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Cawking M Pitot.

Dec 1st 1826.

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THE COLUMBIAN CLASS BOOK.

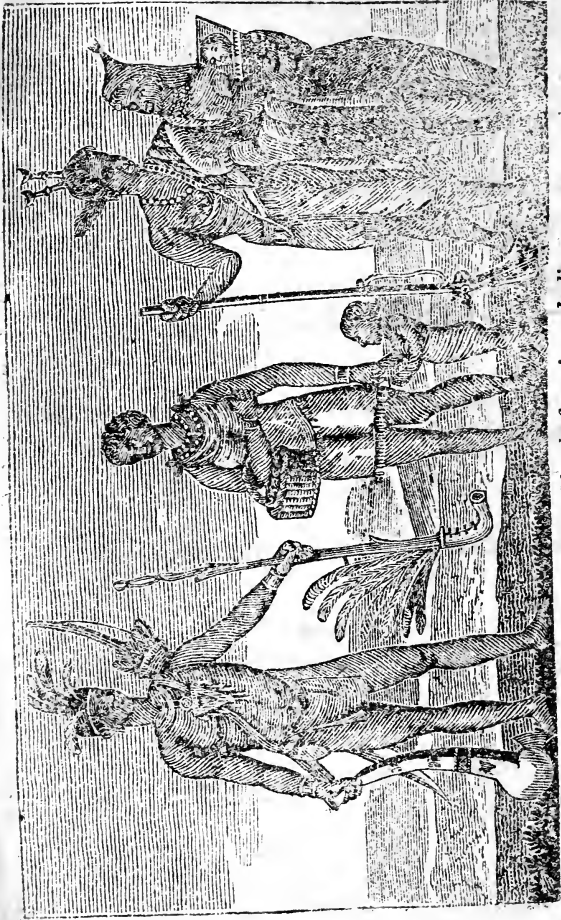
By A. T. LOWE.

One of the prized possessions of the Chicago Historical Society, is Abraham Lincoln's own copy of the Columbian Class Book, by A. T. Lowe, bearing his well known signature on one of its fly-leaves, as owner.

The time and circumstance of his coming into possession of this work does not appear in any of the biographies of Lincoln, so far examined.

This is one of the three compilations of choice literature read by Lincoln during his residence in Indiana, - the others being "Scott's Lessons in Elocution", and "The Kentucky Preceptor."

H. E. Barker



Page 21.—The North-American Indians.

THE
COLUMBIAN
CLASS BOOK,

CONSISTING OF GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL,
AND BIOGRAPHICAL

EXTRACTS,

COMPILED FROM AUTHENTIC SOURCES, AND ARRANGED
ON A PLAN DIFFERENT FROM ANY THING BE-
FORE OFFERED THE PUBLICK.

PARTICULARLY DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

==
BY A. T. LOWE, M. D.
==

“Whoso readeth, let him understand.”

Second Edition.

—
WORCESTER:
PUBLISHED BY DORR & HOWLAND.
1825.

DISTRICT OF MASSACHUSETTS, *to wit*:-

[L. S.]

DISTRICT CLERK'S OFFICE.

BE IT REMEMBERED, that on the twenty-ninth day of October, A. D. 1824, in the forty eighth year of the Independence of the United States of America, A. T. Lowe, M. D. of the said district, has deposited in this office, the title of a book, the right whereof he claims as author in the words following, *to wit* :

“ The Columbian Class Book ; consisting of Geographical, Historical and Biographical Extracts, compiled from authentic sources and arranged on a plan different from any thing before offered the publick. Particularly designed for the use of schools. By A. T. Lowe, M. D. “ Whoso readeth, let him understand.”

In conformity to the Act of the Congress of the United States, entitled, “ An Act for the encouragement of Learning, by securing the Copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such Copies, during the times therein mentioned ; and also to an Act entitled, “ An Act, supplementary to An Act entitled, An Act for the Encouragement of Learning, by securing the Copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the Authors and Proprietors of such Copies during the times therein mentioned ; and extending the benefits thereof to the Arts of Designing, Engraving and Etching Historical, and other Prints.”

JNO. W. DAVIS, } Clerk of the District
of Massachusetts.

F. & G. Merriam, Printers,
Brookfield, Mass.

mg 5374
LT205.L7 1825

PREFACE.

THE following Compilation is not offered the publick with the belief that there is a deficiency in the number of school books at the present day, or with a conviction that the selection of their materials is generally injudicious; although in the choice of lessons of which most of our school books are composed, a preference does not appear always to have been given to those pieces that seem best calculated to engage from their general interest the attention of the scholar, and to impress the mind with a knowledge of useful facts, which would often apply even in the higher branches of education. The Geographical, Biographical and Historical extracts which form the Columbian Class Book, containing in themselves much interesting matter, and arranged on a plan entirely new, it is believed, will, in a great measure, supply the deficiency found in most publications of the kind.

The notes, which were collected from authentic sources, will serve to give the reader a just idea of the several sections; and as geographical and historical facts, will often apply in circumstances that have no connection with the immediate subject which precedes them. They are more copious than might be expected from their occasional examination; as most of the principal rivers, mountains, oceans, seas, bays, gulfs, lakes, &c. are noticed in the progress of their compilation. The most approved Gazetteers and Maps have been consulted in the collection of this portion of the work, which, in a few instances, were found to differ; of course errors of minor importance may be detected, for which the above circumstance is offered as an apology.

The questions which principally refer to the geographical chapters and to the notes, will serve to exercise the memory of the scholar.

With this exposition of the compiler's intentions, he presents this volume to the publick, hoping that it may, in some degree, subserve the purpose for which it was originally designed.

Ashburnham, Mass. June, 1824.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

From the Rev. Leonard Woods, D. D. of the Theological Seminary, Andover.

Dear Sir,—I have attentively examined the Columbian Class Book, and I am well satisfied that the plan is judicious and well executed, and that a school book, containing such a variety of useful information, exhibited in so interesting a form, will be an addition to the advantages already enjoyed by American youth. Should you proceed to publish the book, as I hope you will, I should have no doubt of its gaining, in due time, an extensive patronage among the Instructors and friends of the rising generation. With the sincerest wishes for your success in this effort to promote the education of our youth, I am, dear sir, yours very respectfully,

LEONARD WOODS.

Andover, July 5, 1824.

Dr. A. T. Lowe.

From the Rev. Ezekiel L. Bascom, A. M.

I have had the satisfaction of casting my eye over the Columbian Class Book, compiled by Dr. Lowe. The plan appears to me *entirely new*, and presents a course of reading which must be highly interesting as well as instructive. I am much pleased both with the design and execution of the work, and, while I give it my cordial approbation, I confidently recommend it to the publick as a book calculated to convey much useful information, refined amusement and important instruction.

EZEKIEL L. BASCOM.

Ashby, June 15, 1824.

From the Rev. Aaron Bancroft, D. D.

Worcester, June 23, 1824.

Dear Sir,—I have given your manuscript as much attention, as the time and my interruption by company would permit. The plan, I think, must be good. There seems to be a variety in the articles, most of the pieces are in themselves important, and are calculated to attract the attention of youth and give them useful information.

With considerations, &c. your humble servant,

Dr. Lowe.

A. BANCROFT.

From the Rev. George Perkins, A. M.

Dear Sir,—Having attentively examined the plan of your Columbian Class Book, and cursorily perused several chapters, I heartily approve of the work, and fully concur in the foregoing recommendations.

Very respectfully yours, &c.

GEO. PERKINS.

Ashburnham, July 26, 1824.

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COLUMBIAN CLASS BOOK.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF GENERAL WASHINGTON. —*Kingston.*

1. GEORGE WASHINGTON, commander in chief of the American army during the war with Great Britain, and first president of the United States, was the son of Mr. Augustine Washington, and was born at Bridges' creek, in the county of Westmoreland, Virginia, February 22, 1732. His great grand-father had emigrated to that place from the north of England, about the year 1657.

2. At the age of ten years he lost his father, and the patrimonial estate descended to his elder brother, Mr. Lawrence Washington, who, in the year 1740, had been engaged in the expedition against Carthagenia. In honor of the British admiral, who commanded the fleet employed in that enterprise, the estate was called Mount Vernon.

3. At the age of fifteen, agreeably to his brother's, as well as his own urgent request to enter into the British navy, the place of a midshipman in a vessel of war, then stationed on the coast of Virginia, was obtained for him. Every thing was in readiness for his departure, when the fears of a timid and affectionate mother prevailed upon him to abandon his proposed career on the ocean, and were the means of retaining him upon the land, to be the future vindicator of his country's rights.

4. All the advantages of education which he enjoyed, were derived from a private tutor, who instructed him in English literature and the general principles of science, as well as in morality and religion. After his disappointment with regard to entering the navy, he devoted much

of his time to the study of mathematics; and, in the practice of his profession as a surveyor, he had an opportunity of acquiring that information respecting the value of vacant lands, which afterwards greatly contributed to the increase of his private fortune.

5. At the age of nineteen, when the militia of Virginia were to be trained for actual service, he was appointed an adjutant general with the rank of major. It was for a very short time that he discharged the duties of this office. In the year 1753, the plan formed by France for connecting Canada with Louisiana by a line of posts, and thus of enclosing the British colonies, and of establishing her influence over the numerous tribes of Indians on the frontiers, began to be developed.

6. In the prosecution of this design, possession had been taken of a tract of land, then believed to be within the province of Virginia. Mr. Dinwiddie, the lieutenant governor, being determined to remonstrate against the supposed encroachment, and violation of the treaties between the two countries, dispatched major Washington through the wilderness to the Ohio, to deliver a letter to the commanding officer of the French, and also to explore the country.

7. This trust of danger and fatigue, he executed with great ability. He left Williamsburg, October 31, 1753, the very day on which he received his commission, and at the frontier settlement of the English, engaged guides to conduct him over the Alleghany mountains. After passing them, he pursued his route to the Monongahela, examining the country with a military eye, and taking the most judicious means for securing the friendship of the Indians.

8. He selected the forks of the Monongahela and Alleghany rivers as a position which ought to be immediately possessed and fortified. At this place, the French very soon erected fort du Quesne, which fell into the hands of the English in 1758, and was called by them Fort Pitt. Pursuing his way up the Alleghany to French creek, he found at the fort upon this stream the commanding officer, to whom he delivered the letter from Mr. Dinwiddie.

9. On his return, he encountered great difficulties and dangers. As the snow was deep, and the horses weak from fatigue, he left his attendants at the mouth of French

creek, and set out on foot, with his papers and provisions in his pack, accompanied only by his pilot, Mr. Gist. At a place upon the Alleghany called Murdering town, they fell in with an hostile Indian, who was one of a party then lying in wait, and who fired upon them not ten steps distant.

10. They took him into custody, and kept him until nine o'clock, and then let him go. To avoid the pursuit, which they presumed would be commenced in the morning, they travelled all night. On reaching the Monongahela, they had a hard day's work to make a raft with a hatchet. In attempting to cross the river to reach a trader's house, they were enclosed by masses of ice.

11. In order to stop the raft, major Washington put down his setting pole, but the ice came with such force against it, as to plunge him into the water. He saved himself by seizing one of the raft logs. With difficulty they landed on an island, where they passed the night. The cold was so severe, that the pilot's hands and feet were frozen. The next day they crossed the river upon the ice. Washington arrived at Williamsburg, January 16, 1754. His journal, which evinced the solidity of his judgment and his fortitude, was published.

12. As the French seemed disposed to remain on the Ohio, it was determined to raise a regiment of three hundred men to maintain the claims of the British crown. The command was given to Mr. Fry; and major Washington, who was appointed lieutenant colonel, marched with two companies early in April, 1754, in advance of the other troops. A few miles west of the Great Meadows, he surprised a French encampment in a dark rainy night, and only one man escaped.

13. Before the arrival of the two remaining companies, Mr. Fry died, and the command devolved on colonel Washington. Being joined by two other companies of regular troops from South Carolina and New York, after erecting a small stockade at the Great Meadows, he proceeded towards fort du Quesne, which had been built but a short time with the intention of dislodging the French.

14. He had marched only thirteen miles to the westernmost foot of laurel hill, before he received information of the approach of the enemy with superior numbers,

and was induced to return to his stockade. He began a ditch around it, and called it Fort Necessity: but the next day, July 3, he was attacked by fifteen hundred men. His own troops were only about four hundred in number. The action commenced at ten in the morning, and lasted until dark.

15. A part of the Americans fought within the fort, and a part in the ditch filled with mud and water. Colonel Washington was himself on the outside of the fort during the whole day. The enemy fought under cover of the trees and high grass. In the course of the night, articles of capitulation were agreed upon. The garrison were allowed to retain their arms and baggage, and to march unmolested to the inhabited parts of Virginia. The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded was supposed to be about a hundred, and that of the enemy about two hundred.

16. In a few months afterwards, orders were received for settling the rank of the officers, and those who were commissioned by the king being directed to take rank of the provincial officers, colonel Washington indignantly resigned his commission. He now retired to Mount Vernon, that estate by the death of his brother, having devolved upon him. But in the spring of 1755, he accepted an invitation from general Braddock to enter his family as a volunteer aid-de-camp in his expedition to the Ohio.

17. He proceeded with him to Wills' creek, afterwards called Fort Cumberland, in April. After the troops had marched a few miles from this place, he was seized with a raging fever; but, refusing to remain behind, he was conveyed in a covered wagon. By his advice, twelve hundred men were detached in order to reach fort du Quesne before an expected reinforcement should be received at that place.

18. These disencumbered troops were commanded by Braddock himself, and colonel Washington, though still extremely ill, insisted upon proceeding with them. After they arrived upon the Monongahela, he advised the General to employ the ranging companies of Virginia to scour the woods and to prevent ambuscades; but this advice was not followed. On the ninth of July, when the army was within seven miles of fort du Quesne, the enemy commenced a sudden and furious attack, being concealed by the wood and high grass.

19. Washington alone escaped without wounds, and on him devolved the whole duty of carrying the orders of the commander in chief. He was cool and fearless. Though he had two horses shot under him, and four balls through his coat, he escaped unhurt, while every officer on horseback, was either killed or wounded. Dr. Craik, the physician who attended him in his last sickness, was present in this battle, and says, "I expected every moment to see him fall; nothing but the superintending care of Providence could have saved him from the fate of all around him."

20. After an action of three hours, the troops gave way in all directions, and Colonel Washington and two others brought off Braddock, who had been mortally wounded. He attempted to rally the retreating troops; but it was like an effort to stop the wild bears of the mountains. The conduct of the regular troops was most cowardly. The enemy were few in numbers, and had no expectation of victory.

21. In a sermon occasioned by this expedition, the Rev. Dr. Davies thus prophetically expressed himself; "As a remarkable instance of patriotism, I may point out to the public that heroic youth, colonel Washington, whom I cannot but hope Providence has hitherto preserved in so signal a manner, for some important service to his country." For this purpose he was indeed preserved, and at the end of twenty years he began to render his country more important services than this minister of Jesus could have anticipated.

22. From 1755, to 1758, he commanded a regiment, which was raised for the protection of the frontiers, and during this period, he was incessantly occupied in efforts to shield the exposed settlements from the incursions of the savages. His exertions were in a great degree ineffectual, in consequence of the errors and the pride of government, and of the impossibility of guarding with a few troops an extended territory from an enemy, who were averse to open warfare.

23. He in the most earnest manner recommended offensive measures, as the only method of giving complete protection to the settlements. In the year 1758, to his great joy, it was determined to undertake another expedition against fort du Quesne, and he engaged in it with

zeal. Early in July the troops were assembled at fort Cumberland; and here, against all the remonstrances and arguments of Colonel Washington, General Forbes resolved to open a new road to the Ohio, instead of taking the old route.

24. Such was the predicted delay, occasioned by this measure, that in November it was resolved not to proceed further during that campaign. But intelligence of the weakness of the garrison induced an alteration of the plan of passing the winter in the wilderness. By slow marches they were enabled, on the twenty fifth of November, to reach fort du Quesne, of which peaceable possession was taken, as the enemy on the preceding night had abandoned it, and proceeded down the Ohio.

25. The works in this place were repaired, and its name changed to that of fort Pitt. The success of the expedition was to be attributed to the British fleet, which intercepted reinforcements, destined for Canada, and to events in the Northern Colonies. The great object, which he had been anxious to effect, being now accomplished, and his health enfeebled, Washington resigned his commission as commander in chief of the troops raised in Virginia.

26. Soon after his resignation he was married to the widow of Mr. Custis, a young lady to whom he had been for some time strongly attached, and who, to a large fortune and a fine person, added those amiable accomplishments which fill with silent felicity the scenes of domestic life.

27. His attention for several years was principally directed to the management of his estate, which had now become considerable. He had nine thousand acres under his own management; and so great a part was cultivated, that in one year he raised seven thousand bushels of wheat, and ten thousand of corn. His slaves and other persons, employed by him, amounted to near a thousand; and the woollen and linen cloth necessary for their use was chiefly manufactured on the estate.

28. He was at this period, a respectable member of the legislature of Virginia, in which he took a decided part in opposition to the principle of taxation, asserted by the British Parliament. He also officiated as a judge of a county court. In 1774, he was elected a member of the

first Congress, and was placed on all those committees, whose duties were, to make arrangements for defence.

29. In the following year, after the battle of Lexington, when it was determined by Congress to resort to arms, Washington was unanimously elected commander in chief of the army of the united colonies. All were satisfied as to his qualifications, and the delegates from New England were particularly pleased with his election, as it would tend cordially to unite the Southern interest in the war. He accepted the appointment with diffidence, and expressed his intention of receiving no compensation for his services, and only a mere discharge of his expenses.

30. He immediately repaired to Cambridge, in the neighborhood of Boston, where he arrived on the second of July. He formed the army into three divisions, in order more effectually to enclose the enemy, entrusting the division at Roxbury to General Ward, the division on Prospect and Winter hills to General Lee, and commanded himself the centre, at Cambridge.

31. Here he had to struggle with great difficulties, in want of ammunition, clothing, and magazines, defect of arms and discipline and the evils of short enlistments; but, instead of yielding to despondence, he bent the whole force of his mind to overcome them. He soon made the alarming discovery that there was only sufficient powder on hand, to furnish the army with nine cartridges for each man.

32. With the greatest caution to keep this fact a secret, the utmost exertions were employed to procure a supply. A vessel which was despatched to Africa, obtained in exchange for New-England Rum all the gunpowder in the British factories; and, in the beginning of winter, Capt. Manly captured an ordnance brig, which furnished the American army with the precise articles, of which it was in the greatest want.

