnificent palaces, particularly those of Doria†, and Durazzo. The inhabitants, of distinction, dress in black, in a plain manner. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damasks, gold and silver tissues, and paper. The city of Genoa had been said to contain about one hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants; but some writers greatly diminish that number. Its maritime power is dwindled down to six galleys. The chief safety of this republic, consists in the jealousy of other European powers; because, to any one of them, it would be a most valuable acquisition.

* Victor-Amadeus-Maria, king of Sardinia and duke of Savoy, born June 26, 1726; married, April 12, 1750, to Maria-Antonietta-Ferdinanda, infanta of Spain; ascended the throne on the death of his father, February 20, 1773. Their issue are,

1. Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, prince of Piedmont, born May 24, 1751.

2. Maria-Josepha-Louisa, born September 2, 1753; married to the count de Provence.

† Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468: he was offered the sovereignty of the state, but refused it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which still subsists. He lived to the age of ninety-three, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

The common people are wretched. The soil of its territory is barren. Near the sea, some parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is aristocratical, being vested in the nobility. The chief person is called the doge, or duke; to which dignity no person can be promoted, till he is fifty years of age. Every two years, a new doge is chosen, and the former is incapable, during five years, of holding the same office again. The doge gives audience to ambassadors. All the orders of the government are issued in his name, and he is allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

VENICE is a state celebrated on account of its 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 seventy-two 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; and which forms its principal defence. Venice preserves the vestiges of its ancient magnificence. The citizens seem to have lost the taste for painting and architecture. The constitution of the republic was originally democratical. The magistrates, for one hundred and fifty years, were chosen by a general assembly of the people, 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 nobility was formed; progressive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, and 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 two thousand five hundred; each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand-council. This council elects 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 leave the city, without the permission of the grand-council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college is the supreme cabinet council of the state. 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 receives all requests and memorials on state affairs, convenes the senate at pleasure, and arranges the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council often takes cognizance of state crimes, and has the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consists only of three members, and which is, in the highest degree, despotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding, without appeal, on the life of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being exempted. To these three inquisitors, is given the right of employing spies, and issuing orders to seize all persons whose words or actions, they think reprehensible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace; and can, whenever they please, penetrate into the 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 only one year, but are not responsible afterwards for their conduct whilst 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 who visit them. This statement is copied from the London

edition; and was probably just, when originally written. A great, but gradual revolution has since taken place. Mr. Young, who was in Venice about two or three years ago, gives a different account. A person, to whom he was introduced, spoke as follows. "Foreigners are strangely apt to entertain false ideas of this republic: and to think, that the same principles govern it at present, as for some centuries past. You may converse as freely at Venice, as at London. You have heard much of spies, and executions, and drownings. But every circumstance at Venice has changed, and greatly too, even in twenty years."

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 state-barge, attended by the barges of all the nobility, is a most superb exhibition. The inhabitants of Venice are said, by Mr. Young, to be an hundred and fifty thousand. The convenience and grandeur of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treasury, and the arsenal, are striking. Over the several canals of Venice, are laid about five hundred bridges, the greatest part of which are of stone. The Venetians have some manufactures in scarlet cloth, gold and silver stuffs, and above all, fine looking-glasses, which bring in a considerable revenue to the owners. That of the state is said to amount to eight millions of Italian florins annually, each above one-third of a dollar. Out of this fund are defrayed the expense of the state, and the pay of the army, which, in time of peace, consists of sixteen thousand troops, always commanded by a foreign general, and ten thousand militia. They keep up a small fleet for curbing the insolence of the piratical states of Barbary, and in this laudable warfare, they have frequently signalized themselves.

In ecclesiastical matters, the Venetians have two patriarchs. The authority of one extends over all the provinces, but neither of them has much power. Both are chosen by the senate.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amusements, and have an uncommon relish for humour. They are, in general, well made; and many fine, manly countenances are met with in the streets of Venice, resembling those delineated by the pencils of Paul Veronese and Titian. The women are of a fine style of countenance, with expressive features, and an easy address. The common people are sober, obliging to strangers, and gentle in their intercourse with each other. It is the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival. Hence 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 carnival; and eight or nine theatres are then open.

The dominions of Venice consist of a considerable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the islands of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, and some others. 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 Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The countries subject to Venice, 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;—an important discovery, which few governments have made, or, at least, allowed to guide their conduct.

Florence is the capital of TUSCANY; a country, now possessed by a younger branch of the house of Austria, after having been long held by the house of Medicis. This family made Florence the cabinet of an immense collection of valuable, rich, and masterly productions in architecture, literature, and the arts, especially those of painting, and sculpture. This city is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beau-

ties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often described ; but all description falls short of their contents ; so that Florence, in every respect, is reckoned, after Rome, the first city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medicis stands in an apartment, 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. This beautiful city stands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vine-yards, and delightful villas, and is divided by the Arno. It is full of wonders in the arts of painting, statuary, and architecture. It is a place of some strength, and contains an archbishop's see and an university. The inhabitants boast of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Crusca ; and several other academies are now established at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great state, yet their nobility and gentry carry on a retail trade in wine, which they sell from their cellar-windows, and sometimes 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. From the accession of the archduke Peter Leopold, since emperor, to this duchy, great reforms have been introduced, both into the government and manufactures. These reforms reflect the utmost lustre on the character of Leopold. Among others, his abolition of the abominable practice of affording sanctuaries in churches to murderers, a practice that originated in the most perverted ideas of religion, and was pregnant with the most destructive consequences to society, deserves to be most particularly and honorably mentioned. Besides this, he has carried the theory of the divine Beccaria, on capital punishments, into practice. We may say of him, as duke of Tuscany, that he was one of the very few monarchs, who merited the sincere applauses of mankind. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuscany could bring into the field, upon occasion, thirty thousand fighting men, and that its present revenues are above five hundred thousand pounds 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. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the sea, besides the citadel. The ramparts afford an agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many vallies on the land side. Here all nations, even the Mahometans, have free access, and may settle. The number of inhabitants is computed at forty thousand, among whom are said to be twenty thousand Jews. They live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handsome synagogue, and, though subject to very heavy imposts, are in a prosperous condition ; for the greater part of the commerce of this city passes through their hands.