33. In September, General Washington despatched Arnold on an expedition against Quebec. In February, 1776, he proposed to a council of his officers to cross the ice, and attack the enemy in Boston, but they unanimously disapproved of the daring measure. It was however, soon resolved to take possession of the heights of Dorchester. This was done without discovery, on the night of

the fourth of March, and on the seventeenth the enemy found it necessary to evacuate the town.

34. The recovery of Boston induced Congress to pass a vote of thanks to General Washington and his brave army. In the belief that the efforts of the British would be directed towards the Hudson, he hastened the army to New York, where he arrived on the fourteenth of April. He made every exertion to fortify the city, and attention was paid to the forts in the highlands.

35. While he met with the most embarrassing difficulties, a plan was formed to assist the enemy in seizing his person and some of his own guards engaged in the conspiracy; but it was discovered, and some who were concerned in it were executed. In the beginning of July, General Howe landed his troops at Staten Island. His brother, lord Howe, who commanded the fleet, soon arrived; and as both were commissioners for restoring peace to the colonies, the latter addressed a letter to "George Washington, Esquire," but the General refused to receive it, as it did not acknowledge the public character with which he was invested by Congress, in which character only he could have intercourse with his lordship.

36. Another letter was sent to "George Washington, &c. &c." This, for the same reason, was rejected. After the disastrous battle of Brooklyn on the twenty seventh of August, in which Stirling and Sullivan were taken prisoners, and of which he was only a spectator, he withdrew the troops from Long Island, and in a few days resolved to leave New York.

37. At Kipp's Bay about three miles from the city, some works had been thrown up to oppose the enemy; but on their approach the American troops fled with precipitation. Washington rode toward the lines and made every exertion to prevent the disgraceful flight. He drew his sword and threatened to run the cowards through; he snapped his pistol; but it was in vain.

38. Such was the state of his mind at this moment, that he turned his horse towards the advancing enemy, apparently with the intention of rushing upon them; but his aids seized the bridle of his horse, and rescued him. New York was on the same day, September the 15th, evacuated. In October he retreated to White Plains, where, on

the twenty eighth, a considerable action took place, in which the Americans were overpowered.

39. After the loss of forts Washington and Lee, he passed into New Jersey, in November, and was pursued by a triumphant and numerous enemy. His army did not amount to 5000, and it was daily diminishing; his men were barefooted and almost naked, destitute of tents, and of utensils with which to dress their scanty provisions; and every circumstance tended to fill the mind with despondency. But Washington was undismayed and firm.

40. He shewed himself to his enfeebled army, with a serene and cheerful countenance, and they were inspired with the resolution of their commander. On the eighth of December, he was obliged to cross the Delaware; but had the precaution to secure the boats for seventy miles upon the river, while the British were waiting for the ice to afford them a passage. As his own army had been reinforced by several thousand men, he formed the resolution of carrying the cantonments of the enemy by surprise.

41. On the night of the twenty fifth of December, he crossed the river nine miles above Trenton, in a storm of snow mingled with hail and rain, with 2400 men. In the morning precisely at eight o'clock, he surprised Trenton, took a thousand Hessians prisoners, a thousand stand of arms, and six field pieces. Twenty of the enemy were killed. Of the Americans, two privates were killed, and two frozen to death; and one officer and three or four privates wounded.

42. On the same day, he recrossed the Delaware with the fruits of his enterprise; but soon passed again into New Jersey, and concentrated his forces, amounting to five thousand, at Trenton. On the approach of a superior enemy under Cornwallis, January 2d, 1777, he drew up his men behind Assumpinck creek. He expected an attack in the morning, which would probably have terminated in a ruinous defeat. At this moment, when it was hazardous, if not impracticable to return into Pennsylvania he formed the resolution of getting into the rear of the enemy, and thus stop them in their progress towards Philadelphia.

43. In the night he silently decamped, taking a circuitous route to Princeton. A sudden change of the weather to severe cold rendered the roads favourable for his

march. About sunrise, his van met a British detachment on its way to join Cornwallis, and was defeated by it; but as he came up, he exposed himself to every danger, and gained a victory. With three hundred prisoners, he then entered Princeton.

44. During this march, many of his soldiers were without shoes, and their feet left marks of blood upon the frozen ground. This hardship, and their want of repose, induced him to lead his army to a place of security on the road to Morristown. Cornwallis in the morning broke up his camp, and, alarmed for his stores at Brunswick, urged the pursuit.

45. Thus the military genius of the American commander, under the blessing of divine Providence, rescued Philadelphia from the threatened danger, obliged the enemy, which had overspread New Jersey, to return to the neighborhood of New York, and revived the languishing spirit of his country. Having accomplished these objects he retired to Morristown, where he caused his whole army to be inoculated with the small pox.

46. On the last of May he removed his army to Middlebrook, about ten miles from Brunswick, where he fortified himself very strongly. An ineffectual attempt was made by Sir William Howe, to draw him from his position, by marching towards Philadelphia; but after Howe's return to New York he moved towards the Hudson in order to defend the passes in the mountains, in the expectation that a junction with Burgoyne, then upon the lakes, would be attempted.

47. After the British General sailed from New York and entered the Chesapeake in August, Washington marched for the defence of Philadelphia. On the eleventh of September, he was defeated at Brandywine, with the loss of nine hundred in killed and wounded. A few days afterwards, as he was pursued, he turned upon the enemy determined upon another engagement; but a heavy rain so damaged the arms and ammunition, that he was under the absolute necessity of again retreating.

48. Philadelphia was entered by Cornwallis on the twenty sixth of September. On the fourth of October the American commander made an attack upon the British at Germantown; but, in consequence of the darkness of the morning, and the imperfect discipline of his troops

it terminated in the loss of twelve hundred men. In December he went into winter quarters at Valley Forge, on the west side of the Schuylkill, twenty five miles from Philadelphia.

49. Here his army was in the greatest distress for want of provisions, and he was reduced to the necessity of sending out parties to seize what they could find. About the same time a combination, in which some of the members of Congress were engaged, was formed to remove the commander in chief, and to appoint in his place General Gates, whose successes of late had given him a high reputation. But the name of Washington was too dear to the great body of the Americans to admit of such a change.

50. Notwithstanding the discordant materials of which his army was composed there was something in his character which enabled him to attach both officers and soldiers so strongly to him, that no distress could weaken their affection, nor impair the veneration in which he was generally held. Without this attachment to him the army must have been dissolved.

51. General Conway, who was concerned in this faction, being wounded in a duel with General Cadwallader, and thinking his wound mortal, wrote to General Washington, "you are, in my eyes, the great and good man." On the first of February 1778, there were about 4000 men in camp unfit for duty, for want of clothes. Of these, scarcely a man had a pair of shoes. The hospitals also were filled with sick.

52. At this time the enemy if they had marched out of their winter quarters, would easily have dispersed the American army; but the apprehension of the approach of a French fleet induced the British to concentrate their forces, when they evacuated Philadelphia, on the seventeenth of June and marched towards New York. Washington followed them; and, contrary to the advice of a council engaged in the battle of Monmouth on the twenty eighth, the result of which made an impression favourable to the cause of America.

53. He slept in his cloak on the field of battle, intending to renew the attack the next morning, but at midnight, the British marched off in silence: their loss in killed was about 500, and that of the Americans sixty

nine. As the campaign now closed in the middle states, the American army went into winter quarters near the Hudson. Thus, after the vicissitudes of two years, both armies were brought back to the point from which they set out. During the year 1779, Washington remained in the neighborhood of New York.

54. In January, 1780, in a winter memorable for its severity, his utmost exertions were necessary to save the army from dissolution. The soldiers in general submitted with heroic patience to the want of provisions and clothes. Their sufferings at length were so great, that in March two of the Connecticut regiments mutinied, but the mutiny was suppressed, and the ringleaders secured. In September the treachery of Arnold was detected.

55. In the winter of 1781, such were again the privations of the army, that a part of the Pennsylvania line revolted, and marched home. Such however, was still their patriotism, that they delivered up several British emissaries to General Wayne, who hanged them as spies. Committing the defence of the posts on the Hudson to General Heath, Washington in August, marched with count Rochambeau for the Chesapeake, to co-operate with the French fleet there.

56. The siege of Yorktown commenced on the twenty eighth of September, and on the nineteenth of October he reduced Cornwallis to the necessity of surrendering, with upwards of 7000 men, to the combined armies of America and France. The day after the capitulation, he ordered that those who were under arrest, should be pardoned, and that divine service, in acknowledgment of the interposition of Providence, should be performed in all the brigades and divisions. This event filled America with joy, and was the means of terminating the war.

57. Few events of importance took place in 1782. In March, 1783, he exhibited his characteristic firmness and decision, in opposing an attempt to produce a mutiny by anonymous letters. His address to his officers on the occasion displays, in a remarkable degree, his prudence, and the correctness of his judgment. When he began to read them he found himself embarrassed by the imperfection of his sight.

58. Taking out his spectacles he said, "these eyes, my friends, have grown dim, and these locks white, in the

service of my country ; yet I have never doubted her justice." He only could have repressed the spirit which was breaking forth. On the nineteenth of April, a cessation of hostilities was proclaimed in the American camp.

59. In June he addressed a letter to the governors of the several states, congratulating them on the result of the contest in the establishment of independence, and recommending an indissoluble union of the states under one federal head, the adoption of a proper peace establishment, and the prevalence of a friendly disposition among the people of the several states.

60. It was with keen distress, as well as with pride and admiration, that he saw his brave and veteran soldiers, who had suffered so much, and who had borne the heat and burden of the war, returning peaceably to their homes, without a settlement of their accounts, or a farthing of money in their pockets. On the 25th of November, New York was evacuated, and he entered it accompanied by governor Clinton and many respectable citizens.

61. On the 4th of December, he took his farewell of his brave comrades in arms. At noon the principal officers of the army assembled at Francis' tavern, and their beloved commander soon entered the room. His emotions were too strong to be concealed. Filling a glass with wine, he turned to them and said, "With a heart full of love and gratitude, I now take leave of you ; I most devoutly wish that your latter days may be as prosperous and as happy as your former ones have been glorious and honourable."

62. Having drank, he added, "I cannot come to each of you to take my leave, but shall be obliged to you if each of you will come and take me by the hand." General Knox, being nearest, turned to him. Incapable of utterance, Washington grasped his hand and embraced him. In the same affectionate manner he took his leave of each succeeding officer.

63. In every eye was the tear of dignified sensibility, and not a word was articulated to interrupt the silence and the tenderness of the scene. Ye men, who delight in blood, slaves of ambition ! when your work of carnage was finished, could you thus part with your companions in crime ? Leaving the room Washington passed through

the corps of light infantry and walked to Whitehall, where a barge waited to carry him to Powles' hook.

64. The whole company followed in mute procession with dejected countenances. When he entered the barge he turned to them, and waving his hat, bade them a silent adieu, receiving from them the same last affectionate compliment. On the 23d of December, he resigned his commission to Congress, then assembled at Annapolis.

65. He delivered a short address on the occasion, in which he said, "I consider it an indispensable duty to close this last solemn act of my official life by commending the interests of our dearest country to the protection of Almighty God, and those who have the superintendance of them to his holy keeping." He then retired to Mount Vernon, to enjoy again the pleasures of domestic life. Here, the expressions of the gratitude of his countrymen, in affectionate addresses, poured in upon him, and he received every testimony of respect and veneration.

66. In his retirement, however, he could not overlook the public interest. He was desirous of opening by water carriage, a communication between the Atlantic and the western portions of our country, in order to prevent the diversion of trade down the Mississippi, and to Canada, from which he predicted consequences injurious to the union. Through his influence, two companies were formed for promoting inland navigation.

67. In the year 1786, he was convinced with other statesmen, of the necessity of substituting a more vigorous general government in place of the impotent articles of confederation. Still he was aware of the danger of running from one extreme to another. He exclaims, in a letter to Mr. Jay, "What astonishing changes a few years are capable of producing! I am told, that even respectable characters speak of a monarchical form of government without horror.

68. From thinking proceeds speaking; thence to acting is often but a single step. But how irrevocable, and tremendous! What a triumph for our enemies to verify their predictions! What a triumph for the advocates of despotism, to find that we are incapable of governing ourselves, and that systems, founded on the basis of equal liberty, are merely ideal and fallacious!"

69. In the following year, he was persuaded to take a

seat in the convention which formed the present Constitution of the United States, and he presided in that body. In 1789, he was unanimously elected the first president of the United States. It was with great reluctance that he accepted of this office. His feelings, as he said himself, were like those of a culprit going to the place of execution.

70. But the voice of a whole continent, the pressing recommendation of his particular friends, and the apprehension, that he should otherwise be considered as unwilling to hazard his reputation in executing a system which he had assisted in forming, determined him to accept the appointment. In April, he left Mount Vernon to proceed to New York, and to enter on the duties of his high office, and was inaugurated first president of the United States on the thirtieth.

71. In making the necessary arrangements of his household he publicly announced that neither visits of business nor of ceremony would be accepted on *Sunday*, as he wished to reserve that day sacredly to himself. At the close of his first term of four years, he prepared a valedictory address to the American people, anxious to return again to the scenes of domestic life; but the earnest entreaties of his friends and the peculiar situation of his country, induced him to be a candidate for a second election.

72. During his administration of eight years, the labor of establishing the different departments of a new government was accomplished; and he exhibited the greatest firmness, wisdom, and independence. He was an American, and he chose not to involve his country in the contests of Europe. He accordingly, with the unanimous advice of his cabinet, issued a proclamation of neutrality, April 22d, 1793; a few days afterwards, he heard of the commencement of the war between England and France.

73. This measure contributed, in a great degree, to the prosperity of America. Its adoption was the more honorable to the president, as the general sympathy was in favor of the sister republic, against whom it was said Great Britain had commenced the war for the sole purpose of imposing upon her a monarchical form of government. He preferred the peace and welfare of his country, to the breath of popular applause.

74. Another act, in which he proved himself to be less regardful of the public partialities and prejudices, than of what he conceived to be the public good, was the ratification of the British Treaty. The English government had neglected to surrender the western posts, and by commercial restrictions had evinced a hostile spirit towards this country. To avert the calamity of another war, Mr. Jay was nominated as envoy extraordinary, in April, 1794.

75. In June, 1795, the treaty, which Mr. Jay had made was submitted to the senate, and was ratified by that body, on the condition that one article should be altered. While the president was deliberating upon it, an incorrect copy of the instrument was made public by a senator, and the whole country was thrown into a state of extreme irritation. At this period, he conditionally ratified it, and in February 1796, when it was returned from his Britannic majesty, with the proposed alteration, he declared it to be the law of the land.

76. After this transaction, the house of representatives requested him to lay before them the papers relating to the treaty, but he with great independence, refused to comply with their request, as they could have no claim to an inspection of them, except upon a vote of impeachment, and as a compliance would establish a dangerous precedent.

77. As the period for a new election of a president of the United States approached, and after plain indications that the public voice would be in his favor, and when he would probably be chosen for the third time unanimously, he determined irrevocably to withdraw to the shades of private life. He published in September, 1796, his farewell address to the people of the United States, which ought to be engraven upon the hearts of his countrymen.

78. In the most earnest and affectionate manner, he called upon them to cherish an immoveable attachment to the national union, to watch for its preservation with jealous anxiety, to discountenance even the suggestion that it could in any event be abandoned, and indignantly to frown upon the first dawning of every attempt to alienate any portion of our country from

the rest. Overgrown military establishments he represented as particularly hostile to republican liberty.

79. While he recommended the most implicit obedience to the acts of the established government, and reprobated all obstructions to the execution of the laws, all combinations and associations, under whatever plausible character, with the real design to direct, controul, counteract, or awe the regular deliberation and action of the constituted authorities; he wished also to guard against the spirit of innovation upon the principles of the constitution.

80. Aware that the energy of the system might be enfeebled by alterations, he thought that no change should be made without an evident necessity; and that, in so extensive a country as much vigor as is consistent with liberty, is indispensable. On the other hand he pointed out the danger of a real despotism by breaking down the partitions between the several departments of government, by destroying the reciprocal checks, and consolidating the different powers.

81. Against the spirit of party, so peculiarly baleful in an elective government, he uttered the most solemn remonstrances, as well as against inveterate antipathies or passionate attachments in respect to foreign nations. While he thought that the jealousy of a free people ought to be constantly and impartially awake, against the insidious evils of foreign influence, he wished that good faith and justice should be observed towards all nations, and peace and harmony cultivated.

82. In his opinion, honesty, no less in public than in private affairs, was always the best policy. Providence, he believed, had connected the permanent felicity of a nation with its virtue. Other subjects, to which he alluded, were the importance of credit, of economy, of a reduction of the public debt, and of literary institutions; above all, he recommended religion and morality as indispensably necessary to political prosperity.

83. "In vain," says he "would that man claim the tribute of patriotism, who should labour to subvert these great pillars of human happiness, these firmest props of the duties of men and citizens." Bequeathing these counsels to his countrymen, he continued in office until the 4th of March, 1797, when he attended the inauguration

of his successor, Mr. Adams, and, with complacency, saw him invested with the powers which had for so long a time been exercised by himself.

84. He then retired to Mount Vernon, giving to the world an example, most humiliating to its emperors and kings; the example of man, voluntarily disrobing himself of the highest authority, and returning to private life with a character leaving upon it no stain of ambition, of covetousness, of profusion, of luxury, of oppression, or of injustice.

85. It was now that the soldier, the statesman, and the patriot, hoped to repose himself after the toils of so many years. But he had not been long in retirement before the outrages of republican France induced our government to raise an army, of which in July, 1798, he was appointed commander in chief. Though he accepted the appointment, his services were not demanded.

86. Pacific overtures were soon made by the French Directory, but he did not live to see the restoration of peace. On Friday, December 13th, 1799, while attending to some improvements on his estate, he was exposed to a light rain. Unapprehensive of danger, he passed the afternoon in his usual manner, but at night was seized with an inflammatory affection of the wind-pipe, which terminated his existence at half past eleven on Saturday night.

87. Thus, on the 14th of December, 1799, in the sixty eighth year of his age, died the Father of his country; "the man, first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen." This event spread a gloom over the country, and the tears of America proclaimed the services and virtues of the hero and sage, and exhibited a people not insensible to his worth. The senate of the United States, in an address to the president, on this melancholy occasion, indulged their patriotic pride, while they did not transgress the bounds of truth, in speaking of their WASHINGTON.