The inhabitants of LUCCA, a small free commonwealth, lying on the Tuscan sea, in a delightful plain, are the most industrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that, though they do not exceed one hundred and twenty thousand, their annual revenue amounts to nearly four hundred thousand dollars. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about forty thousand 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 liberty, whose name they bear on their arms, and whose image is impressed on their coin, on the city gates, and on all their public buildings. It has been remarked by lord Gardenstone, and several other travellers, that the inhabitants of this little republic, have an air of cheerfulness and plenty, seldom to be found among those of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St. MARINO is a political curiosity. Its territories consist of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom. The inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties, as a republic, for one thousand three hundred years. They are under the protection of the pope; and their inoffensive manners, with the small value of their territory, have preserved their freedom. Their numbers do not exceed five thousand.

The duchy of PARMA, with the duchies of Placentia and Guastalla, now form one of the most flourishing states in Italy. The soils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richest fruits and pasturages, and contain considerable manufactures of silk. Parma is a bishop's see, and has an university. Some of its magnificent churches were painted by the famous Correggio. The present duke of Parma is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. 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 thither the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The duke's revenues are supposed to exceed four hundred and fifty thousand dollars a year. The city of Parma is supposed to contain fifty thousand inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, producing to its dukes five hundred thousand crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government is annexed to that of the Milonese. The capital is one of the strongest cities in Europe, and contains about sixteen thousand inhabitants, who boast that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor, in 1785, this duchy was incorporated, with that of Milan, into one province, which is called Austrian Lombardy.

The duchy of MODENA, formerly Mutina, is still governed by its own duke, the head of the house of Este. He is absolute within his own dominions, which are fertile. The duke is under the protection of the house of Austria, and is a vassal of the empire. His territories are far from being flourishing, though very improveable. They were ravaged in the last war in Italy.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the metropolis of the world, lies in the centre of Italy. That region, which, under the masters of the world, formed a terrestrial paradise, interspersed with magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, has long been converted into noxious, pestilential marshes and quagmires. The Campagna di Roma, which formerly contained a million of inhabitants, affords a scanty subsistence to a few miserable peasants. The pope is a considerable temporal prince, and some suppose his annual revenue amounts to above a million sterling: others rate it much higher. But this is too high a revenue to arise from his territorial possessions. His accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that sum, is now diminished, by the suppression of the order of Jesuits, from whom he drew vast supplies, and by the measures taken by the catholic powers for preventing the great drain of money from their country to Rome. The taxes upon the provisions and lodgings furnished to foreigners, who spend immense sums in visiting his dominions, form now the greatest part of his accidental revenues. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The inhabitants of many parts of the ecclesiastical state might, between want and laziness, perish, did not the fertility of the soil afford them subsistence. But the poverty, and the sloth of the lower ranks, do not take their rise from their natural dispositions.

This observation is not confined to the papal dominions. 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 splendor of churches accounts for the misery of the people.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vast number of gardens and vineyards. The city stands upon the Tiber, an inconsiderable river, and navigated by small boats, barges, and lighters. The castle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortress, could not resist a regular siege. The city stands upon the ruins of ancient Rome, and is, therefore, much higher; so that it is difficult to distinguish the seven hills on which it was originally built. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to one hundred and forty-three thousand; and it is likely that at present they are not less numerous.

The pope has his guards, or *sbirri*, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magistrates, both ecclesiastical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inspection of his holiness. In the other provinces, he governs by legates and vice-legates. He has always a sufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wisely disclaimed all intention of opposing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but those of prayers and supplications.

Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is, next to Rome, the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state. The government is under a legate, who is always a cardinal, and holds his office but three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably than the other subjects of the pope. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and which still exhibit the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state, even till about the beginning of the sixteenth century; but they are at present little better than desolate.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA, RIMINI, URBINO, ANCONA, and many other states and cities, illustrious in former times, is now to be seen only in their ruins and in ancient history.

The king of NAPLES and SICILY is called the king of the two Sicilies, the name of Sicily being common to both. He possesses the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Apennine runs through it from north to south, and its surface is estimated at three thousand five hundred square leagues. The air is hot, and the soil fruitful in every production of Italy. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, is very delightful; but Vesuvius often threatens the city with destruction, and the soil abounds in venomous, or noxious insects and reptiles. The houses in Naples are inadequate to the population. They are mostly five or six stories in height, and flat at the top. On the roofs are numbers of flower-vases, or fruit-trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very agreeable effect. Some of the streets are handsome. No street in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo, at Naples; and still less can any of them be compared with those beautiful streets that lie open to the bay. The richest and most commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the ecclesiastics, the protestants live here with great freedom. No inquisition is established

in Naples. The present revenues of the king amount to above three millions of dollars a year. The exports are, legumes, hemp, aniseed, wool, oil, wine, cheese, fish, honey, wax, manna, saffron, gums, capers, macaroni, salt, pot-ash, flax, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous, but generally poor nobility, comprising princes, dukes, marquises, and other high-sounding titles; and his capital, by far the most populous in Italy, contains at least three hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. Among these are about thirty thousand persons, of whom the greater part have no dwelling-houses, but sleep every night in summer under porticos, piazzas, or any sort of shelter which they can find; and in the winter, or rainy time of the year, which lasts for several weeks, they resort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they sleep in crowds, like sheep in a penfold. Those of them who have wives and children, live in the suburbs of Naples, near Paufilippo, in huts, or in caverns and chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fishing; others carry 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 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 the great. The Neapolitan nobility are excessively fond of show and splendor. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the bombast of their titles. According to Mr. Swinburne, luxury, of late, has advanced with gigantic strides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribands on their heads, as the Spanish women do to this day, and not twenty of them were possessed of a cap; but hair, plainly dressed, 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 nearly laid aside. Expense and extravagance are here in the extreme. The great families are oppressed with a load of debt; the working part of the community generally spend the price of their labour before they receive it; and the citizen is reduced to great parsimony, in his house-keeping, to answer the demands of external show. The nobility, in general are well served, and live comfortably. They dine at twelve or one o'clock. The great officers of state, and ministers, keep sumptuous tables, to which strangers and others have frequent invitations.