88. General Washington was rather above the common stature; his frame was robust, and his constitution vigorous. His exterior created in the beholder the idea of strength, united with manly gracefulness. His eyes were of a grey color, and his complexion light. His manners were rather reserved than free. His person and whole

department, exhibited an unaffected and indescribable dignity, unmingled with haughtiness, of which, all who approached him were sensible.

89. The attachment of those who possessed his friendship was ardent, but always respectful. His temper was humane, benevolent, and conciliatory; but there was a quickness in his sensibility to any thing apparently offensive, which experience had taught him to watch and correct. He made no pretensions to vivacity or wit. Judgment, rather than genius, constituted the most prominent feature in his character. As a military man he was brave, enterprising and cautious.

90. He also possessed a firmness of resolution, which neither dangers nor difficulties could shake. In his civil administration, he exhibited repeated proofs of that practical good sense, of that sound judgment, which is the most valuable quality of the human mind. More than once, he put his whole popularity at hazard, in pursuing measures which were dictated by a sense of duty, and which he thought would promote the welfare of his country.

91. General Washington was blessed with abundant wealth, and he was not ignorant of the pleasure of employing it for generous purposes. His style of living was dignified, though he maintained the strictest economy. While he was in the army, he wrote thus to the superintendent of his estate; "Let the hospitality of the house be kept up with regard to the poor. Let no one go hungry away. If any of this sort of people should be in want of corn, supply their necessities, provided it does not encourage them in idleness. I have no objections to your giving my money in charity, when you think it will be well bestowed; I mean, that it is my desire it should be done.

92. You are to consider, that neither myself nor my wife are in the way to do these good offices." Thus was he beneficent, while at the same time, he required an exact compliance with engagements. A pleasing proof of the generous spirit which governed him, is exhibited in his conduct towards the son of his friend, the marquis De La Fayette. The marquis, after fighting in this country for American liberty, returned to France; but in the convulsions of the French revolution, he was exiled and imprisoned in Germany.

93. General Washington gave evidence of sincere attachment to the unhappy nobleman, not only by exerting all his influence to procure his release from confinement, but by extending his patronage to his son, who made his escape from France, and arrived with his tutor, at Boston, in 1795. As soon as he was informed of his arrival, he wrote to a friend, requesting him to visit the young gentleman, and make him acquainted with the relations between this country and France, which would prevent the president of the United States from publicly espousing his interest, but to assure him of his protection and support.

94. He also directed his friend to draw upon him for monies to defray all the expenses which young La Fayette might incur. Towards his slaves, General Washington manifested the greatest care and kindness. Their servitude lay with weight upon his mind, and he directed in his will, that they should be emancipated on the decease of his wife. There were insuperable difficulties in the way of their receiving freedom previous to this event.

95. On the death of Mrs. Washington, May 22, 1802, the estate of General Washington, as he had no children, was divided according to his will among his and her relations. It amounted, by his own estimate, to more than five hundred thousand dollars. The death of our illustrious chief, created almost universal interest, and the noblest exertions of historians, poets, and artists, were called into action on this great event.

96. At Birmingham, (England), a handsome medal of the great Washington was struck off and widely circulated. Round the profile were these words. George Washington, ob. 14 December, 1799, aged 68. On the reverse was the figure of Fame with her trumpet, having this inscription encircled with oak and laurel, *Emancipator of America*. This real patriot, considered either in his military or legislative capacity, possessed a degree of merit which surpasses the powers of commendation. His prudence and fortitude throughout the American war, and his wisdom and moderation during the period of his presidency, entitle him to the reverence and gratitude of succeeding generations.

97. Sweet Peace! do thou *his* relics keep,
 With olives blooming round thy head;
 And stretch thy wings across the deep,
 To bless the nations with the shade!

98. Stand on the pile, immortal Fame,
 Broad stars adorn thy brightest robe;
 Thy thousand voices sound his name,
 In silver accents round the globe!

99. Flattery shall faint beneath the sound,
 While hoary truth inspires the song;
 Envy grow pale and bite the ground,
 And slander gnaw her forked tongue!

100. Night and the grave, remove your gloom,
 Darkness becomes the vulgar dead!
 But glory bids the patriot tomb,
 Disdain the horrors of a shade!

101. Glory with all her lamps shall burn,
 And watch the warrior's sleeping clay;
 Till the last trumpet rouse *his* urn,
 To aid the triumphs of the day!

Note. The Allegany, or Appalachian, are a range of mountains between the Atlantic, the Mississippi, and the Lakes, extending through Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina. The principal ridges are the Blue Ridge, North Mountain, Laurel Ridge, Jackson's Mountain, and the Kittatinny Mountains, a part of which is in New Jersey.

The Monongahela river rises west of the Laurel Ridge, in Virginia, near the head waters of the Potomac. The Allegany river rises in the north part of Pennsylvania, and after running two hundred miles, in a south west direction, meets the Monongahela at Pittsburgh, where they form the Ohio river. Both of these rivers are navigable for some distance above Pittsburgh. The Delaware rises in the state of New York, and falls into the ocean through Delaware Bay. It is navigable for the largest ships to Philadelphia.

The Chesapeake is one of the largest bays in the

world. Its entrance, between capes Charles and Henry, in Virginia, is twelve miles wide; its extent is two hundred miles to the north, dividing, for a considerable distance, Virginia from Maryland. It receives the Potomac, Rappahannoc, York, James, Patuxent, Petapsco, and Susquehannah rivers from the western shore; and on the eastern side, the Elk, Choptank, Nanticoke, Wicomico, and other smaller rivers. It embosoms several large and well cultivated islands. The river Schuylkill rises in Pennsylvania, and after a course of one hundred and forty miles falls into the Delaware six miles below Philadelphia.

Questions.

- Where are the Allegany or Appalachian mountains?
 What is their extent?
 Where is the source of the Monongahela river?
 Where of the Allegany river?
 What rivers unite to form the Ohio?
 Where do they unite?
 Where is the source and mouth of Delaware river?
 Between what capes is the entrance of Chesapeake bay?
 What is the distance between these capes?
 What is the extent of this Bay?
 What states does it divide for a considerable distance?
 What are the names of some of the principal rivers that fall into this Bay?

THE RIVER GANGES.—*Rees.*

1. BOTH in magnitude and extent, the Ganges is a most noble and majestic river. It rises in the kingdom of Thibet, entering Hindostan about the thirtieth degree of north latitude, and runs first southeastward by the cities of Bikaner, Minapor, Halabes, Benares and Patna to Rajah Mahl, where it divides into two branches. The eastern having passed by Dakka, the capital of Bengal, enters the gulph of that name about Chatigan.

2. The western descending by Kossun-bazar and Hughly, falls into the gulph below Chandernagor towards Pipeli. Many of the Jews and ancient Christians believed this river to be the Pison, one of the four mentioned in Scripture as the boundaries of the terrestrial paradise.

3. The length of the Ganges exceeds 1400 miles. The Burrampooter, its proudest auxiliary, is nearly of the same length; and the general opinion is, that the sources of these mighty rivers are not far distant from each other. Each of them runs, however, nearly 1000 miles, before they unite and constitute one common stream, falling into the bay of Bengal by several mouths. Ganga in the Hindostan language is a general term for a river; but it is particularly applied to this one on account of its unrivalled magnificence.

4. The Hindoos have a superstitious veneration for all the great rivers which fertilize their country; but the waters of the Ganges are to them peculiarly sacred. In its impetuous course it opens a passage through Mount Himmeleh, and again appears amidst impending rocks, which resemble, on an immense scale, the head of a cow, an animal equally esteemed by the Hindoos, as was the Apis or sacred ox among the Egyptians; their religious awe for the Ganges is, on that account, much enhanced.

5. No river in the world imparts greater benefits to the countries through which it passes; for, by annually overflowing its banks, like the Nile, it waters and enriches the country to an extent of one hundred miles in breadth. The Hindoos, having deified this river, make it an act of their religion to perform a pilgrimage to it, supposing its waters purify from defilement such as bathe in them.

6. On its slimy shore they bury their dead, and also remove those who are at the point of death to its banks, or to those of some of the creeks which run into it. On certain festivals, a concourse of more than 100,000 persons assemble to bathe in the Ganges, on the banks of which are a great number of superb and immensely rich pagodas.

7. But what principally distinguishes this river, besides its greatness and rapidity, is the gold it brings down in its sands and throws on the banks; and the precious stones and pearls it produces. The Chun, or Jemma, the Guder-

asu, the Persilis, Lakia, and several other rivers, discharge into the Ganges.

Note. Thibet is a country of Asia; bounded on the north by the desert of Kobi, in Tartary, east by China, south by Burmah and west by Hindostan Proper. This country is one of the highest of Asia, and gives rise not only to the rivers of India and China, but to those also of Siberia and Tartary. Bengal is a country of Hindostan, 700 miles in length and 300 in breadth, containing 11,000,000, inhabitants. Its capital is Calcutta.—Mount Himmeleh is a vast chain of Mountains in Asia, which extends from Cabul along the north of Hindostan, to the river Testa.

Questions.

Where is the river Ganges?

Where is its source?

Into what gulph does it discharge its waters?

What regard have the Hindoos for this river?

What is the situation of Thibet?

Of what extent?

What rivers have their source in Thibet?

Where is Mount Himmeleh or, Himalaya?

ANCIENT POMPEII.—*Brewster.*

1. POMPEII was a great and rich town, which, after lying eighteen centuries in a deep grave, is again shone on by the sun, and stands amidst other cities, as much a stranger as any one of its former inhabitants would be among his descendants of the present day—such a town has not its equal in the world.

2. The distance from Naples to Pompeii is little more than ten English miles. Near the Torre dell' Annuziatta, to the left, and amid hills planted with vineyards, the town itself, which, throwing off its shroud of ashes, came forth from its grave, breaks on the view. The buildings are without roofs, which are supposed to have been destroyed by enemies in an unguarded state, or torn

off by a hurricane. The tracks of the wheels which anciently rolled over the pavement are still visible.

3. An elevated path runs by the side of the houses, for foot passengers; and, to enable them in rainy weather to pass more commodiously to the opposite side, large flat stones, three of which take up the width of the road, were laid at a distance from each other. As the carriages, in order to avoid these stones, were obliged to use the intermediate spaces, the tracks of the wheels are there most visible. The whole of the pavement is in good condition; it consists merely of considerable pieces of lava which, however, are not cut, as at present, into squares, and may have been on that account the more durable.

4. The part which was first cleared, is supposed to have been the main street of Pompeii; but this is much to be doubted, as the houses on both sides, with the exception of a few, were evidently the habitations of common citizens, and were small and provided with booths. The street itself likewise is narrow: two carriages only could go abreast; and it is very uncertain whether it ran through the whole of the town; for, from the spot where the moderns discontinued digging, to where they recommenced, and where the same street is supposed to have been again found, a wide tract is covered with vineyards, which may very well occupy the places of the most splendid streets and markets, still concealed underneath.

5. Among the objects which attract particular attention, is a booth in which liquors were sold, and the marble table within, which bears the marks of the cups left by the drinkers. Next to this is a house, the threshold of which is inlaid by a salutation of a black stone as a token of hospitality. On entering the habitations, the visitor is struck by the strangeness of their construction. The middle of the house forms a square, something like the cross passages of a cloister, often surrounded by pillars: it is cleanly, and paved with party-coloured mosaic, which has an agreeable effect.

6. In the middle is a cooling well; and on each side, a little chamber, about ten or twelve feet square, but lofty, and painted with a fine red or yellow. The floor is of mosaic; and the door is made generally to serve as a window, there being but one apartment which receives light through a thick blue glass. Many of these rooms

are supposed to have been bed chambers, because there is an elevated broad step, on which the bed may have stood, and because some of the pictures appear most appropriate to a sleeping room.

7. Others are supposed to have been dressing rooms, on this account, that on the walls a Venus is described decorated by the Graces, added to which little flasks and boxes of various descriptions have been found in them. The larger of these apartments served for dining rooms, and in some there are suitable accommodations for cold and hot baths.

8. The manner in which a whole room was heated, is particularly curious. Against the usual wall a second was erected, standing a little distance from the first. For this purpose large square-tiles were taken, having, like our tiles, a sort of hook, so that they kept the first wall, as it were from them; a hollow space was thus left all around, from the top to the bottom, into which pipes were introduced, that carried the warmth into the chamber, and as it were, rendered the whole of the place one stove.

9. The ancients were also attentive to avoid the vapour or smell from their lamps. In some houses there is a niche made in the wall for the lamp with a little chimney in the form of a funnel through which the smoke ascended. Opposite to the house door the largest room is placed; it is properly a sort of hall, for it has but three walls being quite open in the fore part. The side rooms have no connexion with each other, but are divided off like the cells of monks, the door of each leading to a fountain.

10. Most of the houses consist of one such square surrounded by rooms. In a few, some decayed steps seem to have led to an upper story, which is no longer in existence. Some habitations, however, probably belonging to the richer and more fashionable, are far more spacious. In these a first court is often connected with a second, and even with a third, by passages: in other respects their arrangements are similar to those above described. Many garlands of flowers and vine branches and many handsome pictures are still to be seen on the walls.

11. The guides were formerly permitted to sprinkle these pictures with fresh water, in the presence of trav-

ellers and thus revive their former splendour for a moment; but this is now strictly forbidden; and indeed, not without reason, since the frequent watering might at length totally rot away the wall. One of the houses belonged to a statuary, whose workshop is still full of the vestiges of his art. Another appears to have been inhabited by a surgeon, whose profession is equally evident from the instruments discovered in his chamber.

12. A large country house near the gate, undoubtedly belonged to a very wealthy man, and would, in fact, still invite inhabitants within its walls. It is very extensive, stands against a hill, and has many stories. Its finely decorated rooms are unusually spacious, and it has airy terraces from which you look down into a pretty garden, which has been now again planted with flowers. In the middle of this garden is a large fish pond, and near that an ascent from which, on two sides, six pillars descend. The hinder pillars are the highest, the middle somewhat lower, and the front the lowest; they appear, therefore, rather to have propped a sloping roof, than to have been destined for an arbour.

13. A covered passage, resting on pillars, encloses the garden on three sides; it was painted, and probably served in rainy weather, as an agreeable walk. Beneath is a fine arched cellar, which receives air and light by several openings from without; consequently its atmosphere is so pure, that in the hottest part of summer it is always refreshing.—A number of large wine vessels are to be seen here, still leaning against the wall, as the butler left them when he carried up the last goblet of wine to his master.

14. Had the inhabitants of Pompeii preserved these vessels with stoppers wine might still have been found in them; but as it was, the stream of ashes running in, of course forced out the wine. More than twenty human skeletons of fugitives, who thought to save themselves here under ground, but who experienced a tenfold more cruel death than those suffered in the open air, were found in this cellar. The destiny of the Pompeians must have been dreadful. It was not a stream of fire that encompassed their dwellings—they could then have sought refuge in flight. Neither did an earthquake swallow

them up; sudden suffocation would then have spared them the pangs of a lingering death.

15. *A rain of ashes buried them alive by degrees!* We will read the delineation of Pliny the younger:—A darkness suddenly overspread the country: but like that of a closed room, in which the light is of a sudden extinguished. Women screamed, children moaned, men cried. Here children were anxiously calling their parents; and there parents were anxiously seeking their children or husbands their wives; all recognized each other only by their cries.—The former lamented their own fate, and the latter that of those dearest to them. Many wished for death from the fear of dying. Many called on the gods for assistance; others despaired of the existence of the gods, and thought this the last eternal night of the world.

16. Actual dangers were magnified by unreal terrors. The earth continued to shake, and men, half distracted, to reel about, exaggerating their own fears and those of others, by terrifying predictions." Such is the frightful, but true picture which Pliny gives us of the horror of those who were, however, far from the extremity of their misery. But what must have been the feelings of the Pompeians, when the roaring of the mountain, and the quaking of the earth, awakened them from their first sleep?

17. They also attempted to escape the wrath of the gods; and seizing the most valuable things they could lay their hands upon in the darkness and confusion, to seek their safety in flight. In this street and in front of the house marked with the friendly salutation on its threshold, seven skeletons were found; the first carried a lamp, and the rest had still between the bones of their fingers something that they wished to save. On a sudden they were overtaken by the storm which descended from heaven and buried in the grave thus made for them.

18. Before the above mentioned country house, was still a male skeleton, standing with a dish in his hand; and as he wore on his finger one of those rings which were allowed to be worn by Roman Knights only, he is supposed to have been the master of the house, who had just opened the back garden gate, with the intent of fleeing, when the shower overwhelmed him. Several skeletons were found in the very posture in which they breathed their last, without having been forced by the ag-

onies of death to drop the thing they had in their hands. This leads to a conjecture, that the thick mass of ashes must have come down all at once, in such immense quantities as instantly to cover them.

19. It cannot otherwise be imagined how the fugitives could all have been fixed, as it were by a charm in their position; and in this manner their destiny was the less dreadful, seeing that death suddenly converted them into motionless statues, and thus was stripped of all the horrors with which the fears of the sufferers had clothed him in imagination. But what then must have been the pitiable condition of those who had taken refuge in the buildings and cellars? Buried in the thickest darkness they were secluded from every thing but lingering torment; and who can paint to himself without shuddering, a slow dissolution approaching amid all the agonies of body and mind? The soul recoils from the contemplation of such images.

20. To proceed now to public edifices. The temple of Isis is still standing, with its Doric pillars, and its walls painted, with emblems of the service of the deity, such as the hippopotamus, cocoa-blossom, ibis, &c. The sacred vessels, lamps, and table of Isis, are still to be seen. From a little chapel withinside, a poisonous vapour is said formerly to have arisen, which the heathen priests may have used for every species of deception. This vapour is said to have increased, after the violent eruption of Vesuvius; but has not latterly given out the slightest smell.

21. A small Grecian temple, of which only two pillars remain, had been probably already destroyed by an earthquake, which in the reign of Titus, preceded the dreadful eruption of the volcano. On the opposite side of this temple, there is still an edifice called the quarters of the soldiers because all sorts of arms, pictures of soldiers, and a skeleton in chains were found there. By others it has been considered the forum of Pompeii.

22. Two theatres, the smaller one in particular, are in an excellent state of preservation. The structure of this one is such as was usually adopted by the ancients, and is well deserving of modern imitation, as it affords the spectators commodious seats, a free view of the stage, and facility of hearing. It was sufficiently large to con-

tain two thousand persons, the plebians standing in a broad gallery at the top being quite as able to see all that was passing on the stage, as the magistrate, in his marble balcony.