Through every spot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be said to tread on classic ground, and no country presents the eye with more beautiful prospects. There are still traces of the memorable town of Cannæ; such as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries. The scene of action between Hannibal and the Romans, is still marked out to posterity by the name of the "field of blood." Taranto, a city once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little else than its fisheries. Sorrento is a city placed on the brink of steep rocks, that over-hang the bay, and has, of all the places in the kingdom, the most delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatres, is now hardly worth observation.

Brundisium, now Brindisi, has a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous. The fall of the Grecian empire, under the Turks, reduced it to its present state of inactivity and poverty. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento. Here the arch of Trajan, one of the most magnificent remains of Roman grandeur, erected in the year 114, is still in tolerable preservation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable, but a Gothic cathedral. The town was destroyed by an earthquake before the Marston war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæsar. Part of the wall still remains, and was much damaged by the earthquake in

1783, but not destroyed. Of sixteen thousand inhabitants, only one hundred and twenty-six lost their lives. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, of which the greatest force seems to have been felt near that spot, at Casel Nuova, and at Terra Nuova. From Tropea to Squillace, most of the towns and villages were either totally, or in part, overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins.

The island of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, still continues to supply Naples, and other places, with that commodity; but its cultivation, and fertility, are greatly diminished. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, resemble those of Italy. The people are computed at four millions. Sicily, it is said, 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 an island. The climate of Sicily is so hot, that even in the beginning of January, the shade is refreshing; chilly winds are only felt for a few days in March, and then a small fire is sufficient. The only appearance of Winter is near 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 be a delightful residence. There are great numbers of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of the island are remarkable for the beauty of the female sex. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain one hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants. The two principal streets, which cross each other, are very fine. This is said to be the only town, in all Sicily, which is lighted at night at the public expense. It carries on a considerable trade. The dead at Palermo are never buried; but their bodies are carried to the Capuchin convent, where, after the funeral service is performed, they are dried in a stove, heated by a composition of lime, which makes the skin adhere to the bones. They are then placed erect, in niches, and fastened to the wall by the back or neck. A piece of coarse drab is thrown over the shoulders, and round the waist, and their hands are tied together, holding a piece of paper with their epitaph, which contains simply their names, ages, and the time when they died.

Messina was formerly a place of considerable trade, and, 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 the port, was destroyed, and considerable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings, called the *Palazzata*, in the shape of a crescent, which extended along the water side, for above two thousand yards, adorned with pilasters and pediments, and a grand esplanade open to the sea, which at once formed a noble pier, and a delightful public walk, flanked by a fort at each end. The houses were built with great taste, all four stories high, and nearly alike. Of this beautiful and magnificent range, only the outside shell remains; the rest, with all the town, except one or two of the strongest churches, were entirely destroyed; but out of thirty thousand persons, the supposed population of the city, only seven hundred are said to have perished.

The king of the Two Sicilies is among the enemies of the French republic. He has lately sent two thousand of his troops to Toulon, where four thousand more are expected, to assist in defending that place against the attacks of the republicans. This is the only instance, in which he has actively co-operated with the allies.

The island of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about one hundred and fifty miles S. W. of Leghorn, and has seven cities or towns.

Its capital, Cagliari, has an university, and is the seat of the viceroys, containing about fifteen thousand inhabitants. An attempt was made by the French to effect a landing here, at an early period of their war with the king of Sardinia. But they were very unsuccessful, having been defeated with considerable loss. It is thought that the Sardinian monarch's revenues, from this island, do not exceed five thousand pounds sterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fishery. The air is bad, from its marshes and high mountains on the north, and therefore, it was a place of exile for the victims of Roman despotism. 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. Mr. Arthur Young received the following account, as to the present state of this island, from a Scots officer in the Sardinian service.

“ The *intemperia* is so prevalent in Summer, from the quantity of evaporating water leaving mud exposed to the sun, as to be death to a stranger; but in Winter, it is a good climate. The soil is wonderfully rich and fertile; but vast plains, that would produce any thing, are uncultivated. He has past one line fifty miles by thirty, all plain and the land good, yet *without one house, and mostly a neglected desert!* The people are wretched and ignorant. There are districts, he has been informed, where there are olives, and the fruit left rotting under the trees, for want of knowing how to make oil. In general, there are no roads, and no inns. When a traveller or other person, goes into the island, he is recommended from convent to convent, or curé to curé, some of whom are at their ease. You are sure to be well entertained, and at no other expense than a trifle to the servants.” This deplorable situation is not ascribed to government, which has exerted itself to remove the evil, but arises from the feudal privileges of the nobles.

The island of CORSICA lies between the gulf of Genoa, and the island of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble stand which the inhabitants made for their liberty against the attempts of the Genoese, and afterwards, of the French, than by any advantages it enjoys 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 its rivers, with fish. The inhabitants, by a late census, amount to one hundred and twenty-nine thousand. Bastia, the capital, is a place of tolerable strength. Some other towns in the island, possessed by the patriots, appear to have been but weakly fortified.

The celebrated Paoli, who so nobly signalized himself, in defence of his country, in its struggles for independence, before and after it was sold to the French king, is now exerting his endeavours to shake off the subjection of the island to the French republic.

CAPRI, the ancient CAPREA, is an island memorable as the residence of Tiberius Cæsar. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects farthest into the sea. It extends four miles in length from east to west, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vastly high, and inaccessible next the sea; yet Anacapri, the largest village 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 forms one of the pleasantest spots that can easily be conceived. Each of these is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and cornfields, which afford a most delightful little landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains.

Here are situated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and a bishop's palace. In the midst of this fertile tract, arises a hill, which, in the reign of Tiberius, was probably covered with buildings; some remains of which are still to be seen. But the most considerable ruins are at the very extremity of the eastern promontory; from which there is a very noble prospect; on one side of it, the sea extends farther than the eye can reach; just opposite, is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other side, the bay of Naples.

The isle of MALTA is not properly ranked with the Italian islands. It was formerly called Melita, and is situated in fifteen degrees E. lon. and forty-five degrees N. lat. sixty miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily. It is of an oval figure, twenty miles long, and twelve 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 yields excellent fruits, vegetables, and garden-productions 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 viceroy of Sicily, and they were also 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 one thousand. Five hundred are to reside on the island, the remainder are in the seminaries in other countries, but at any summons, are to make a personal appearance. They had once a seminary in England, which was suppressed by Henry VIII. Their chief town, Valletta, or Malta, its harbour, and their whole island, are so well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 8th of September, there is an annual procession at Malta, in memory of the Turks having raised the siege on that day in 1563, after an assault of four months, leaving their artillery, &c. behind. Mr. Brydone says, that on one side of this island, there is a large road cut through a rock, which runs to the brink of a precipice hanging over the sea. He infers, that when this road was made, the island had extended much farther on that quarter, and hath since been sunk by an earthquake.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably first peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the introduction, to which we refer the reader for its ancient history. The narrative of its modern history may be commenced with Charlemagne, who died in 814. Under his successors, his empire was, in a short time, entirely dismembered. His son, Lewis le Debonair, succeeded to his dominions in France and Germany. His grandson, Bernard, reigned over Italy and the adjacent islands. But Bernard having lost his life, and Lewis himself dying in 840, the dominions were, once more, divided among Lothario, Lewis, and Charles, the sons of Lewis. 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. Italy was soon after ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho re-united it to the imperial dominions. This country afterwards suffered much by the contests between the popes and emperors; it was harassed by wars and internal divisions; and at length, various principalities and states were erected under different heads. Savoy and Piedmont fell in time to the counts of Maurienne. They were ancestors to the present king of Sardinia. His grandfather obtained the royal title by virtue of the quadruple alliance formed in 1718. This title was but a sorry compensation for the loss of the island of Sicily, which the allies, with George the first at their head, wrested from him,

without provocation, without a pretence of justice, and in defiance of the most solemn treaty formed only six years before, by three of these four allies, England, Holland, and the emperor, with this very prince. Instead of Sicily, they gave him Sardinia; and as it was in all respects of far less value than the former island, they subjoined a royal title.

The duchy of Tuscany belonged to the emperors of Germany. It was governed by deputies till the year 1240, when the distinctions took place, of the Guelphs, who were partisans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were attached to the emperor. The popes then persuaded the imperial governors in Tuscany, to put themselves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a short time, formed themselves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties against both parties, by turns. Faction, at last shook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in reality governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people seemed still to exist. The Medici, particularly Cosmo, shared with the Venitians, in the immense profits of the East-India trade, before the discoveries made by the Portuguese. The revenues of Cosmo, in ready money, exceeded those of any sovereign prince in Europe; and enabled his successors to rise to supreme power. Pope Pius V. in 1570, gave one of his descendants, the title of great duke of Tuscany, which continued in his family to the death of Gaston de Medicis in 1737, without issue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief to the empire, and given to his son-in-law, the duke of Lorraine, father of the late emperor, instead of the duchy of Lorraine, which was, by treaty, ceded to France. Several ships, of very considerable force, are now stationed on the Tuscan coasts, to prevent the depredations of the Barbary rovers, and pirates.

Florence has lately witnessed one of the most extraordinary effusions of diplomatic insolence that stands on record. The present archduke, desirous of enjoying and imparting to his subjects, the inestimable blessings of peace and neutrality, has studied to avoid entering into the present destructive war, and therefore observed great caution to avoid giving any reasonable cause of offence to the belligerent powers on either side. But lord Hervey, the British resident at this court, in a tone not very different from that of a master to his servant, informed him, by a letter dated in May last, "that the continuance of his neutrality *must* depend on the manner in which the allied powers should consider it, and on the opinion which they should entertain of the justice of his conduct;" that is, if the allied powers should, in their mercy, see fit to spread the horrors of war into Tuscany, the sovereign and his people must as tamely and submissively acquiesce, as any of the subjects of those powers. If any extenuation could be offered for such a flagrant outrage on the rights of independent nations, it might be observed, that this extraordinary affair happened soon after the treachery of Dumourier had elevated the aspiring hopes of the allies, to crush the French without delay. To keep pace with the astonishing occurrences of the present times, requires to have the pen constantly employed. Since the above remarks were written, dispatches have arrived from mr. Pinckney, the American ambassador at London, informing the president, that the archduke has been actually forced to join the general confederacy, and declare war against the French.