23. In this gallery, the arrangements for spreading the sail cloth over the spectators are still visible. The stage itself is very broad, as it has no side walls, and appears less deep than it really is. A wall runs across it, and cuts off just as much room as is necessary for the accommodation of the performers. But this wall has three very broad doors; the middle one is distinguished by its height, and the space behind it, is still deeper than in front. If these doors, as may be conjectured, always stood open, the stage was in fact large and afforded besides, the advantage of being able to display a double scenery: if, for example, the scene in front was that of a street, there might have been behind a free prospect into the open field.

24. The cemetery lies before the gate of the high road. The tomb of the priestess Mammea is very remarkable; it was erected, according to the epitaph, by virtue of a decree of the Decemvirs. In the midst of little boxes of stones, in square piles, and on a sort of altar, the family urns were placed in niches; and, without side these piles the broken masks are still to be seen. In front of the cemetery, by the road side, is a beautiful seat, forming a semicircle that will contain from twenty to thirty persons. It probably was overshadowed by trees eighteen hundred years ago: under which the women of Pompeii sat in the cool evenings, while their children played before them, and viewed the crowds, which were passing through the gate.

25. To the above particulars from the pen of the elegant and lively Kotzebue, the following details given by a late, very accurate traveller, are subjoined. The entrance into Pompeii is by a quadrangular court, nearly of the size of the railed part of our Leicester Square. This court is surrounded on every side by a colonnade which supports the roof of a gallery; and the latter leads to several small apartments, not unlike the cells of a prison. The columns are of brick, stuccoed over, and painted of a deep red: they are in height from ten to twelve feet; are placed at about a like distance from each other; and are of the

Doric order, fluted, two thirds from the top, and well proportioned.

26. After a variety of conjectures relative to the purpose to which this building was applied, it has been ascertained that it was either a barrack for soldiers (various pieces of armour being found in the cells) or the prætorium of the Governor, where a body of military must have been stationed. Adjacent to it stood the theatres, the forum, and one or two temples, all connected by very neat and well paved courts.

27. The smaller of the theatres is to the right and is called the covered theatre, because it was so constructed, that, by the means of canvass awnings, the spectators were defended from the sun and rain. A door through the wall leads to the different galleries, and to the open space in the centre, resembling the pit of a modern theatre. The interior is beautifully neat; and, with the exception of the spoliation of the marble slabs, removed to the palace at Portici, with which the whole of the inside, not excepting the seats, had been covered, in excellent preservation.

28. On each side are the seats for the magistrates; the orchestra, as in modern theatres, is in front of the stage, and the latter, with its brick wings is very shallow. This theatre was calculated to contain about two thousand spectators. From its level, a staircase leads to an eminence on which several public buildings are situated. The most conspicuous of these is a small temple said to have been dedicated to Isis, and having a secret passage, perforated in two places, whence the priests are supposed to have delivered to the deluded multitude the oracles of that deity.

29. Within a paved court, is an altar, of a round shape on the one side, and on the other side a well. A cistern, with four apertures, was placed at a small distance, to facilitate the procuring of water. In this court, sacrifices and other holy rites are conjectured to have taken place; various utensils for sacrifices, such as lamps, tripods, &c. having been found when the place was first excavated. One of the tripods is of most admirable workmanship. On each of the three legs, a beautiful sphinx, with an unusual head-dress, is placed, probably in allusion to the hidden

meanings of the oracles, which were delivered in the above mentioned temple.

30. The hoop, in which the basin for the coals was sunk, is elegantly decorated with rams' heads connected by garlands of flowers; and within the basin, which is of baked earth, the very cinders, left from the last sacrifice (nearly two thousand years ago) are seen as fresh as if they had been the remains of yesterday's fire!

31. From the above court you enter on a somewhat larger, with a stone pulpit in the centre, and stone seats near the walls. The spot, therefore, was either the auditory of a philosopher, or the place where the public orators plead in the presence of the people. Every thing here is in the highest order and preservation.

32. The great amphitheatre proudly rears its walls over every other edifice on the same elevated spot. It is a stupendous structure, and has twenty four rows of seats, the circumference of the lowest of which is about 750 feet. It is estimated to have contained about 30,000 spectators. The upper walls are much injured, having partially projected above ground long before the discovery of Pompeii.

33. A corn field leads to the excavated upper end of the high street, which consists of a narrow road for carts, with foot pavements on each side. The middle is paved with large blocks of marble, and the ruts of the wheels proclaim its antiquity, even at the time of its being overwhelmed. The foot paths are elevated about a foot and a half above the level of the carriage road. The houses on each side, whether shops or private buildings, have no claim to external elegance: they consist of a ground floor only, and, with the exception of the door, have no opening towards the street.

34. The windows of the private houses look into an inner square court, and are in general very high. The apartments themselves are, with the exception of one in each house, which probably served as a drawing room, both low and diminutive. In point of decoration, they are neat, and in many instances, elegant; the floors generally consist of figured pavements, either in larger stones of various colours, regularly cut and systematically disposed, or are formed of a beautiful mosaic, with a fanciful border, and an animal or figure in the centre.

55. The geometrical lines and figures in the designs of the borders, have an endless variety of the most pleasing shapes, to display the fertile imagination of the artists. The tessellated pavements alone must convince us that the ancients were well skilled in geometry. The ground is usually white, and the ornaments black : but other colours are often employed with increased effect.

56. The walls of the apartments are equally, if not still more deserving attention. They are painted, either in compartments, exhibiting either some mythological or historical event, or simply covered over with a light ground, adorned with a border, and perhaps an elegant little vignette in the centre or at equal distances. But few of the historical paintings now exist in Pompeii ; for wherever a wall was found to contain a tolerable picture, it was removed and deposited in the museum at Portici.

57. To effect this, the greatest care and ingenuity were required, so as to peel off, by the means of sawing, large pieces of the wall, twenty and more square feet in extent, without destroying the picture. This, however, was not a modern invention ; for among the excavated remains of Stabiac, the workmen came to an apartment containing paintings which had been separated by the ancients themselves from a wall, with the obvious intent of their being introduced in another place. This was prevented however by the ruin of the city ; and the paintings, therefore, were found leaning against the walls of the apartment.

58. Another excavated portion of Pompeii is likewise part of a street, and, being perfectly in a line with the one already described, is conjectured to be a continuation, or rather the extremity of the latter ; in which case Pompeii must have been a city of considerable importance, and its main street nearly a mile in length. The houses here, as in the other instance, are distributed into shops and private dwellings ; some of the latter of which are distinguished by the remains of former internal elegance, such as tessellated pavements, painted walls, &c. ; most of them have likewise an interior court, surrounded by apartments.

Note. Pliny, the elder, one of the most learned Roman writers, was born twenty three years after Christ, and was suffocated by the smoke of Vesuvius, in the year 79 ; occasioned by the same eruption that overwhelmed Port-

peii.—The Decemviri were a committee of ten noblemen of Rome, who governed when the consuls were deposed.

EGYPT.—*Goldsmith.*

1. THE Egyptians though adjacent to the Arabs, and governed in general by similar laws, and professing the same religion, are very different in their manners and customs. They are distinguished into three classes, namely, the Copts, who are natives of the country, and Christians, the Turks, and the Arabs. The women are very brown, but have lively eyes, their stature is above the middle size and their conversation is exceedingly tiresome. The men are of good size.

2. The higher we ascend from Cairo, the natives become more tawny, till we arrive at the confines of Nubia, where they are almost black. Idleness and cowardice are said to be the principal vices of the Egyptians. Their chief employment through the day is drinking coffee, smoking tobacco, sleeping, and lounging about the streets. They are very ignorant, and yet they are puffed up with a fantastical vanity.

3. Though they acknowledge that they have lost their ancient dignity, their skill in science, and in arms, their history, and even their oriental language, and that from a valiant and illustrious nation, they have degenerated into slavery and cowardice, yet such is the haughtiness of their disposition, that they affect to despise all other nations, and are exceedingly offended when any person advises them to send their children into Europe, to be instructed in the arts and sciences.

Section 2. Of the Dress, Manner of Salutation, Method of Travelling, and Houses of the Egyptians.

4. The most simple dress of the men in Egypt consists only of a long shirt with wide sleeves, tied round the middle. The common people wear over this a brown woollen shirt, but those of better condition, a long cloth coat, covered with a blue shirt hanging down to the middle of the leg. On festivals, and all extraordinary occa-

sions, the upper shirt is white. They wear about their necks a blue cloth, with which they defend their heads from the severity of the weather. It is also a general custom among the merchants, to wear a large blanket, either white or brown in the winter; and in summer a blue and white cotton sheet thrown over the left shoulder.

5. The dress of the women is not much unlike that of the men, only most of their garments are of silk. It being reckoned highly improper for a woman to shew the whole face, they generally cover the mouth and one eye. The Mahometans salute each other by kissing the hand, putting it to the head and wishing peace. The salutation of the Arabs is by shaking hands, and bowing the head. Among the Copts, a man dare not sit down in the presence of his father, especially in public company, without being desired several times, and in no place of the world do people pay greater regard to the motions of their superiors.

6. On a journey the Egyptians set out early in the morning, walk their horses gently, and often stop to refresh under a shade. If they do not travel in state, they carry a leathern bottle of water tied to the saddle; but a person in the higher ranks has an attending camel laden with water. At night they have large lanterns, stretched upon wires carried before them. They seldom make use of tents, but lie in the open air. Men of quality ride on a saddled camel, and their attendants on camels loaded with carpets, beds, and other necessaries, if their journey be long.

7. They commonly carry in their hands a double crook, to direct the beast, and to recover the bridle if it chance to drop. Some of the women whose circumstances admit of it, travel in litters carried by camels; another method of conveyance is by means of a round basket, with a cover slung on each side of a camel.

8. The best houses in Egypt, especially at Cairo, are built upon a quadrangular structure. The Saloon is built in the shape of a Greek cross, with a cupola in the middle. It is wainscotted ten feet high, and the panels shine with mother-of-pearl, blue, small, fine marble, and elegant pieces of mosaic workmanship. Above the wainscoting are inscriptions in Arabic, all round the apartment, and the whole is crowned with arches of

mosaic and mother-of-pearl. The room is surrounded by a sofa, furnished with rich velvet cushions, and the floor is covered with fine carpets.

Section 3. Of the Egyptian Form of Government.

9. The government of Egypt is an aristocracy, partly civil and partly military. Under the protection, rather than the authority, of the Sultan of Constantinople; a Divan or sovereign council exercises the supreme authority both executive and legislative. Even the revenue of the Sultan is rather a tribute paid to a protector than a tax levied by a sovereign. It is besides, so moderate, that the necessary expenses of government consume it entirely in Egypt, and the trunk in which it is pompously conveyed to Constantinople generally arrives there almost empty.

10. Cairo is continually subject to convulsions and jarring factions, and the leading men retain troops to decide their differences by force of arms. The mutual jealousies of the chiefs seem to be the only causes which still preserve to the Porte the shadow of authority over Egypt. The members of the aristocracy are all afraid of losing their influence under a resident sovereign, and, therefore they agree in opposing the elevation of any of their own body to the supreme dignity.

11. The Grand Seignior sends always a Pacha to exercise his precarious authority in Egypt, in the character of governor, who is entirely dependant on the Egyptian Divan. The chief Cadi of Cairo is succeeded almost every year by another from Constantinople, who is named by the Sultan on the recommendation of the Mufti. Except these two, the Sultan appoints no other officers in Egypt, unless indirectly. The Divan consists of twenty four Beys or Governors of districts, fourteen chief officers of the troops, and a number of people of the law.

12. The offices of Grand Treasurer and Governor of Cairo, are likewise held by members of this body. They entertain guards and bodies of soldiers as well for their personal security, as to enforce obedience through the districts under their government. What seems very extraordinary is that the Beys, and principal people were all originally christian slaves, whom the great men buy and

educate, and afterwards, if they give proof of superior talents, procure them employments in the army, from whence they gradually rise to the first offices in the state.

13. The members of this aristocracy are extremely haughty; when M. Niebuhr was in Egypt a few years ago, no Christian or Jew might appear on horseback. They rode only on asses, and were obliged to alight upon meeting the most inconsiderable Egyptian lord. These lords appear always on horseback, with a servant before them, who, with a great staff in his hand, warns the riders on asses to shew due marks of respect to his master, crying out, *ensil*, get down. If the infidel fail to give instant obedience, he is beaten till he alight.

Sect. 4. Of the diversions of the Egyptians.

14. The Turks of distinction, who are still attached to the military institutions of the nation, amuse themselves chiefly with equestrian exercises. The principal inhabitants of Cairo meet twice a week in a large square, with a number of attendants on horseback. In this square they play at gerid; which consists in running by two and two, with the stirrups loose, pursuing one another, and tossing staves four feet long; these are thrown with such violence, that if a person be not upon his guard, he is in danger of having an arm or leg broken. Others shoot the bow, an exercise in such repute, that pillars are erected in honor of those who exhibit extraordinary proofs of strength or dexterity in launching the arrows.

15. When the Nile is at its greatest height, the principal people about Cairo divert themselves in little boats, splendidly decked out, upon the *Birkets*, in the middle of the city. Upon this occasion they regale themselves with music, and often with fire works. The common people and peasants divert themselves with cudgel-playing. There are gladiators by profession, who exhibit in public. But staves are their only weapon, with a small cushion fastened under their left arm. The diversions of the young people are similar to those practised in European countries.

16. Public festivals are celebrated in Egypt with much pomp and ceremony, particularly the festival upon the departure of the pilgrims for Mecca. Each mosque ce-

celebrates a feast in honour of its founder, on which occasion there is a prodigious procession of persons of all ranks; and the people at large are allowed to divert themselves in an adjoining square. The festivals are sometimes celebrated in the night.

17. The streets are then illuminated by the blaze of resinous wood in a chafing dish held up on a long pole. They use also another more luminous flambeau, which is a machine consisting of divers pieces of light wood, to which are hung a number of small lamps, and the whole is carried on a long pole, as the former.

18. In Egypt, and several other eastern countries, the favorite amusement of persons in any degree above the lowest class, is, to spend the evening in a public coffee-house, where they hear musicians, singers, and tale-tellers, who frequent those houses in order to earn a trifle by the exercise of their respective arts. In those places of public amusement, the Orientals maintain a profound silence, and often sit whole evenings without uttering a single word. They are passionately fond of the game of chess, and will spend whole days at it without interruption.

19. A respectable Mahometan, who should indulge in dancing, would disgrace himself in the estimation of his countrymen. The women, however, value themselves in this exercise, and practise it without scruple, reckoning it their duty to contribute to the pleasures of their husbands by every little art in their power. No woman would presume to appear in an assembly, if she were not handsome and magnificently dressed. If the entertainment happen to be in the house of a family of rank, fifty or more of the greatest beauties in the city assemble, all dressed out in great splendor.

20. In their train, they bring their handsomest slaves, who attend in a separate room to take care of the coffers containing their mistresses' clothes. After the ladies have been seated for some time, and have been served with refreshments, young girls are called in to divert the company with vocal and instrumental music. The most distinguished lady then rises, dances for a few minutes, and passes into the next apartment, where her slaves are in waiting to change her dress.

21. She lays all aside, even her slippers embroidered with gold and silver, and retains only her head-dress and

bracelets, which are richly ornamented with jewels. In the mean time the rest dance, and in their turns leave the room to change their dress; and this is successively repeated, so long, that a lady will sometimes change her dress ten times in one night, and put on so many different suits, every one richer than the former.

22. Plays are very rarely exhibited in Cairo, but puppet-shows are to be met with in almost every street. The magic lantern is also a favorite amusement. Jugglers are to be seen in almost every square or public place, but they are not remarkable for the feats which they exhibit. Monkeys, dressed up like human beings, contribute to the amusement of the populace; these animals are naturally fond of music.

23. A captain in the East-India service, has asserted, that he frequently made his drums enter ruinous pagodas, where monkeys were the sole inhabitants; and that at the sound of martial music, even the mothers with the young in their arms, left their holes, and some hundreds of these creatures would join at once in a dance. Those who lead about beasts for exhibition, have often likewise asses and sheep whom they have taught to perform little diverting tricks. But what surprises Europeans most is to see serpents dance. The serpent seems to have a natural taste for sounds; at the beat of a drum it raises its head, and erects its body, making at the same time a sort of motion which is called its dancing.

Sect. 5. Of the Religion of the Egyptians.

24. The religion of Egypt is extremely various. The Coptic is that of the native Christians, who are said to be very punctual in the observance of the external rites of religion, perform long services, and observe numerous fasts. Their children are plunged three times into the water in the baptismal ceremony; after which the priest dips his finger in the consecrated wine and puts it into the child's mouth. At seven or eight years of age, they are generally espoused, but do not live together till twelve or thirteen.

25. In the marriage procession the bride is closely covered from head to foot, and walks under a canopy borne by four men, between two women who conduct her. Se-

veral slaves walk before, some playing upon the tambourine, others bearing fly-flaps, and others sprinkling scented waters. She is followed by women and musicians riding upon asses. A number of servants attend, and, as they pass on perform feats of strength and agility. All the women in the procession cry incessantly "lu, lu, lu," an exclamation expressive of joy among the Mahometans. If the procession takes place at night, slaves attend with flambeaus.

26. The Eucharist is administered in both kinds, and when the priest in the service mentions Peter's cutting off the ear of the high priest's servant, the audience exclaim, "well done, Peter." They observe the Jewish ritual in respect to food; and though they have no images, they prostrate themselves before pictures, pray for the dead, practise extreme unction, and in many other respects resemble the Church of Rome. One peculiarity of the Egyptians is the uncommon veneration which they shew to idiots, who are considered as endowed with a divine Spirit.

27. The Mahometan women kneel round them in the streets, and even kiss all parts of their bodies with the greatest fervency. There is a mosque at Grand Cairo, with considerable revenues, for the maintenance of idiots, so that those who are unfortunately devoid of reason, are very comfortably provided for in Egypt.

Sect. 6. Of the Climate of Africa; the Nile; and the Pyramids of Egypt.

28. The vast tract of Africa may be looked on as a huge peninsula, of which the middle regions were supposed by the ancients as absolutely uninhabitable, on account of their great heat, being situated under the torrid zone; and for this reason, as well as the difficulty and danger of travelling over its sandy deserts, they have been but little frequented by Europeans.