No country has undergone greater changes of government than Sicily. Christians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans, under Tancred, drove out the Saracens, and by their connexions with the Greeks, established there, while the rest of Europe was plunged in ignorance, a respectable monarchy. About the year 1166, the succession of Tancred's line was broken, and Naples and Sicily came at last, into the possession of the French. 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 oppressive, and gave rise to a revolt in the year 1647, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman. His success was surprising. He forced the 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 agitation of body and mind, and was put to death at the head of his followers. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Austrian line opened a new source of litigation. In 1706, the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. In consequence of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, son of the king of Spain, to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out, in 1733, between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies. This was followed by a very bloody campaign, which terminated in a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his accession to the crown of Spain, in 1759, it was found that his eldest son was, by nature, incapacitated for reigning. His second son being heir apparent to the Spanish monarchy, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third, Ferdinand IV. who married an archduchess of Austria.

Milan had been subject to various masters. At last, about the year 1525, the country came into the possession of Charles the fifth. He gave it to his son Philip II. It remained with the crown of Spain, till the year 1706, when the French troops, who protected the grandson of Lewis the fourteenth, as competitor for the throne of Spain, were driven out of Italy by the Imperialists. Milan was, at the peace of Utrecht, confirmed to the emperor, and continued in possession of Austria, till the year 1743. At that time, she was dispossessed of this duchy, which was seized by the Spaniards. But the emperor having since ceded Naples and Sicily to Spain, Milan was restored to him, and is governed for him by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly subject to the family of Gonzaga. They adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the house of Austria, which now possesses it. Guastalla was separated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The duchy and city of Parma, together with the duchy 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 fruit and pasturages. The duchy has considerable manufactures of silk. It is the seat of a bishop's see, and university; and some of its magnificent churches were painted by the famous Correggio. The present duke of Parma, is a prince of the house of Bourbon, and son to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was, some years past, the seat of a bloody war, between the Austrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia, are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majesty, on his accession to the throne of Naples, is said to have carried with him thither, the most remarkable pictures and moveable curiosities. The duke's court is thought to be the politest of any in Italy; and it is said, that his revenues exceed 450,000 dollars per annum, a sum rather exaggerated.—The city of Parma is supposed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

The Venetians were formerly the most formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Constantinople, and held it for some time. They were brought to the brink of destruction, by the league of Cambray, in 1509; but were 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 deprived them of the India trade. The Turks successively took from them their most valuable possessions on the continent; and, so late as the year 1715, they lost the Morea.

The Genoese, for some time, disputed the empire of the Mediterranean sea with the Venetians, but were seldom, or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected by, and sometimes subjected to, the French, or imperialists. Their doge, or first magistrate, used to be crowned king of Corsica. That island has since been ceded to the French by the Genoese, and is at present the scene of a war between the natives, supported by England, on the one side, and France on the other. The successful effort made by the Genoese in driving the victorious Austrians out of their capital, during the war of 1748, evinces the effects of despair under oppression. At present they are possessed of revenue barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state. Attempts have been made by the British and Spanish combined fleets to compel them to enter into the confederacy against the French republic, which they very bravely resisted. If we are to credit the late advices from Europe, those fleets captured some French vessels in the very port of Genoa.

The history of the papacy is closely interwoven with that of Christendom itself. The most solid foundations for its temporal power were laid in the close of the eleventh century, by Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy. She bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to pope Gregory VII. From that era, till the reformation, the popes had prodigious influence in the temporal concerns of most of the princes of Europe.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The Jesuits, who were a very powerful support to it, have been expelled from France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and are but just tolerated in other Roman catholic countries. The pope himself is treated by the princes of his church with little more ceremony than is due to him as bishop of Rome, and possessor of a temporal principality.

John Angelo Braschi, the present pontiff, born in 1717, was elected pope in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

S W I T Z E R L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	260	between	{ 81 and 86 east longitude, from Philadelphia. 46 and 48 north latitude.
Breadth	100		

BOUNDARIES.] **T**HIS country is bounded by Alsace and Swabia, in Germany, on the north; by the lake of Constance, Tyrol, and Trent, on the east; by Italy, on the south; and by France, on the west.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schwitz; 6. Unterwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Basle; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffhausen; 13. Appenzel.

The best account that we have of the dimensions and principal towns of each canton, is as follows :

Switzerland.	Countries names.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Calvinists.	Berne	2346	111	87	Berne
	Zurich	728	34	33	Zurich
	Schaffhausen	140	23	9	Schaffhausen
	Basil	240	21	18	BASIL { 47-40 N. lat. 7-40 E. lon.
R. catholics.	Lucerne	460	33	35	Lucerne
	Underwalden	270	23	16	Stantz
	Uri	612	48	21	Altorf
	Suisse	250	27	13	Suisse
	Fribourg	370	24	21	Fribourg
	Zug	112	18	10	Zug
Calvinists and catholics.	Soleure	253	31	24	Soleure, or Solothurn
	Appenzel	270	23	21	Appenzel
	Glaris	257	24	18	Glaris
The subjects of the Switzers, Calvinists and catholics.	Baden	216	26	12	Baden
	Bremgarten				Bremgarten
	Mellingen				Mellingen
	Rheinthal	40	20	5	Rheinck
	Thurgau	119	18	11	Flowanfield
	Lugano	850	52	30	Lugano
	Locarno				Locarno
	Mendris				Mendris
	Maggia				Maggia.
Total		7533			

Allies of the Switzers.	Countries names.	Square miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief cities.
Calvinists.	Grifons	2270	100	62	Coire
Subjects of the Grifons, Calv. and catholics.	Chiavanna	472	42	34	Chiavanna
	Bormio and	360	27	19	Sondrio
	Valtelline	160	47	8	Liechtensteg
Calvinists.	Tockenbourg	160	13	11	Geneva
	Geneva	320	32	20	Neufchatel
	Neuchatel	1287	80	30	Sion
Roman cath.	Valais	270	13	16	Delfperg
	Balle	144	20	10	St. Gall.
	St. Gall				Mulhausen, in Alface, is also united to them.
Total		12984			

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE } This is a mountainous country, lying upon
OF THE COUNTRY. } the Alps, which form an amphitheatre of more than one hundred miles. The frosts are severe in Winter, and the hills sometimes are covered with snow throughout the year. In Summer, the diversity of the soil, renders the same province very unequal in its seasons. On one side of those mountains, the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The vallies are warm, fruitful, and well cultivated. 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 crops. The water of Switzerland is excellent, and often descends from the mountains in cataracts.

There is no country, wherein the advantages of persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous, than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts, the traveller is struck with admiration, to observe rocks, formerly barren, planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of steep precipices. The inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction, which soil, situation, and climate, had thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country, consigned, by nature, to everlasting barrenness. The bottoms 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 ice or snow. The vallies, between these icy and snowy mountains, appear like so many smooth, frozen lakes; and, from these mountains, vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some parts, there is a regular gradation from extreme wildness to high cultivation; in others, the transitions are abrupt, and striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with woods, and studded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, and pastures which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and snow. In short, Switzerland abounds with highly picturesque scenes, and the sublimest exhibitions of nature in her most awful and tremendous forms.

GLACIERS.] No subject in natural history, is more curious than the origin of the immense fields of ice, commonly called glaciers. If a person could be conveyed to such an elevation, as to embrace, at one view, the Alps of Switzerland, Savoy, and Dauphine, he would behold a vast assemblage of mountains, intersected by numerous vallies, and composed of many parallel branches, the highest occupying the centre, and others gradually diminishing, in proportion to their distance from that centre.

The most elevated, or central range, would appear bristled with pointed rocks, and covered, even in Summer, with ice and snow, in all parts that are not absolutely perpendicular. On each side, he would discover deep vallies clothed with verdure, ~~abounding with numerous villages, and watered by many rivers.~~ In considering these objects with greater attention, he would remark, that the central chain is composed of elevated peaks and ridges, whose summits are overspread with snow; that the declivities of the peaks and ridges, excepting those parts that are extremely steep, are covered with snow and ice; and that the intermediate depths and spaces between them, are filled with immense fields of ice, terminating in cultivated vallies.

These immense fields of ice usually rest on an inclined plain; being pushed forwards by the pressure of their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are intersected by large transverse crevices; and present the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantastic shapes, observed at all heights and in all situations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr. Coxe describes the method of travelling over these glaciers. His party had each of them a long pole spiked with iron; and, to secure them from slipping, the guides fastened to their feet, small bars of iron, having four small spikes. The difficulty of crossing these vallies of ice, arises from the immense chasms. They rolled down large stones into several of them; and the great length of time before these reached the bottom, gave some conception of their depth; which, in some places, is not less than five hundred feet. Such a body of ice, broken into irregular ridges and deep chasms, resembles a lake instantly frozen in the midst of a violent storm.

MOUNTAINS.] Mont Blanc, or the White mountain, is distinguished by having its summits and sides clothed with snow, almost without the intervention of the least rock to break the glare of the *white* appearance. Mr. De Luc estimates the height of this mountain, above the level of the sea, at two thousand three hundred and ninety-one and one-third French toises, or fifteen thousand three hundred and four English feet. Sir George Shuckburgh states it at fifteen thousand six hundred and sixty-two feet, which gives a difference of only three hundred and fifty-eight feet. The Peak of Teneriffe has been frequently supposed the highest land of the old hemisphere. Mont Blanc, however, is of much more considerable elevation.

This mountain is above the level of the sea, by sir George Shuck-	Feet.
burgh's mensuration,	15,662
The peak of Teneriffe, according to Feuille,	13,248
Ætna, according to sir George Shuckburgh,	10,954
Canigou, the highest of the Pyrenees,	9,222
Ben-nevis, the highest mountain in Scotland,	4,387
Vesuvius, according to M. de Saussure,	3,900
Snowden, in Wales,	3,555

The summit of Mont Blanc was deemed inaccessible till dr. Pacard, in 1786, ascended it. The same journey was soon after undertaken by M. de Saussure, of Geneva, on the first of August, 1787. He set out, accompanied by a servant and eighteen guides, to carry a tent, provisions, instruments, &c. M. de Saussure passed the first night at the top of the mountain of la Cote, situated to the south of the priory; and seven hundred and seventy-nine toises above the village. To this place, there is no trouble or danger; the ascent is either on turf or on rock; and it is easily accomplished in five or six hours.

On the second day, the glacier of la Cote is to be passed, which is crossed by wide, deep, and irregular crevices. These are frequently impassible but over bridges of snow, sometimes very slight, and suspended over deep abysses. A guide narrowly escaped perishing in one of these. He went in the evening, with two others, to reconnoitre the passage. Fortunately they had taken the precaution of fastening themselves together with cords. The snow gave way in the middle of a wide and deep crevice, wherein the man was suspended between his two companions, by whom he was with difficulty drawn out. At four o'clock in the afternoon of the second day, M. de Saussure's party again encamped, one thousand four hundred and fifty-five toises above the priory, one thousand nine hundred and ninety-five above the sea, ninety toises higher than the peak of Teneriffe. Here they soon felt the rarity of the air. The barometer was down to 17 inches 10 lines 29-32. Those hardy men, to whom the march of seven or eight hours, which they had just made, was no sort of fatigue, had scarcely thrown up five or six spadefuls of snow, to prepare for fixing the tent, before they were utterly unable to proceed, without resting every moment. Saussure himself was quite exhausted with fatigue, merely in observing with his meteorological instruments. They were troubled with an incessant thirst, which they had no means of allaying, but by melting the snow. From the midst of this plain, enclosed in part by the highest summit of Mont Blanc, scarcely any thing is to be seen but snow, pure, and of a dazzling whiteness, forming on the highest pikes, a most singular contrast with the sky, almost black, of those elevated regions. No living creature is to be seen; no appearance of vegetation. It is the abode of cold and silence.