29. It is, however, now well known that these climes are not destitute of inhabitants, Providence having made men capable of living, perhaps, in all parts of the globe, by giving them certain organs which enable them to conform themselves to the heat and cold, the moisture and dryness of the climate in which they are born. Thus the

Laplanders not only live, but enjoy life near the frozen pole, and the Lybians are happy in their sultry deserts.

30. Egypt is indebted to the river Nile for its fertility and happiness, for as it seldom rains in the inland parts of the country, and the soil is naturally dry and sandy, if the lands were not annually watered by the overflowings of this river, Egypt, instead of the most fertile, would be one of the most barren regions in the world. The source of the Nile baffled all the enquiries of the ancients. The discovery was in vain attempted by the Persians, Greeks, and Romans, and how honorable they esteemed the enterprise may be known by referring to the writings of the ancients on that subject.

31. It is now ascertained that this river rises in Gabel-el Kamar, or the mountains of the moon, in a district called Donga, about eight degrees north latitude. The swell and overflowing of the Nile is occasioned by the great rains that fall in Ethiopia during the months of April and May; but the rise of the waters is not considerable in lower Egypt till about the twentieth of June, nor is any public notice taken of it till the twenty eighth when its swell is equal to about two feet in height; the criers then proclaim the rise at Cairo, and continue to publish how much it increases every day, till it rises to about five feet and a half, when there are great public rejoicings; this happens usually about the latter part of July, but the sooner it takes place the better hope they entertain of a fruitful season.

32. If the Nile do not rise so high, the people pay no tribute that year to the grand seignior; but a still greater height is necessary to cause a general flood, and prepare the lands for cultivation. Its greatest height is commonly about the middle of September. To know its exact height, there is built, on a pleasant island opposite to old Cairo, a pillar for measuring the Nile.

33. This pillar is placed under a dome, and crowned with a Corinthian Capital, and from the court that leads to the house is a descent to the Nile by steps, on which the common people believe that Moses was found, after he had been exposed on the banks of the river.

34. The pyramids of Egypt must not be wholly forgotten. There are several of various dimensions; but four are particularly remarkable. Inigo Jones is said

to have formed the square of Lincoln's-Inn Fields from one of these pyramids, the base of which, if placed in that square, would extend to the houses on each side. The perpendicular height is five hundred feet, and it is ascended by two thousand circular steps on the outside.

35. At the entrance of this pyramid travellers discharge pistols to dislodge the bats, which infest these places; they then on account of the heat, strip themselves to their shirts, and proceed with candles through a passage ninety two feet long, when they come to a large place where they commonly take refreshment. The second passage is an hundred and ten feet long at the end of which is another resting place and on the right hand is a well, remarkable for harbouring bats of an enormous size.

36. The third passage extends an hundred and twenty four feet in length, and leads to an inferior chamber. This passage is twenty six feet high, and six broad, is furnished with benches of polished stone; the chamber is lined with finely polished granite. The travellers then pass through a fourth and fifth gallery, which leads to a noble room, on the left side of which is a fine piece of granite, said to be the tomb of Cheops, king of Egypt. On quitting the pyramid, it is not an uncommon thing for travellers to be attacked with a pleurisy, which the sudden transition from an intensely hot to a temperate air is apt to occasion.

Note. Cairo the Capital of Egypt is on the river Nile. It has a mixed population of about 300,000. It is about sixty miles west of Suez, in 30 degrees north latitude. Ethiopia includes most of the interior of Africa. It extends the whole width of the continent, taking in the great desert of Zahara, Nubia, Abyssinia, and other countries but little known. It is divided into Upper and Lower Ethiopia; the first, including the central part of Africa, under the equinoctial line, and the second, Negroland or Nigritia.

Questions.

What is the religion of the Egyptians?
 What are their ancient monuments?

What is the capital of Egypt ?

Where is Cairo situated ?

What is the situation and extent of Ethiopia ?

Where are Nubia, Abyssinia, and Negroland ?



CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE INDIANS WEST OF THE MISSISSIPPI.—*Long.*

1. THESE Indians are addicted to habits of extreme indolence ; self-preservation, self-defence, and recreation being their usual incitements to action. The laborious occupations of the men consist in hunting, warfare, and tending their horses. Their amusements are principally horse racing, gambling, and sports of various kinds. The women are employed in the cultivation of corn and other vegetables, the gathering of fuel, cooking, and all other kinds of domestic labour.

2. Their religion consists in the observance of a variety of rites and ceremonies which they practise with much zeal and enthusiasm. Their devotional exercises are singing, dancing, and the performance of various mystical ceremonies, which they believe efficacious in healing the sick, frustrating the designs of their enemies, and in giving success to any enterprize in which they may be embarked.

3. In all their acts of devotion, as also on all occasions where their confidence is to be won, or their friendship to be plighted, the smoking of tobacco seems to be invariably regarded as an inviolable token of sincerity. They believe in the existence of a supreme Being, whom they denominate "Master of life," or "Good Spirit;" but of his attributes their ideas are vague and confused. They have some indistinct notion of the immortality of the soul, but appear to know no distinction of heaven or hell, as the abode of departed spirits.

4. They appear to have no laws, except such as grow out of habitual usages, or such as are sanctioned by common consent ; and the execution of these seems to be vested entirely in the chiefs and warriors, who are allowed to use the utmost severity, in enforcing order and subordination.

5. They are in the habit of offering in sacrifice a portion of the game first taken in a hunting expedition, a part of the first products of the field, and often a small portion of the food provided for their refreshment. In smoking, they generally direct the first puff upward, the second downward to the earth, or the first to the rising, and the second to the setting sun, after which they inhale the smoke into their lungs, and puff it through the nostrils for their own refreshment.

6. The arts of civilized life, instead of exciting their emulation, are generally viewed by them as objects unworthy of their attention. This results as a natural consequence from their habits of indolence. They are aware that much labour is requisite in the prosecution of these arts, and being accustomed from their infancy to look upon manual labour of every description, as a drudgery, that belongs exclusively to the women, they think it degrading to the character of men to be employed in them. Hunting, horsemanship, and warfare, are the only avocations in which their ambition or sense of honour prompts them to engage.

7. Their reluctance to forgive an injury is proverbial. Injuries are revenged by the injured; and blood for blood is always demanded, if the deceased has friends who dare to retaliate upon the destroyer. Instances have occurred of their revenge having become hereditary, and quarrels have been settled long after the parties immediately concerned have become extinct.

8. Belts of wampum consist of shells wrought into the form of beads, of different colours, but the white and the black are chiefly used. The shells are perforated, and strung upon a thong, and several of these thongs constitute a belt. The white belts are made of the conque or clam shell, the black of the muscle; both wrought in the form of a long bead. The belts are of different dimensions. The white are used to denote peace and friendship. A black belt with the mark of a hatchet made on it with red paint, is a war belt, which, when sent to a nation together with a twist or roll of tobacco, is an invitation to join in a war. If the nation so invited smoke of this tobacco, and say it smokes well, they are understood to give their consent and become allies.

9. The Indians continually hold these belts in their

hands ; and it is by means of them that they preserve the memory of events which are past, and the articles of the treaties into which they have entered. Being worked in particular forms, they are easily decyphered, and referred to in every treaty with the white people. They may be considered as the written language of the Indians, used to record past events, as well as to indicate their desires and resolutions.

10. When a council is held, these belts are given out with the speeches, and always proportioned in the size and the number of rows of wampum which they contain, to the idea which the Indians entertain of the importance of the meeting.

Sect. 2. The Indian Canoe.

11. The Indian canoe excited our earliest curiosity ; and after examining it with scrupulous attention and making a trial of its velocity upon the river Detroit, we were ready to say, " that its slender and elegant form, its rapid movement, its capacity to bear burdens, and to resist the rage of the billows and torrents, excited no small degree of admiration, for the skill with which it was constructed." It is formed wholly of bark, cedar splints, the roots of spruce, and the pitch of the yellow pine. These articles are fabricated in a manner uniting such an astonishing degree of lightness, strength, and elegance, and with such a perfect adaptation to the country, and the difficulties of northern voyages, as to create a sentiment of mixed surprise and admiration.

12. Those of the largest size, such as are commonly used in the fur trade of the north, are thirty-five feet in length, and six feet in width in the widest part, tapering gradually towards the bow and stern. They are constructed of the bark of white birch, which is peeled from the tree in large sheets, and bent over a slender frame of cedar ribs, confined by gunwales, which are kept apart by slender bars of the same wood. Around these the bark is sewed by the flexible roots of the young spruce tree, and also where the pieces of bark join, so that the gunwales resemble the rim of an Indian basket. The joinings are afterwards luted and rendered water

fight by pitch. A sail is employed when the wind is favourable.

13. A canoe of this size, when employed in the fur trade is calculated to carry sixty packages of skins, weighing ninety pounds each, exclusive of provisions and other baggage. It is paddled by eight men at the rate of four miles an hour in a perfect calm, and is carried across portages by four men. For river navigation, where there are many rapids and portages, nothing that has been contrived to float upon the water, offers an adequate substitute. Such is the vessel in which Europeans, adopting the customs of the savages, first entered the great chain of American lakes, and in which they have successively discovered the Mississippi, the Columbia, and the Arctic sea.

Sect. 3. Indian Mode of taking the Buffalo.

14. In the country west of the Mississippi, the buffalo, or wild ox, is found in immense numbers. Herds of them are sometimes seen, which are computed to consist of upwards of 10,000. An Indian mode of taking them is to select one of their most active young men, who is disguised by a buffalo skin round the body; the skin of the head with ears and horns fastened on his own head in such a manner as to deceive the buffaloes.

15. Thus dressed, he fixes himself at a convenient distance between the herd and one of the river precipices, which are common on the Missouri, sometimes extending several miles. His companions, in the mean time, get in the rear and at the sides of the herd, and at a given signal show themselves and advance towards the buffaloes. They instantly take the alarm, and finding the hunters in pursuit of them, they run towards the disguised Indian, or decoy, who leads them on at full speed towards the river, when suddenly securing himself in some crevice which he had previously fixed on, the herd is left on the brink of the precipice.

16. It is then in vain for the foremost to retreat, or even to stop; they are pressed on by the hindmost, who, seeing no danger but from the hunters, goad on those before them, till the whole are precipitated, and the shore is strewn with their dead bodies. Sometimes in this peri-

lous seduction the Indian is himself either trodden under foot, or, failing to secure himself in the cliff, is urged down the precipice by the falling herd. The Indians then select as much of the meat as they wish, and the rest is abandoned to the wolves.

Sect. 4. Specimens of Indian Eloquence.

Speech of Logan to Lord Dunmore, Governor of Virginia.

17. " My cabin, since first I had one of my own, has ever been open to any white man who wanted shelter. My spoils of hunting, since first I began to range these woods, have I ever freely imparted to appease his hunger, to clothe his nakedness. But what have I seen? What! but that at my return at night, laden with spoil, my numerous family lie bleeding on the ground, by the hand of those who had found my little hut a certain refuge from the inclement storm, who had eaten my food, who had covered themselves with my skins! What have I seen? What! but that those dear little mouths, for which I had toiled the live-long day, when I returned at eve to fill them, had not one word to thank me for all that toil!

18. What could I resolve upon? My blood boiled within me! My heart leaped to my mouth! Nevertheless, I bid my tomahawk be quiet, and lie at rest for that war, because I thought the great men of your country sent them not to do it. Not long afterward, some of your men invited our tribe to cross the river, and bring their venison with them. They, unsuspecting of evil design came as they had been invited. The white men then made them drunk, murdered them, and turned their knives even against the women.

19. Was not my own sister among them? Was she not scalped by the hands of that very man, whom she had taught to escape his enemies, when they were scenting out his track! What could I resolve upon? My blood now boiled thrice hotter than before! Thrice again my heart leaped to my mouth. I bade no longer my tomahawk be quiet, and lie at rest for that war. I no longer thought that the great men of your country sent them not to do it.

20. I sprang from my cabin to avenge their blood, and

fully have I done it in this war, by shedding yours from your coldest to your hottest sun. Thus revenged, I am now for peace. To peace have I advised most of my countrymen. Nay! what is more, I have offered, I still offer myself as a victim, being ready to die if their good require it. Think not that I fear death! I have no relations left to mourn for me. Logan's blood runs in no veins but these. I would not turn on my heel to escape death. And why should I? for I have neither wife, nor child, nor sister to howl for me when I am gone."

Speech of Cornplant to General Washington.

21. "Father, when your army entered the country of the Six Nations, we called you the *Town destroyer*, and to this day when your name is heard, our women look behind them and turn pale; our children cling close to the necks of their mothers; but our counsellors and warriors, being men, cannot be afraid. But their hearts are grieved by the fears of our women and children; and desire that the hatchet may be buried so deep as to be heard of no more.

22. Father, we will not conceal from you, that the Great Spirit, and not man, has preserved Cornplant from the hands of his own nation. For they ask continually, where is the land which our children and their children are to lie down upon?

23. You told us, say they, that a line drawn from Pennsylvania to lake Ontario would mark it forever on the east, and a line running from Beaver Creek to Pennsylvania would mark it on the west. But we see that it is not so; For first one and then another comes and takes it away by order of that people, who, you told us, promised to secure it to us forever. Cornplant is silent, for he has nothing to answer.

24. When the sun goes down, Cornplant opens his heart before the Great Spirit; and earlier than the sun appears again upon the hills, he gives thanks for his protection during the night; for he feels that among men, become desperate by the injuries they sustain, it is God only that can preserve him. Cornplant loves peace, all he had in store he has given to those who have been rob-

bed by your people, lest they should plunder the innocent to repay themselves.

25. The whole season which others have employed in providing for their families, Cornplant has spent in endeavours to preserve peace; and at this moment his wife and children are lying on the ground, and in want of food. His heart is in pain for them; but he perceives that the Great Spirit will try his firmness in doing what is right.

26. Father! innocent men of our nation are killed one after another, though of our best families; but none of your people, who have committed these murders, have been punished. We recollect that you did promise to punish those who should kill our people; and we ask, was it intended that your people should kill the Senecas, and not only remain unpunished, but be *protected from the next of kin?*

27. Father! these to us are great things. We know that you are very *strong*.—We have heard that you are *wise*; but we shall wait to hear your answer to this, that we may know that you are *just*.”

Extract from a Sachem's Speech to his people, occasioned by his Mother's Grave being violated by the whites.

28. “When last the glorious light of this sky was underneath the globe, when the birds grew silent, I began to settle, as my custom is, to take my repose. But ere my eyes were fast closed, I saw a vision at which my soul was troubled. As I trembled at the fearful sight, a spirit uttered its voice:—‘Behold! my son, whom I have cherished. See the hands that covered and fed thee oft. Wilt thou forget to take revenge of those wild people, who have disturbed my ashes, disdaining our sacred customs?’

29. ‘See now! the Sachem's grave lies, like one of the common people's, defiled by an ignoble race. Thy mother doth complain. She implores thine aid against this thievish people, newly intruding themselves into our land. If this be suffered, can I rest quietly in my everlasting habitations?’ Then the spirit vanished, and I, trembling, and scarce able to speak, began to get some strength, and recollect my thoughts that had fled, determining to ask your counsel and assistance.”

Speech of an Indian Chief to General Knox.

30. Some North American Indians came to New York in 1799, on a mission from their nations to the President; and having been invited to dine with General Knox, were observed to stand for some time in a balcony at the front of the house, contemplating the city, harbour, and Long Island, which lay widely stretched before them. Retiring at length with much distress apparent on their countenances, the General kindly inquired of one of the chiefs the cause of their dejection; to which the latter replied:

31. "I will tell you, brother. I have been looking at your beautiful city—the great water—your fine country—and see how you all are. But then I could not help thinking, that this fine country and this great water were once ours. Our ancestors lived here: they enjoyed it as their own place: it was the gift of the Great Spirit to them and their children.

32. "At last the white people came here in a great canoe. They asked us only to let them tie it to a tree, lest the waters should carry it away: we consented. They then said some of their people were sick, and asked permission to land them and put them under the shade of the trees. The ice then came, and they could not go away. They then begged for a piece of land to build wigwams for the winter: we granted it to them. They then asked for some corn to keep them from starving: we kindly furnished it them. They promised to go away when the ice was gone: when this happened, we told them they must go away with their big canoe; but they pointed to their big guns round their wigwams, and said they would stay here; and we could not make them go away.

33. "Afterwards more came. They brought spirituous and intoxicating liquors with them, of which the Indians became very fond. They persuaded us to sell them some land. Finally, they drove us back, from time to time, into the wilderness, far from the water, and fish, and oysters—they have destroyed the game—our people have wasted away; and now we live miserable and wretched, while you are enjoying our fine and beautiful country. This makes me sorry brother; and I cannot help it."

Generosity and Tenderness of an Indian Chief.

34. During the war in America, a company of Indians attacked a small body of British troops, and defeated them. As the Indians had greatly the advantage in swiftness of foot, and were eager in the pursuit, very few of the British escaped : and those who fell into their hands, were treated with a cruelty, of which there are not many examples.

35. Two of the Indians came up to a young officer, and attacked him with great fury. As they were armed with battle axes, he had no hope of escape. But, just at this crisis, another Indian came up, who was advanced in years, and was armed with a bow and arrows.

36. The old man instantly drew his bow ; but after having taken his aim at the officer, he suddenly dropped the point of his arrow and interposed between him and his pursuers, who were about to cut him in pieces. They retired with respect. The old man then took the officer by the hand, soothed him into confidence by caresses ; and, having conducted him to his hat, treated him with a kindness which did honour to his professions.

37. He made him less a slave than a companion ; taught him the language of the country ; and instructed him in the rude arts that are practised by the inhabitants. They lived together in the most perfect harmony : and the young officer, in the treatment he met with, found nothing to regret, but that sometimes the old man fixed his eyes upon him, and, having regarded him for some minutes with a steady and silent attention, burst into tears.

38. In the mean time, the spring returned, and the Indians again took the field. The old man, who was still vigorous, and able to bear the fatigues of war, set out with them, and was accompanied by his prisoner. They marched above two hundred leagues across the forest, and came at length to a plain where the British forces were encamped. The old man showed his prisoner the tents at a distance ; " There," says he, " are thy countrymen. There is the enemy who waits to give us battle. Remember that I have saved thy life, that I have taught thee to conduct a canoe, to arm thyself with a bow and arrows, and to surprise the beaver in the forest. What

wast thou when I first took thee to my hut? Thy hands were those of an infant. They could neither procure thee sustenance nor safety. Thy soul was in utter darkness. Thou wast ignorant of every thing. Thou owest all things to me. Wilt thou then go over to thy nation, and take up the hatchet against us?" The officer replied, "that he would rather lose his own life, than take away that of his deliverer."