The guides, fearful of cold, closed the openings of the tent carefully; but Saussure suffered so much from heat, and want of fresh air, that he went out during the night, in order to breathe. He found the moon shining with astonishing brightness,

in the midst of an ebon sky, while Jupiter shone equally bright from behind the loftiest pike to the east of Mont Blanc. As soon as it was light, they found the thermometer three degrees below the freezing point. On the third day, at about eleven o'clock, they safely arrived at the summit. There is no plain; but it is a long ridge nearly horizontal, in a direction from east to west. This ridge is so narrow, that two persons cannot walk a-breast on it; especially at the west end, where it resembles the roof of a house. In this state of awful elevation, as M. de Saussure was putting his instruments in order, to observe with them, he was obliged every moment to interrupt his observations, in order to take breath. The barometer was, on the summit, down to 16 inches one line, so that the air was only of about half the common density. It was thence necessary to supply the defect of density by more frequent inspirations. This accelerated the motion of the blood, and the more, because the arteries no longer sustained their ordinary pressure, inasmuch, that the party were all in a fever. Saussure continued upon the summit of Mont Blanc till half an hour past three in the afternoon, during which time he carefully made some curious experiments. They all returned safe with their eyes and faces uninjured, which was owing to the precaution of having put black crape over their faces. Others, who had gone up before them, returned almost blind, and with their skin terribly burnt by the reflection of the snow.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which rises in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard, the Aar, the Reufs, the Tefin, the Oglio, and the Rhone. The lakes are those of Geneva, Constance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Biel, and Brien.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces cattle, sheep, 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 are well provided with timber. In some of the higher and more inaccessible parts of the Alps, are found the bouquetin and the chamois; whose activity in scouring along the steep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both these animals is of so hot a nature, that the inhabitants of some of these mountains, who are much subject to pleurisy, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that disorder. ~~The flesh of the chamois is esteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewise found a species of hare, which are all over white, so that, in winter, they are scarcely distinguishable among the snow. The white hare seldom quits his rocky residence. Here are also yellow and white foxes, which, in winter, sometimes come down into the vallies.~~

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, } According to the best accounts, the
CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } cantons of Switzerland contain about
 two millions of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, industrious people; remarkable for their fidelity, and for their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, together with an invincible spirit of freedom, are their most distinguishing characteristics. A very striking proof of the honesty of this people, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe; who says, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that, on each side of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, there are several ranges of small shops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked. Any passengers, who wish to become purchasers, enter the shops, take away the merchandise, and deposit the price, which the owners come for in the evening. They are likewise a very

enlightened nation. Their common people are 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 artless good-breeding is 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 the liveliest image of cleanliness, ease, and simplicity, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most pleasing conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, consisting, generally, of a field or two of fine pasture-ground, frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland. The wear of silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, is 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 who loses above six florins, which is about two dollars, 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 hours in reading. The youth are generally 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 Valais, are very much subject to *goiters*, or large excrescences of flesh which grow from the throat, and often increase to a great size. But, what is more extraordinary, idiotism also remarkably abounds among them. "I saw," says Mr. Coxe, "many instances of both kinds, as I passed through Sion. Some idiots were basking in the sun with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the most affecting spectacle of intellectual imbecility 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 are contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than that which descends immediately from those immense reservoirs of ice and snow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of those countries, in which there is no snow, afflicted with it? For, these guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the island of Sumatra, and at Patna and Purnea in the East-Indies, where snow is unknown. The springs, which supply drink to the natives, are impregnated with a calcareous matter, called in Switzerland *tuf*, so minutely dissolved, as not, in the least, to affect the transparency of the water. It is not improbable, that the impalpable particles of this substance, thus dissolved, should introduce themselves into the glands of the throat, and produce goiters, for the following reasons: because *tuf*, or this calcareous deposition, abounds in all those districts, where goiters are common. There are goitrous persons and much *tuf* in Derbyshire, in various parts of the Valais, in the Valteline, at Lucerne, Fribourg, and Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in several places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dresden, in the vallies of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. "But the strongest proof, in favour of this opinion," says Mr. Coxe, "is derived from the following facts. A surgeon, whom I met at the baths of Leuk, informed me that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *tuf-stone* from several goiters; and that from one in particular, he had taken several flat pieces, each about half an inch long."

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiss cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion; some of them being protestants, others catholics, others mixed. The differences, in that respect, formerly created many public commotions, which have subsided, and the sects live together in the most perfect harmony. In several parts of the canton of Glaris, the protestants and catholics successively perform service in the same church; and all the offices of state are amicably administered by the two parties. Zuinglius introduced protestantism into Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Calvin and Luther only in a few speculative points.

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.] The ingenious and eloquent Rousseau, whose works the present age has received with so much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau gave a force to the French language, which it had been thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a prose writer only; but the French admire him as a poet. Haller, a native of Berne, deserves praise as a poet, a physiologist, and a philosopher. Conrad Gesner—Bodmer—Hertzel—Meister—Lavater, who has published a voluminous work on physiognomy—Solomon Gessner, the amiable author of the death of Abel, and a number of the most beautiful idylls that ever were written—with various other celebrated names, are among those which have reflected lustre on the literary character of Switzerland.

UNIVERSITIES.] The university of Basil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious physic-garden, which contains the choicest exotics: and adjacent to the library, 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 Amerbach, which also belong to this university, there are no less than twenty original pieces of Holbein. The other universities, which are commonly stiled colleges, are those of Bern, Lausanne, and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, } Every district of a canton in this mountainous 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 at two leagues from ~~the city~~. This was formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for twenty-five 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, twenty-eight paces in length, twelve in breadth, and twenty feet in height, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, ceiling, all cut out of the rock.