39. The Indian, bending down his head, and covering his face with both hands, stood some time silent. Then, looking earnest at his prisoner, he said, in a voice that was at once softened by tenderness and grief; "Hast thou a father?" "My father," said the young man, "was alive when I left my country." "Alas!" said the Indian, "how wretched must he be!" He paused a moment, and then added, "Dost thou know that I have been a father?—I am a father no more.—I saw my son fall in battle.—He fought at my side.—I saw him expire.—He was covered with wounds, when he fell dead at my feet."

40. He pronounced these words with the utmost vehemence. His body shook with a universal tremor. He was almost stifled with sighs, which he would not suffer to escape him. There was a keen restlessness in his eye; but no tears flowed to his relief. At length he became calm by degrees: and, turning towards the east, where the sun had just risen; "Dost thou see," said he to the young officer, "the beauty of that sky, which sparkles with prevailing day? and hast thou pleasure in the sight?" "Yes," replied the young officer, "I have pleasure in the beauty of so fine a sky." "I have none!" said the Indian, and his tears then found their way.

41. A few minutes after, he showed the young man a magnolia in full bloom. "Dost thou see that beautiful tree?" said he, "and dost thou look upon it with pleasure?" "Yes," replied the officer, "I look with pleasure upon that beautiful tree."—"I have no longer any pleasure in looking upon it!" said the Indian hastily: and immediately added; "Go, return to thy father, that he may still have pleasure, when he sees the sun rise in the morning, and the trees blossom in the spring."

Note. Columbia is the largest river of North America that flows into the Pacific Ocean. It rises in the Rocky

mountains, and, after a circuitous course of 1500 miles generally south or south westerly, it flows into the ocean between Point Adams and Cape Disappointment. Its principal tributaries are the Multnomah, Lewis' and Clark's rivers. It is navigable for vessels upwards of 300 miles.

The Missouri rises in the Rocky mountains, in 45° north latitude, and falls into the Mississippi 21 miles below the Illinois, 154 above the Ohio, and 1140 from the Gulf of Mexico. It is navigable 1300 miles.—Lake Ontario lies between the state of New York and Upper Canada. It discharges its waters into the St. Lawrence, at its north side, and receives the Niagara at its south extremity.

Questions.

What are the characteristic habits of the western Indians?

What are their amusements?

What are their religious opinions and ceremonies?

On what principle are their laws founded?

Have they a disposition to become civilized?

Are they a revengeful people?

Where is the source of Columbia river?

What is its length?

Into what ocean does it flow?

For what distance is it navigable?

Where is the source of the Missouri?

How many miles is it navigable?

Where is its junction with the Mississippi?

Where is Lake Ontario?

Into what river does it discharge its waters?

Where does it receive the Niagara river?



THE CORSAIR.—Byron.

Conrad the Corsair, having escaped from prison and joined his friends, makes for the pirate's isle, to revisit his wife.

THEY gain by twilight's hour their lonely isle:
To them the very rocks appear to smile,

The haven hums with many a cheering sound,
 The beacons blaze their wonted stations round,
 The boats are darting o'er the curly bay,
 And sportive dolphins bend them through the spray ;
 Even the hoarse sea-bird's shrill discordant shriek,
 Greets like the welcome of his tuneless beak !
 Beneath each lamp that through its lattice gleams,
 Their fancy paints the friends that trim the beams.
 Oh ! what can sanctify the joys of home
 Like hope's gay glance from Ocean's troubled foam.

The lights are high from beacon and from bower,
 And midst them Conrad seeks Medora's tower :
 He looks in vain—'tis strange, and all remark
 Amid so many, hers alone is dark.
 'Tis strange—of yore its welcome never fail'd,
 Nor now, perhaps, extinguish'd—only veil'd.
 With the first boats descends he for the shore,
 And looks impatient on the lingering oar.
 Oh ! for a wing beyond the falcon's flight
 To bear him like an arrow to that height !
 With the first pause the resting rowers gave,
 He waits not—looks not—leaps into the wave,
 Strives through the surge—bestrides the beach—
 and high
 Ascends the path familiar to his eye.

He reach'd his turret door—he paused—no sound
 Broke from within—and all was night around.
 He knock'd, and loudly—footsteps nor reply
 Announced that any heard or deem'd him nigh ;
 He knock'd—but faintly—for his trembling hand
 Refus'd to aid his heavy heart's demand.
 The portal opens—'tis a well known face,—
 But not the form he panted to embrace.
 Its lips are silent—twice his own essay'd,
 And fail'd to frame the question they delay'd ;
 He snatch'd the lamp—its light will answer all—
 It quits his grasp—expiring in the fall.
 He would not wait for that reviving ray—
 As soon could he have lingered there for day ;
 But, glimmering through the dusky corridore,
 Another chequers o'er the shadowed floor ;

His steps the chamber gain—his eyes behold
All that his heart believ'd not—yet foretold.

He turn'd not—spoke not—sunk not—fix'd his look,
And set the anxious frame that lately shook :
He gazed—how long we gaze despite of pain,
And know—but dare not own we gaze in vain!
In life itself she was so still and fair,
That death with gentler aspect withered there ;
And the cold flowers her colder hand contain'd
In that last grasp as tenderly were strain'd
As if she scarcely felt, but feign'd a sleep,
And made it almost mockery, yet to weep :
The long dark lashes fringed her lids of snow—
And veil'd—thought shrinks from all that lurk'd be-
low—

Oh ! o'er the eye death most exerts his might,
And hurls the spirit from her throne of light !
Sinks those blue orbs in that long last eclipse,
But spares, as yet, the charm around her lips—
Yet—yet they seem as they forebore to smile,
And wish'd repose—but only for a while ;
But the white shroud, and each extended tress,
Long—fair—but spread in utter lifelessness,
Which late the sport of every summer wind,
Escaped the baffled wreath that strove to bind ;
These, and the pale pure cheek became the bier—
But she is nothing—wherefore is she here ?

He ask'd no question—all were answer'd now
By the first glance on that still—marble brow.
It was enough—she died—what reck'd it how ?
The love of youth, the hope of better years,
The source of softest joy and tenderest fears,
The only living thing he could not hate,
Was reft at once,—and he deserv'd his fate,
But did not feel it less ;—the good explore,
For peace, those realms where guilt can never soar :
The proud—the wayward—who have fix'd below
Their joy—and find this earth enough for woe,
Lose in that one their all—perchance a mite—
But who in patience parts with all delight ?
Full many a stoic eye and aspect stern

Hide hearts where grief hath little left to learn ;
 And many a withering thought lies hid—not lost—
 In smiles who least befit, who wear them most.

By those, that deepest feel, are ill exprest
 The indistinctness of the suffering breast ;
 Where thousand thoughts begin to end in one,
 Which seeks from all, the refuge found in none ;
 No words suffice the secret soul to show,
 And truth denies all eloquence to woe.
 On Conrad's stricken soul exhaustion prest,
 And stupor almost lull'd it into rest ;
 So feeble now—his mother's softness crept
 To those wild eyes, which like an infant's wept :
 It was the very weakness of his brain,
 Which these confess'd ; without relieving pain.
 None saw his trickling tears—perchance, if seen,
 That useless flood of grief had never been :
 Nor long they flow'd—he dried them to depart,
 In helpless—hopeless—brokenness of heart :
 The sun goes forth—but Conrad's day is dim,
 And the night cometh—ne'er to pass from him—
 There is no darkness like the cloud of mind,
 On grief's vain eye—the blindest of the blind !
 Which may not—dare not see—but turns aside
 To blackest shade—nor will endure a guide !

His heart was form'd for softness—warp'd to wrong—
 Betray'd too early, and beguil'd too long ;
 Each feeling pure—as falls the dropping dew
 Within the grot—like that had harden'd too ;—
 Less clear, perchance, its early trials past,
 But sunk, and chill'd, and petrified at last.
 Yet tempests wear, and lightning cleaves the rock ;
 If such his heart, so shattered is the shock.
 There grew one flower beneath its rugged brow,
 Though dark the shade—it shelter'd—saved till now !
 The thunder came—that bolt hath blasted both,
 The granite's firmness, and the lily's growth :
 The gentle plant hath left no leaf to tell
 Its tale, but shrunk and wither'd where it fell ;
 And of its cold protector, blacken round
 But shiver'd fragments on the barren ground.

'Tis morn—to venture on this lonely hour
 Few dare—though now Anselmo sought his tower.
 He was not there—nor seen along the shore;
 Ere night, alarm'd, their isle is travers'd o'er:
 Another morn—another bid them seek,
 And shout his name till echo waxeth weak;
 Mount—grotto—cavern—valley search'd in vain;
 They find on shore a sea-boat's broken chain—
 Their hope revives—they follow o'er the main.
 'Tis idle—moons roll on moons away,
 And Conrad comes not—came not since that day—
 Nor trace, nor tidings of his doom declare
 Where lives his grief, or perish'd his despair:
 Long mourn'd his band whom none could mourn
 beside
 And fair the monument they gave his bride:
 For him they raise not the recording stone—
 His death yet dubious, deeds too widely known;
 He left a Corsair's name to other times,
 Link'd with one virtue, and a thousand crimes.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF FRANKLIN.

—*Kingston.*

1. **BENJAMIN FRANKLIN**, born at Boston, 1706, was placed at a very early age under one of his brothers, who was a printer, where he made a rapid progress in that art, so useful to mankind, and contracted an attachment for the press, which continued as long as he lived. Scarcely emerged from infancy, Franklin was a philosopher without being conscious of it, and, by the continual exercise of his genius, prepared himself for those great discoveries, which in science have since associated his name with that of Newton, and for those political reflections which have placed him by the side of a Solon and a Lycurgus.

2. Soon after his removal from Boston to Philadelphia, Franklin, in concert with some other young men, established a small club, where every member, after his work was done, and on holidays, brought his stock of ideas, which were submitted to discussion. The society, of which the young printer was the soul, has been the source

of every useful establishment in that state, calculated to promote the progress of science, the mechanical arts, and particularly the improvement of the human understanding. Higher employments, however, at length called him from his country, which he was destined to serve more effectually as its agent in England, whither he was sent in 1757.

3. The stamp act, by which the British minister wished to familiarize the Americans to pay taxes to the mother country, revived that love of liberty which had led their forefathers to a country, at that time a desert; and the colonies formed a congress, the first idea of which had been communicated to them by Franklin, at the conferences at Albany, in 1754. The war that was just terminated, and the exertions made by them to support it, had given them a conviction of their strength; they opposed this measure, and the minister gave way, but he reserved the means of renewing the attempt.

4. Once cautioned, however, they remained on their guard; liberty, cherished by their alarms, took deeper root; and the rapid circulation of ideas by means of newspapers, for the introduction of which they were indebted to the printer of Philadelphia, united them together to resist every fresh enterprise. In the year 1766, this printer, called to the bar of the house of commons, underwent that famous interrogatory, which placed the name of Franklin as high in politics, as it was in natural philosophy. From that time he defended the cause of America with the firmness and moderation becoming a great man, pointing out to the ministry all the errors they had committed, and the consequences they would produce.

5. Until the period when the tax on tea, meeting the same opposition as the stamp act had done, England blindly fancied herself capable of subjecting, by force 3,000,000 of men determined to be free, at a distance of 1000 leagues. Every man is acquainted with the particulars of that war, but every man has not equally reflected on the bold attempt of Franklin as a legislator. Having asserted their independence, and placed themselves in the rank of nations, the different colonies, now the United States of America, adopted each its own form of government, and retaining, almost universally, their admiration

for the British constitution, framed them from the same principles, variously modelled.

6. Franklin alone, disengaging the political machine from those multiplied movements, and admired counterpoises that rendered it so complicated, proposed the reducing it to the simplicity of a single legislative body. This grand idea startled the legislators of Pennsylvania; but the philosopher removed the fears of many, and at length determined them to the adoption of his principle. Having given laws to his country, Franklin undertook again to serve it in Europe, not by representation to the metropolis, or answers at the bar of the house of commons; but by treaties with France, and successively with other powers.

7. From France he returned to America in 1785, and lived five years after this period: for three years he was president of the general assembly of Pennsylvania; he was a member of the convention that established the new form of federal government; and his last public act was a grand example for those who are employed in the legislation of their country. In this convention he differed in some points from the majority; but when the articles were ultimately decreed, he said to his colleagues, "we ought to have but one opinion; the good of our country requires that the resolutions should be unanimous," and he signed.

8. He died April 17, 1790. As an author, he never wrote a work of any length. His political works consist of letters or short tracts, but all of them, even those of humour, bear the marks of his observing genius and mild philosophy. He wrote many for that rank of people who have no opportunity for study, and whom it is yet of so much consequence to instruct; and he was well skilled in reducing useful truths to maxims easily retained, and sometimes to proverbs, or little tales, the simple and natural graces of which acquire new value when associated with the name of their author.

9. The most voluminous of his works is the history of his own life, which he commenced for his son, and which reaches no farther than 1757. He speaks of himself as he would have done of another person, delineating his thoughts, his actions, and even his errors and faults; he describes the unfolding of his genius and talents, with the

simplicity of a great man, who knows how to do justice to himself, and with the testimony of a clear conscience void of reproach.

10. In short, the whole life of Franklin, his meditations and his labors, have all been directed to public utility ; but the grand object that he had always in view, did not shut his heart against private friendship : he loved his family, and his friends, and was extremely beneficent. In society he was sententious but not fluent ; a listener rather than a talker ; an informing rather than a pleasing companion : impatient of interruption he often mentioned the Indians who always remain silent before they give an answer to a question which they have heard attentively ; unlike some of the politest societies of Europe, where a sentence can scarcely be finished without interruption.

11. In the midst of his greatest occupations for the liberty of his country, he had some physical experiment always near him in his closet ; and the sciences which he had rather discovered than studied, afforded him a continual source of pleasure. He made various bequests and donations to cities, public bodies, and individuals ; and requested that the following epitaph which he composed for himself some years ago, might be inscribed on his tomb stone :

12

THE BODY

of

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, Printer,

(Like the covering of an old Book,

Its contents torn out,

And stript of its lettering and gilding,)

Lies here, food for worms :

Yet the work itself shall not be lost,

But will (as he believed) appear once more,

In a new

And more beautiful edition

Corrected and Amended

by

The Author.

LAKE ASPHALTITES.

1. **THIS** Lake is more usually known by the name of the Dead Sea. It lies in Palestine, and is about fifty miles in length, and twelve or thirteen in breadth. It is surrounded by lofty mountains, and receives the river Jordan. It covers the ground on which stood the cities of Sodom and Gomorrah, buried, according to Strabo's report, by an earthquake accompanied by frequent eruptions of fire, or, according to scriptural expression, by a rain of sulphur.

2. This lake is rendered remarkable by the great quantities of bituminous and inflammable substance, called Asphaltos, floating on its surface. This substance, having been thrown up from the bottom in a melted state, by the agency of subterraneous heat, and having become solid by the coldness of the water, is collected on the margin of the lake. Doctor Clarke in his recent travels, has removed the superstitious prejudices so long entertained relative to the Dead Sea, of which he gives the following animated description.

3. "The Dead Sea, below, upon our left, appeared so near to us, that we thought we could ride thither in a very short space of time. Still nearer stood a mountain upon its western shore, resembling in its form, the cone of Vesuvius, and having also a crater upon its top, which is plainly discernible. The distance, however, is much greater than it appears to be; the magnitude of the objects beheld in this fine prospect, causing them to appear less remote than they really are.

4. The atmosphere was remarkably clear and serene; but we saw none of those clouds of smoke, which, by some writers, are said to exhale from the surface of Lake Asphaltites, nor from any neighbouring mountain. Every thing about it was, in the highest degree, grand and awful. Its desolate, although majestic features, are well suited to the tales related concerning it by the inhabitants of the country, who all speak of it with terror, seeming to shrink from the narrative of its deceitful allurements and deadly influence.

5. "Beautiful fruit," say they, "grows upon its shores, which is no sooner touched, than it becomes dust and bitter ashes." In addition to its physical horrors, the region

around is said to be more perilous, owing to the ferocious tribes wandering upon the shores of the lake, than any other part of the Holy Land. A passion for the marvellous has thus affixed, for ages, false characteristics to the sublimest association of natural scenery in the whole world.

6. Although it be known that the waters of this lake instead of proving destructive to animal life, swarm with myriads of fishes; that instead of falling victims to its exhalations, certain birds make it their peculiar resort; that shells abound on its shores; that the pretended "fruit containing ashes," is as natural and admirable a production of nature, as the rest of the vegetable kingdom; that bodies sink or float in it, according to the proportion of their gravity to the gravity of the water; that its vapours are not more insalubrious than those of any other lake, and that innumerable Arabs people the neighbouring district.

7. Notwithstanding all these facts are now well established, even the latest authors by whom it is mentioned, and one among the number, from whose writings some of these truths have been derived, continue to fill their descriptions with imaginary horrors and ideal phantoms which though less substantial than the 'black perpendicular rocks,' around it, 'cast their lengthened shadows over the waters of the Dead Sea.'

8. "The ancients," as it is observed by the traveller now alluded to, "were much better acquainted with it than are the moderns; and, it may be added, that the time is near at hand, when it will be more philosophically examined. The present age is not that in which countries so situated, can long remain unexplored. The thirst for knowledge, and the love of travel, have attained to such a pitch, that every portion of the globe will be ransacked for their gratification."

Note. Palestine, a part of Turkey in Asia, received its name from the Philistines who inhabited its coasts; it is also called Judea, and the Holy Land, and is the Canaan of Scripture. It is bounded by Mount Libanus on the north, by Mount Hermon on the east, by the mountains of Seir on the south, and by the Mediterranean

on the west. Its capital was Jerusalem.—The river Jordan rises in Mount Libanus.

Questions.

- Where is Lake Asphaltites or the Dead Sea?
 What is the situation of Palestine, or the Holy Land?
 What are the boundaries of Palestine?
 What is the capital?
 Where is the source of the river Jordan?
 Where were the ancient cities of Sodom and Gomorrah?

SIEGE AND DESTRUCTION OF TYRE.

—*Universal History.*

1. ALEXANDER signified to the inhabitants of Tyre, that he proposed to sacrifice to Hercules in that city. When the Tyrians received this alarming intelligence, they discovered not less firmness than prudence. They immediately sent an embassy to Alexander, and assured him that they had formed an unalterable resolution, that neither the Persians nor the Macedonians should ever enter their city.