At Schaffhausen is a 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 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 safe if formed solely of one arch. The sides and top are covered, and it is what the Germans call a 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 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 was Ulric Grubenman. The bridge was finished in less than three years, and cost nearly forty thousand dollars.

At the famous pass of the *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a solid rock near fifty feet thick, the height of the arch twenty-six, and its breadth twenty-five. The ruins of Cesar's wall, which extended eighteen miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of lake Lemane, are discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus, and at Avanche in the canton of Berne. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a Jesuits' college; and many cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds. At Lucerne, is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous part of Switzerland, by general Pfiffer, 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 sixty square leagues, in the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, Berne, Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwalden. 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 the strata of the several rocks are marked, each being shaped upon the spot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous stone, or such other natural substances as compose the original mountains. The plan is minutely exact, and not only comprizes all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and forests; but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and every path is distinctly and accurately represented. He takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to 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. It appears, that continued chains of mountains of equal elevation, are raised in progression to the highest range, and from thence gradually descend in the same proportion to Italy. Near Rosiniere is a famous spring that rises in the middle of a natural basin of twelve square feet. The force that acts upon it must be prodigious. After a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of water, as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies. The surface is clear as crystal, and its depth unfathomable.

CITIES.] The most considerable is Berne, standing on the river Aar. This city and canton form almost a third of the Helvetic confederacy; and can, upon occasion, fit out one hundred thousand armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are well provided with arsenals, bridges, and public edifices. Basil is situated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alsace and the empire. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsac, 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. In the arsenal is shown the bow of the famous William Tell.

The city of Geneva is an associate of Switzerland, and under the protection of

the Helvetic body, but within itself is an independent state and republic. The city is well built and well fortified, and contains twenty-four thousand inhabitants. Lord Gardenstone was assured that this is the actual number, which we mention, because a late French traveller has advanced them to sixty thousand. This place is situated upon the Rhone, where it flows from the lake of Geneva, and is celebrated for 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; and from its industry and prosperity, is an agreeable place. But the fermentation of politics, and particularly the usurpation of the senate, hath divided the inhabitants into parties, and the late struggle of patricians and plebeians had nearly ruined all. Many of its valuable citizens have left Geneva, and sought refuge and protection in foreign countries.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, such as linen, dimity, lace, stockings, handkerchiefs, ribands, silk, and printed cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland. The inhabitants begin, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, to fabricate silks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progress in those manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a prospect of being able soon to make considerable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] These are very complicated heads, though belonging to the same body, being partly aristocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is absolute in its own jurisdiction; but those of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with their dependencies, are aristocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne excepted. Those of Uri, Schwitz, Unterwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Basil, though it has the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even those aristocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them, the real interests of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotic governments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itself to the supposed 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 Swiss, properly so called. The second are the Grisons, or states confederated with the Swiss, 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 a dispute arises that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which sits at Baden, where, each canton having a vote, every question is decided by the majority. The general diet consists of two deputies from each canton, besides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bien. 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 citizen is securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seem to insure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little have the Swiss, of late years, been actuated by the spirit of conquest, that, since the firm and complete establishment of their ge-

neral confederacy, they have scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy ; and have had no commotions among themselves, that were not very soon happily terminated.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of the 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 three hundred thousand crowns ; and those of Zurich, to one hundred and fifty thousand ; the other cantons in proportion to their 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 five hundred thousand pounds sterling in the English funds, besides what they hold in other funds.

The revenues arise, first, from the profits of the demesne lands ; second, from the tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country ; third, from customs and duties on merchandise ; fourth, from the revenues arising out of the sale of salt, and some casual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal strength of the Swiss cantons, independent of the militia, consists of thirteen thousand four hundred 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 made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign states and princes are supplied. Every burgher, peasant, and subject is obliged to exercise himself in the use of arms ; appear on stated days for shooting at a mark ; furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder, and ball ; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engage in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter case, the government permits the enlisting of volunteers, though only for states with whom they are in alliance, or have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no subject is to be forced into foreign service. He cannot even be enlisted without the concurrence of the magistracy.

HISTORY.] The present Swiss and Grisons are the descendants of the ancient Helvetii, subdued by Julius Cæsar. Their mountainous, uninviting situation formed a better security for their liberties, than their forts or armies ; and the same is the case at present. They continued long under a nominal subjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor, Albert the first, treated them with so much rigour, that they petitioned him against the cruelty of his governors. This served only to double the hardships of the people ; and one of Albert's Austrian governors, Gessler, in the wantonness of tyranny, set a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much respect as to himself. One William Tell, being observed to pass frequently, without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent marksman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unless he cleft an apple upon his son's head, at a certain distance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple ; and Gessler asking him the meaning of another arrow that he saw stuck in his belt, he bluntly answered, that it was intended for his (Gessler's) heart, if he had killed his son. Tell upon this, was condemned to prison ; but, making his escape, he watched his opportunity, and shot the despot, and thereby laid the foundation 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 patriots among them. Their measures were so just, and their valour so intrepid, that they soon effected an union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Schwitz, and Unterwald, 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; Friburg and Soleure one hundred and thirty years after; Basil and Schaffhausen in 1501: and Appenzel, in 1513, completed the confederacy, which 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.

From this period, the Swis have been so much wiser than any of the other European powers, that they have preserved a peace uninterrupted, except by some internal disputes, principally arising from religious zeal. These were speedily terminated. Their history is, therefore, comprised in few words. It affords no room for signalizing the abilities of a writer, by detailing the “splendid miseries of mankind” in battles and sieges, victories and defeats. While other nations descant largely on the blessings of peace, liberty, and property, amidst the curses of war, taxes, and oppression, these happy people quietly enjoy all the manifold advantages, which sound policy, steadily pursued, can confer. The contrast between their situation and that of the different nations by which they are surrounded, holds out an instructive lesson to mankind, on the subject of war and its pretended glories.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.