2. We cannot but wonder at this boldness in a nation whose inhabitants were wholly unaccustomed to war; but the resources of their wealth and commerce seem to have heightened their courage, instead of softening the character of the people. Their city, which, in the language of the east, was styled the eldest daughter of Sidon, had long been acknowledged the mistress of the sea. The *purple* shell fish, which is found in great abundance on their coasts, gave them early possession of that lucrative branch of commerce; and the advantages of clothing the princes and nobles of antiquity was principally confined to the Tyrians.

3. Their city was separated from the sea by a frith half a mile broad; and the walls were a hundred feet high, and extended eighteen miles in circumference. The industry of the inhabitants, together with the convenience of its situation and the capaciousness of its har-

bours, made it the commercial capital of the world. It abounded with excellent artificers in wood, stone, and iron, was numerously peopled, and had large magazines of military and naval stores.

4. Notwithstanding the natural and artificial strength of the city, Alexander resolved to besiege it. He, therefore, in the first place, ran a mole from the continent to the walls of Tyre, where the sea was about three fathoms deep. On the side of the continent the work was carried on with great alacrity: but when the troops approached the city, the inhabitants galled them with missile weapons from the battlements, and the depth of water incommoded them.

5. The Tyrians also galled the workmen from their galleys, which, as they had the command of the sea, they could easily effect. To forward their labours, and, at the same time, resist these complicated assaults, Alexander gave orders to erect, on the furthest projecture of the mole, two wooden towers on which he placed engines; these were covered with leather and raw hides, in order to resist the burning darts and fireships of the enemy.

5. But this contrivance was soon rendered vain and ineffectual. The Tyrians procured a large hulk which they filled with dry twigs, pitch, sulphur, and other combustibles. Two masts were raised towards the prow, each of which was armed with a double yard: and from the extremities of these were suspended vast caldrons, filled with whatever substance might seem likely to add to the conflagration.

7. As soon as the wind appeared favourable, they towed the hulk into the sea with two galleys; and, having approached the mole, the sailors set the vessel on fire and swam to land. The works of the Macedonians were soon in a blaze; and the Tyrians, sailing forth in boats, prevented them from extinguishing the fire; by which means the labour of many weeks was reduced to ruin in one day.

8. Alexander, however, was not to be intimidated by this misfortune: he gave orders that a new mole should be raised higher and broader than the first, and upon which engines should again be placed. While these operations were carrying on, he received reinforcements of troops from Peloponnesus, which arrived very opportunely

to revive the courage of his men, exhausted by fatigue, and dejected by defeat.

9. The maritime provinces also, which he had reduced to his subjection, sent to offer their assistance in an undertaking, which could scarcely have terminated successfully so long as the Tyrians possessed the dominion of the sea. By the united force of lower Asia, Cyprus, and Rhodes, the whole armament of Alexander amounted to two hundred and twenty four vessels. The Tyrians, who had hitherto confided in their superiority, were now obliged to retire within their harbours for safety.

10. That people, however, were not discouraged from persevering in their defence: they attacked with showers of ignited weapons the hulk and galleys destined to advance the battering engines against their walls; and besides this, still trusting in their courage, resolved to attack the Cyprian squadron, stationed at the mouth of the harbour, which looked towards Sidon. The boldness of the design was not less than the bravery which the Tyrians employed in carrying it into execution.

11. That they might conceal their operations from the enemy, they had previously fixed up sails in the mouth of the harbour. They observed that the Greeks and Macedonians were usually employed in private affairs about mid-day, and that Alexander about that time also retired to his pavilion, which was erected near the haven, and looked towards Egypt. Against that hour, therefore, the best sailing vessels were selected from the fleet, and manned with the most expert rowers and the most resolute soldiers, all inured to the sea, and properly armed for battle.

12. They proceeded for a while slowly and silently; but when they had approached within sight of the Cyprians, they at once clashed their oars, raised a great shout, and advanced abreast of each other to the attack. The Tyrians sunk many of the enemy's ships at the first shock, and others were dashed against the shore. On that day Alexander had remained but a short time in his pavilion.

13. When he was informed of this desperate sally of the besieged, he commanded such vessels as were ready, to block up the mouth of the haven; and thus prevent the remainder of the Tyrian Fleet from joining their victori-

ous companions. In the meantime with several galleys, hastily prepared, he sailed round to attack the Tyrians. The inhabitants in the city, perceiving the danger of their comrades, made signal to recal them to the ships: but they had scarcely begun to shape their course back to the city, when the fleet of Alexander assailed, and soon rendered them unserviceable.

14. Few of the vessels escaped; two were sunk at the mouth of the harbour; but the men saved themselves by swimming. The issue of these naval operations determined the fate of Tyre. Having proved so victorious over the hostile fleet, the Macedonians fearlessly advanced their engines against the walls of the city. Amidst repeated assaults for two days, the besiegers exhibited great ardour and courage, and the besieged were actuated by their desperate situation.

15. The towers which the Greeks and Macedonians had raised to the height of the walls, enabled them to fight hand to hand with the enemy. By the assistance of spon-toons, some of the bravest soldiers passed over to the battlements; but the besieged poured vessels of burning sand on those who attempted to scale the wall on ladders, which penetrated to the bone.

16. The vigour of attack could only be equalled by the vigour of resistance; the Tyrians contrived to weaken the shock of the battering engines, by green hides and coverlets of wool; and when the enemy was so far successful as to effect a breach in the walls, the bravest were always ready to repel them from entering the place. On the third day, the engines of the besiegers assailed the walls: and the fleet divided into two squadrons, attacked the opposite harbours at the same time.

17. The battering engines having effected a wide breach in the walls, Alexander gave orders to raise the scaling ladders, that the soldiers might enter the town over the ruins. Admetus, with the targeteers, was the first that attempted to mount the breach; but this brave commander soon fell by the attack of the enemy; Alexander and his companions, however following after, took possession of the wall. The two squadrons of the fleet were also successful: the one entered the harbour of Egypt, whilst the other forced its passage into that of Sidon; but the

besieged, though the enemy had possessed themselves of the walls of the city, still rallied and prepared for defence.

18. The Tyrians having taken some Grecian vessels from Sidon, inhumanly butchered the crews upon their walls, and then threw the dead bodies into the sea, in sight of the whole Macedonian army. This action, together with the extreme length of time to which the siege had been protracted, provoked the resentment of Alexander and exasperated the fury of the victors. Eight thousand Tyrians were slain in the town, and thirty thousand were dragged into captivity.

19. The principal magistrates of the city, together with some Carthagenians, who had come to worship the gods of their mother country, sought refuge in the temple of Tyrian Hercules, where the clemency or piety of Alexander saved them. The Macedonian army lost four hundred men in the obstinate siege of seven months. Thus fell Tyre, that had been for many ages the most flourishing city in the world, and had spread the arts of commerce into the most remote regions.

Note. Tyre, a seaport of Syria, in that part formerly called Phoenicia, was once a place of exceeding great trade. Its latitude is 33 degrees north. It was destroyed about 350 years before Christ.—Alexander died by a fever occasioned by a surfeit, in the thirty third year of his age and thirteenth of his government.—Peloponnesus, now called the Morea, is situated in the south part of Greece. It is a peninsula, connected with Greece Proper by the isthmus of Corinth. It is two hundred miles in length and one hundred and forty in breadth.

Questions.

Where was the ancient city of Tyre ?

In what year was it destroyed ?

By whom ?

Where is Peloponnesus or the Morea ?

What is the extent ?

What isthmus connects this peninsula with Greece Proper ?

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF NEWTON.

—*Kingston.*

1. SIR ISAAC NEWTON, a celebrated English philosopher and mathematician, and one of the greatest geniuses that ever appeared in the world, was descended of an ancient family, which settled for three centuries upon the manor of Woolstrobe, in Lincolnshire, where he was born, on Christmas day, 1642. At twelve years of age he was sent to the grammar school at Grantham; and at eighteen, removed to Trinity college at Cambridge, in 1660.

2. His uncommon strength of mind was exhibited at an early age; being particularly attached to mathematical studies, he soon made himself master of Euclid, and that author was dismissed, as too plain and simple to employ his time. He advanced, at once, into more sublime studies; and it is certain, that he had laid the foundation of his two immortal works, the Principia, and Optics, before he had completed the twenty fourth year of his age.

3. When Newton had finished his Principia, it required some time before the world could understand his philosophical principles. The best mathematicians were obliged to peruse it with the utmost attention, before they could make themselves masters of it; and those of a lower rank were afraid to venture upon this work, till encouraged by the testimonies of the most learned; but, at last, when his genius became more fully known, the approbation which had been so slowly obtained became universal, and nothing was to be heard, from all quarters, but one general shout of admiration.

4. "Does Mr. Newton eat, drink, or sleep, like other men?" said the marquis l'Hospital, one of the greatest mathematicians of the age, to the English who visited him. "I represent him to myself as a celestial genius, entirely disengaged from matter." It is impossible in this sketch, to give a particular account of his discoveries, which were so extensive as to embrace the universe. It is said by Keil, that, "if all philosophy and mathematics, were considered as consisting of ten parts, nine of them are entirely of his discovery and invention."

5. In contemplating the various excellencies of his profound genius, it is difficult to say, whether sagacity, penetration, energy of mind, or diligence appear most conspicuous; yet, with unaffected humility, he disclaimed all singular pretension to superior talents. He observed to one of his friends who was complimenting him on his sublime discoveries, "that if he had done any thing in science worthy of notice, it was owing to patient industry of thinking, rather than to extraordinary sagacity."

6. He always put himself on a level with his company; no singularities, natural or affected, distinguished him from other men; and the most censorious observers could never charge him with the vanity of presumed authority. His genius and learning had procured him merited honors. As early as 1669, he was chosen professor of mathematics in Cambridge; and, in 1696, he was appointed warden to the Mint, in which employment he did very signal service to the nation.

7. Three years after he was appointed master of that office; a place worth twelve or fifteen hundred pounds per annum, which he held till his death. In 1703, he was chosen president of the Royal Society, having previously been elected a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris. The French soon relinquished the philosophy of their countryman, Des Cartes, for the solid principles of Newton.

8. This great man did not neglect the opportunities of doing good which the revenues of his patrimony, and a profitable employment, afforded him. When decency, or any occasion required expense or show, he knew how to be magnificent with a very good grace. At other times, that pomp, which dazzles weak minds, was retrenched, and the expense saved for better purposes. Notwithstanding Sir Isaac's intense application to study, he was not so absorbed in philosophy, but that he was enabled to disengage his thoughts, when his other affairs required his attention; and as soon as he had leisure, to resume his researches where he had left off.

9. This he appears to have performed not so much from the extraordinary strength of his memory, as by the force of his inventive faculty. He had read fewer of the modern mathematicians than could have been expected, his own

prodigious invention readily supplying him with what he might have occasion for, in the pursuit of any subject he might choose to investigate. This extraordinary man was always distinguished for the meekness of his disposition, and his great love of peace.

10. He would rather have chosen to remain in obscurity and lose the credit of the most sublime discoveries, than to have relinquished that tranquillity of mind, which he constantly endeavoured to observe. We find him reflecting on the controversy, respecting his optic lectures; in which he was almost unavoidably engaged in the following terms. "I blamed my own imprudence, for parting with so real a blessing as my quiet, to run after a shadow."

11. To crown all the other excellencies which adorn his character, this great philosopher is well known to have been a firm believer, and a serious christian; hence he applied his discoveries concerning the frame and system of the universe, to demonstrate the being of a God, and to illustrate his power and wisdom in the creation. He devoted himself with the utmost attention, to the study of the holy scriptures, and considered their several parts with uncommon exactness: particularly as to the order of time, and the series of prophecies and events relating to the Messiah.

12. In 1718, he published the chronology, which explains the connexions between sacred and profane history, and furnishes new illustrations of several texts of scripture. After this, he published his observations on the prophecies of Daniel, and the Apocalypse of St. John, in 1723. He endeavours to prove in this work, that the prophecy of Daniel's weeks was an express prediction of the Messiah, and fulfilled in Jesus Christ. With respect to his religious sentiments, though firmly attached to the church of England, he was greatly averse to the persecutions of the non-conformists.

13. He judged of men by their manners, and the true schismatics, in his opinion, were the vicious and wicked. After enjoying a uniform state of health, the result of temperance and regularity, till the age of eighty, he began to be afflicted with an incurable and painful disease; and the paroxysms of his disorder were distressing in the highest degree. In these trying circumstances, he was

never observed to utter the least complaint, nor to express the least impatience; but in his intervals of ease, assumed all that cheerfulness and good humour, which had ever been a distinguished trait in his character.

14. He resigned his life March 20, 1727, in the eighty fifth year of his age; and was honoured with a pompous funeral. An elegant monument, in Westminster Abbey, was erected to his memory. The principles of this excellent man, and his conduct through life, have left a strong and pleasing evidence, that the highest intellectual powers harmonize with religion and virtue; and that there is nothing in christianity, but what will abide the scrutiny of the soundest and most enlarged understandings.

15. Dr. Ryland makes the following remarks on the character and writings of this great philosopher. "In Sir Isaac Newton's dissertation on Daniel and the Revelations, you see the greatest geometrician in the world, who understood the nature of demonstration, as well as any man that ever lived, bowing his understanding to the revelation of God, and studying that revelation all his days; we are assured that his Bible was always lying on his table or desk before him. The character and practice of this great man, is more than sufficient to weigh down to eternity all the Bolingbrokes and Humes, the Rosseaus and Voltaires that ever lived, or ever will live to the end of time."



GUINEA.—*Goldsmith.*

1. GUINEA is usually divided into the grain-coast, the tooth-coast, the gold-coast, and the slave-coast. As all Nigritia and Guinea lie within the tropic of Cancer, the air is excessively hot, and the flat part of the country being overflowed a great part of the year by the periodical rains, the climate is unhealthy. Many parts of the country are extremely fertile, and abound with the most delicious fruits; nor is it uncommon to behold on the same tree, fruit and blossoms together.

2. Before the breezes arise, which always spring up about noon, the heat of the sun is intolerable; but afterwards, refreshing gales render the country very support-

able. Thunder and rain, with a sort of suffocating heat, prevail during four months in the year. The tornadoes sometimes produce most dreadful scenes; darkness comes on at mid-day, and the thunder and lightning are more awful than can be conceived by an European; the whole face of nature seems suddenly changed.

3. Guinea is supposed to contain more gold than any other part of the world. Great quantities are washed down from the mountains, and found in the rivers. In rainy seasons, after a wet night, the sea shore is covered with people, each having a couple of wooden bowls, the largest they fill with the earth and sand brought down from the mountains by the floods; this they wash with many waters till most of the sand is thus got rid of; the remainder, containing the metal, which sinks to the bottom, they reserve in the other bowl.

4. Sometimes they find as much gold as is worth a shilling or more; but they often look in vain. The value, however, of the gold brought from the Guinea coast one year with another, is supposed to amount to three hundred thousand pounds sterling.

5. "Hot Guinea too gives yellow dust of gold,
Which with her rivers, rolls adown the sides
Of unknown hills, where fiery winged winds,
And sandy deserts, rous'd by sudden storms,
All search forbid: however, on either hand,
Valley and pleasant plains, and many a tract
Deem'd uninhabitable erst, are found
Fertile and populous."

6. "Their sable tribes,
In shades of verdant groves, and mountains tall,
Frequent enjoy the cool descent of rain
And soft refreshing breezes: nor are lakes
Here wanting; those a sea wide surface spread,
Which to the distant Nile and Senegal
Send long meanders: whate'er lies beyond,
Or rich or barren, ignorance overcasts
With her dark mantle."

7. The manner of living of the natives of this extensive country is coarse and indelicate, but they are such enemies to drunkenness, that a single trespass of this nature,

is punished in the most exemplary manner, being very properly regarded as the aggregate of every enormity, by reducing mankind to a level with the beasts, prompting them to infringe the rights of society, which it deprives of a useful member, and destroying the efficacy of the best laws and government.

8. The rich wear a shirt with long sleeves, rings of iron interspersed with bells round their legs, and a scimeter by their sides. Every son follows, invariably the profession of his father. Like most of the other nations of these regions, they deem it impossible to discover one another's sentiments by the delineation of crooked characters, and suppose that white men are favoured with the intervention of familiar spirits, when they interpret the meaning of their friends' writing.

9. Women of distinction on the gold coast display great taste in the articles and disposition of their dress. The cloth which girds the waist is longer than that of the other sex; their hair is elegantly decorated with gold, coral, and ivory; circles of which likewise ornament their necks, arms, and legs, and they throw a silk veil over the neck and bosom. On the birth of a child a priest attends, who bends a number of cords, bits of coral, &c. about the head, body, arms, and legs, of the infant.

10. These are regarded as amulets against sickness and disasters, and, in fact, are the only things worn till the child is seven or eight years old, when a small cloth apron is put on. The inhabitants of the ivory, or tooth-coast, are extremely partial to small bells, which they wear on their legs; the jingling of these gives agility to their dancing, a diversion of which negroes in general are very fond.

11. The natives of the gold-coast acknowledge one supreme God, to whom they attribute every quality of an omnipotent and omniscient Being; but they offer up prayers and sacrifices to their idols, like the negroes. They believe that when the Creator formed black and white men, he offered them their choice of two sorts of gifts, gold or learning, and the blacks choosing the former, left the latter to the whites. The idols are composed of different substances, with an ornament worn on the head consecrated to some invisible Spirit.

12. Each priest has an idol of his own, peculiar in its

construction; but, in general, they are large wooden pipes, full of earth, blood, oil, bones of men and beasts, feathers, hair, and the like, which strange compositions are supposed to contain great virtues. When a native expires, his wife and relations commence hideous howling, shave their heads, smear their bodies with a chalky substance, equip themselves in an old garment, and sally out in the streets, incessantly repeating the name of the deceased with the most piercing lamentations.

13. The deceased is put into a coffin with his idols splendidly dressed with the finest corals, and other valuable articles, which it is supposed he will have occasion to use in the other world. The body being deposited in the earth, the attendants return to the house of the deceased, where they are entertained for several successive days. The funeral of a sovereign is attended with uncommon scenes of horror and inhumanity; several of his slaves are despatched at the grave, as attendants to serve him in a future state; one of his wives, and principal servants, with such friendless wretches as are unfortunate enough to be within reach, add also to the splendor of the barbarous sacrifice.

Note. Guinea, a country of Africa, lies within the tropic of Cancer, between 12° west and 80° east longitude.* The climate is unfavourable to Europeans although many of the natives live to a considerable age.

Questions.

- What is the situation and extent of Guinea?
 What is the climate?
 Into how many coasts is Guinea usually divided?
 What valuable metal does it afford?
 What is the religion of the people of Guinea?

THE WINTER EVENING.—*Cowper.*

HARK! 'tis the twanging horn o'er yonder bridge
 That with its wearisome but needful length
 Bestrides the weary flood, in which the moon

* In this compilation longitude is reckoned either from Greenwich or Philadelphia.

Sees her unwrinkled face reflected bright ;
 He comes, the herald of a noisy world,
 With spatter'd boots, strapp'd waist, and frozen
 locks ;
 News from all nations lumbering at his back.
 True to his charge, the close-pack'd load behind,
 Yet careless what he brings, his one concern
 Is to conduct it to the destin'd inn ;
 And, having dropp'd th' expected bag, pass on.
 He whistles as he goes, light-hearted wretch,
 Cold and yet cheerful: messenger of grief
 Perhaps to thousands, and of joy to some ;
 To him indiff'rent whether grief or joy.
 Houses in ashes, and the fall of stocks,
 Births, deaths, and marriages, epistles wet
 With tears, that trick'led down the writer's cheeks
 Fast as the periods from his fluent quill,
 Or charg'd with am'rous sighs of absent swains,
 Or nymphs responsive, equally affect
 His horse and him, unconscious of them all.
 But oh th' important budget ! usher'd in
 With such heart-shaking music, who can say
 What are its tidings ? have our troops awak'd ?
 Or do they still, as if with opium drugg'd,
 Snore to the murmurs of th' Atlantic wave ?
 Is India free ? and does she wear her plum'd
 And jewell'd turban with a smile of peace ?
 Or do we grind her still ? The grand debate,
 The popular harangue, the tart reply,
 The logic, and the wisdom, and the wit,
 And the loud laugh—I long to know them all ;
 I burn to set th' imprison'd wranglers free,
 And give them voice and utterance once again.
 Now stir the fire, and close the shutters fast,
 Let fall the curtains, wheel the sofa round,
 And, while the bubbling and loud hissing urn
 Throws up a steamy column, and the cups,
 That cheer but not inebriate, wait on each,
 So let us welcome peaceful ev'ning in.
 Not such his ev'ning, who with shining face
 Sweats in the crowded theatre, and, squeez'd
 And bor'd with elbow-points through both his sides,
 Out-scolds the ranting actor on the stage :

Nor his, who patient stands till his feet throb,
 And his head thumps, to feed upon the breath
 Of patriots, bursting with heroic rage,
 Or placemen, all tranquillity and smiles.
 This folio of four pages, happy work !
 Which not ev'n critics criticise ; that holds
 Inquisitive attention, while I read,
 Fast bound in chains of silence, which the fair,
 Though eloquent themselves, yet fear to break ;
 What is it, but a map of busy life,
 Its fluctuations, and its vast concerns ?
 Here runs the mountainous and craggy ridge
 That tempts ambition. On the summit see
 The seals of office glitter in his eyes ;
 He climbs, he pants, he grasps them ! At his heels,
 Close at his heels, a demagogue ascends,
 And with a dext'rous jerk soon twists him down,
 And wins them, but to lose them in his turn.
 Here rills of oily eloquence in soft
 Meanders lubricate the course they take ;
 The modest speaker is asham'd and griev'd
 T' ingross a moment's notice, and yet begs,
 Begs a propitious ear for his poor thoughts,
 However trivial, all that he conceives.
 Sweet bashfulness ! it claims at least this praise ;
 The dearth of information and good sense,
 That it foretels us, always comes to pass,
 Cat'racts of declamation thunder here ;
 There forests of no meaning spread the page,
 In which all comprehension wanders, lost ;
 While fields of pleasantry amuse us there
 With merry descants on a nation's woes.
 The rest appears a wilderness of strange
 But gay confusion ; roses for the cheeks,
 And lilies for the brows of faded age,
 Teeth for the toothless, ringlets for the bald,
 Heav'n, earth, and ocean, plunder'd of their sweets,
 Nectarious essences, Olympian dews,
 Sermons, and city feasts, and fav'rite airs,
 Ethereal journies, submarine exploits,
 And Katterfelto, with his hair on end
 At his own wonders, wond'ring for his bread.
 'Tis pleasant through the loop-holes of retreat

To peep at such a world ; to see the stir
 Of the great Babel, and not feel the crowd ;
 To hear the roar she sends through all her gates,
 At a safe distance, where the dying sound
 Falls a soft murmur on th' uninjur'd ear.
 Thus sitting, and surveying thus at ease
 The globe and its concerns, I seem advanc'd
 To some secure and more than mortal height,
 That lib'rates and exempts me from them all,
 It turns submitted to my view, turns round
 With all its generations ; I behold
 The tumult, and am still. The sound of war
 Has lost its terrors ere it reaches me ;
 Grieves, but alarms me not. I mourn the pride
 And av'rice that makes man a wolf to man ;
 Hear the faint echo of those brazen throats
 By which he speaks the language of his heart,
 And sigh, but never tremble at the sound.
 He travels and expatiates as the bee
 From flow'r to flow'r, so he from land to land ;
 The manners, customs, policy, of all,
 Pay contribution to the store he gleans ;
 He sucks intelligence in ev'ry clime,
 And spreads the honey of his deep research
 At his return—a rich repast for me.
 He travels, and I too. I tread his deck,
 Ascend his topmast, through his peering eyes,
 Discover countries, with a kindred heart
 Suffer his woes, and share in his escapes ;
 While fancy, like the finger of a clock,
 Runs the great circuit, and is still at home.



BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF DR. JOHNSON.

—*Kingston.*

1. SAMUEL JOHNSON, one of the greatest writers the English nation has to boast of, was born at Litchfield, in 1706. His father was a bookseller in that city and had no other child, except Nathaniel who died in 1737. Samuel was educated partly at the free school of Litchfield, and partly under a Mr. Wentworth at Stour-

bridge. In 1728, he was entered at Pembroke College, Oxford, where he remained till 1731, and was then obliged to quit the university through the poverty of his circumstances.

2. He soon after lost his father, at whose death he found himself possessed of no more than £20. The place of usher of the school at Bosworth, was offered him, and he found it prudent to accept it, but being displeased with the behaviour of the principal, he soon after relinquished this situation and then removed to the house of a printer at Birmingham, where he translated Lobo's account of Abyssinia, for Mr. Warren, a bookseller there.

3. In 1734, he returned to Litchfield, and published proposals for a translation of the works of Politian, with the life of that author, but the design dropped for want of encouragement. In 1735, he married a widow lady of Birmingham, named Porter, and the same year opened a school at Edial near Litchfield, but this scheme also failed, as he obtained but three scholars, one of whom was David Garrick. About this time he began his tragedy of Irene, by which he was encouraged by his friend Mr. Walmsey, of Litchfield.

4. In 1737, he set out for the metropolis, accompanied by Garrick. On his fixing his residence in London, he formed a connexion with Cave, the publisher of the Gentlemen's Magazine, for which miscellany he continued to write for several years, his principal department being an account of the parliamentary debates. At this period he contracted an intimacy with Savage, and, being alike destitute, a close friendship subsisted between them. Johnson has immortalized the name of that unfortunate wanderer, by one of the most eloquent and instructive pieces of biography ever composed.

5. In 1738, appeared, anonymously, his imitation of Juvenal's third Satire, under the title of London; a poem which was commended by Pope, and well received by the public, though it rendered the author but little service in the way of profit. He made an attempt to get elected master of a free school, in Leicestershire, but was disappointed, owing to his not being master of arts. In 1747, he issued proposals for an edition of Shakespeare, and published the plan of his English dictionary. The price agreed upon between him and the booksellers for the last

mentioned work, was £1575; and it had the countenance of the earl of Chesterfield.

6. The year following Johnson instituted a literary club in Ivy-lane, Paternoster-row. In 1749, Garrick brought his friend's tragedy on the stage at Drury-lane, but with all his exertions the play was unsuccessful, being too stiff and laboured a composition for the stage though admirable in the closet. This year he was imposed upon by Lauder, who pretended to have discovered proofs of Milton's being a plagiarist, but when he found that Lauder was an impostor, he discarded him. In 1750, he commenced his Rambler, a periodical paper of the first class, which was continued till 1752.

7. In this excellent work he had so little assistance, that only five papers were the productions of other writers. Soon after the close of this paper he lost his wife, a circumstance which affected him sensibly, as may be seen in his meditations, and in the sermon which he wrote on her death with a design that Dr. Taylor should have preached it at her funeral. In 1755, appeared his Dictionary; and to give it some degree of distinction the university of Oxford previously conferred on him the degree of A. M.

8. Lord Chesterfield, also, endeavoured to assist it, by writing two papers in its favour, but as he had neglected the work till the eve of its publication, Johnson treated his lordship with indignant contempt. The publication of this work did not relieve him from his embarrassments, for the price of his labour had been consumed in the progress of its execution, and the year following we find him under arrest for five guineas, from which he was released by Samuel Richardson, the printer. In 1758, he began his Idler, a periodical paper, which was published in a weekly newspaper.

9. On the death of his mother, in 1759, he wrote the romance of Rasselas to defray the expenses of her funeral, and to pay off her debts. In 1762, his majesty settled on him a pension of 300*l.* per annum, without any stipulation with respect to his future literary exertion. Johnson had the honour of a conversation with the King in the library of Buckingham-house, in February, 1765, when his majesty asked him if he intended to publish any more works? To this he answered, that he thought he had

written enough; on which the King said, "and so should I too, if you had not written so well."

10. About this time he instituted the Literary club, which consisted of some of the most celebrated geniuses of the age, and still continues. In 1771, his friend Mr. Strathan, endeavoured to bring him into parliament, thinking that he would have shone as a speaker, but the attempt was unsuccessful. In 1773, he took a tour with Mr. Boswell to the western islands of Scotland, of which journey he afterwards published an account. This work occasioned a difference between him and Mr. Macpherson, relative to the poems of Ossian, when the latter was weak enough to threaten him with personal chastisement, which drew from Johnson a letter full of dignified spirit.

11. In 1775, the University of Oxford sent him a degree of L. L. D. by diploma, which had before been conferred on him by the University of Dublin. In 1779, he began his Lives of the English Poets, which work was not completed till 1781. Though he was now 72 years of age, we perceive no decay of intellect, nor abatement of his wonted vigour. On the contrary, it is a treasure of sound criticism, and a model of literary biography. This however was his last performance. Nature soon began to give symptoms of failure, and to warn him of his dissolution.

12. This was an event which he had always looked to with dread bordering upon horror. But the last days of this excellent man were sunshine. His gloomy apprehensions vanished; he saw the ground of his confidence, and he departed, in strong faith and lively hope, December 13, 1784. His remains were interred in Westminster Abbey, close by his friend Garrick, and a statue, with an appropriate inscription, has been erected to his memory in the Cathedral of St. Paul.

13. His works have been published in 12 volumes, 8 vo. and his life has been written by several authors, particularly by John Hawkins, Mr. Murphy, and Mr. Boswell. As a writer, few have done such essential service to his country, by fixing its language, and regulating its morality. In his person he was large, robust, and rather unwieldy. In his dress he was singular and slovenly. In conversation he was violent, positive, and impatient of

contradiction. Yet with all his singularities, he had an excellent heart, full of tenderness and compassion.

14. All his actions were the result of principle. He was a stout advocate for truth, and a zealous champion for the Christian religion, as professed in the church of England. In politics he was a tory, and at one period of his life, a great friend to the discarded house of Stuart. He had a noble independence of mind, and could never bear to stoop to any man however exalted, or to disguise his sentiments, to flatter another. His judgment was uncommonly acute and steady, his imagination quick and ready, his memory tenacious to a wonderful degree, and his conversation brilliant and instructive. His piety was solemn, fervent, and impressive, founded on the purest principles, and regulated by sound wisdom.



DEATH OF SOCRATES.—*Universal History.*

1. IT had been well for humanity, and to the honour of Athens, if the abettors of aristocratical faction had been the only persons, who experienced the unjust rigour of its tribunals. But soon after the re-establishment of the popular form of government, happened a very memorable transaction, the trial and condemnation of Socrates; a man guiltless of any vice, and against whom no blame could be imputed, except that the illustrious merit of the philosopher disgraced the crimes and the follies of his cotemporaries.

2. His active, useful, and honourable life was sealed by a death that appeared bestowed as a favour, not inflicted as a curse; since Socrates had passed his seventieth year, and must have yielded in a little time to the decays of nature. Had he, therefore, died a natural death, his fame would have been less splendid, and certainly more doubtful in the eyes of posterity. This great and good man had been represented in the ludicrous farce of Aristophanes, entitled "the Clouds," as a person who denied the religion of his country, corrupted the morals of his disciples and professed the odious arts of sophistry and chicane.

3. Socrates was of too independent a spirit to court,

and too sincere to flatter a licentious populace. The envy therefore, of the people gradually envenomed the shafts of the poet; and they really began to suppose, that the pretended philosopher and sage was no better than the petulance of Aristophanes had described his morals and character to be. The calumny was greedily received, and its virulence heightened by priests and seditious demagogues, whose temples and designs he had ridiculed and despised; and by bad poets and vain sophists, whose pretended excellencies the discernment of Socrates had removed, and whose irritable temper the sincerity of the philosopher had greatly offended.

4. It is astonishing, indeed, that such a powerful combination should have permitted Socrates to live to the age he did; especially when we consider, that during the democratical form of government, he never disguised his sentiments, but treated with contempt and derision the capricious levity, injustice, and cruelty of the multitude; and that, during the usurpation of the tyrants, he openly arraigned their vices, excited the people against them, and defied the authority and vengeance of the thirty.

5. He was not ambitious, and this may be considered as the cause of his escaping so long. If public affairs had excited his attention, and he had endeavoured to invest himself with authority, and thereby to withstand the prevalent corruption of the times, it is more than probable, that his formidable opposition would have exposed him to an earlier fate. But, notwithstanding his private station, his disciples considered it as somewhat remarkable, that amidst the litigious turbulence of democracy, and the tyrannical oppression of the thirty, his superior merit and virtues should have escaped persecution during a life of seventy years.

6. At the time that his enemies determined to sacrifice this illustrious character, it required no uncommon art, to give to their calumnies the appearance of probability. Socrates discoursed with all descriptions of men, in all places and on all occasions. The opinions he professed were uniform and consistent, and known to all men. He taught no secret doctrines, admitted no private auditors. His lessons were open to all; and that they were gratuitous, the poverty in which he lived, compared with the exorbitant wealth of the sophists, fully demonstrated.

7. His enemies, however, to surmount all these difficulties, trusted to the hatred which the judges and jury had conceived against him, and the perjury of false witnesses, whose testimonies might be procured at Athens for a trifling sum of money. They also confided in the artifices and eloquence of Miletus, Anytus, and Lycon, who appeared for the priests and poets, for the politicians and artists, and for the rhetoricians and sophists.

8. Socrates, according to the laws of Greece, ought, as his cause chiefly respected religion, to have been tried by the tribunal of the Areopagus, a less numerous but more enlightened court of justice. He was, however, immediately carried before the tumultuary assembly, or rather mob of the Heliaea. This was a tribunal consisting of five hundred persons, most of whom were liable, by their education and manner of life, to be seduced by eloquence, intimidated by authority, and corrupted by every species of undue influence.

9. When Socrates was called on to make his defence, he confessed he had been much affected by the persuasive eloquence of his adversaries, but that in truth, if he might be allowed the expression, they had not spoken one word to the purpose. His friend Chaerephon had, he said, consulted the Delphic oracle, whether any man was wiser than Socrates, and received for answer that he was the wisest of men.

10. That he might justify the reply of the god whose veracity they all acknowledged, he had conversed with the most eminent and distinguished persons in the republic; he found, that they universally pretended to the knowledge of many things of which they were ignorant; and therefore suspected that in this circumstance he excelled them, because he pretended to no kind of knowledge of which he was not really possessed. What he did know, he freely communicated, and strove, to the utmost of his power, to render his fellow citizens more virtuous and more happy.

11. He believed the god had called him to this employment and "his authority, O Athenians! I respect still more than yours." When he had thus spoken, the judges were seized with indignation at the firmness of a man capitally accused, and who according to the usual custom, they expected would have brought his wife and children

to intercede for him by their tears ; or, at least, that he would have made use of a long and elaborate discourse, which his friend Lysias, the orator, had prepared for his defence, and which was alike fitted to detect calumny, and to excite compassion.

12. But Socrates, who had always considered it as a much greater evil to commit than to suffer an injustice, declared, that he thought it unbecoming to employ any other defence than that of an innocent and useful life. The gods alone were capable of discerning, whether to incur the penalties, with which he was unjustly charged, ought to be considered as an evil or not. The firmness and magnanimity, with which the philosopher delivered himself, could not, however, alter the resolution of his judges ; but such is the ascendancy of virtue over the most worthless of mankind, that he was found guilty by a majority of three voices only.

13. He was then commanded, according to a principle that betrays the true spirit of democratical tyranny, to pass sentence of condemnation on himself, and to name any punishment which ought to be inflicted on him. "The punishment I ought to receive," replied Socrates, "for having spent a useful and active life in endeavouring to make my fellow citizens wiser and better, and to inspire the Athenian youth with a love of virtue and temperance, is that I should be maintained, during the remainder of my life, in the Prytaneum."

14. "This is an honour due to *me*, rather than to the victors in the Olympic games ; since I have always endeavoured to make my countrymen more happy *in reality*, they only *in appearance*." The judges provoked by an observation which ought to have confounded them, immediately passed sentence, and condemned Socrates to drink the deleterious hemlock. Though this atrocious act of injustice excited the indignation of the philosopher's friends, he himself felt no other passion than what pity for the prejudices of his countrymen occasioned.

15. Socrates then addressed that part of the audience, which had been favourable to his cause, and said he considered them as friends, with whom he would willingly converse for a few moments, upon an event that had happened to him previously to his being summoned to death. After the prosecution had commenced, he had observed

that an unusual circumstance had attended all his words and actions, and every step he had taken in the course of his trial.

16. Formerly, and on ordinary occasions, he had been restrained from saying or doing any thing improper or hurtful; but during the whole progress of this affair, he had never been withheld, in any one particular, from following the bent of his inclination. He was therefore of opinion, that the fate which the court had awarded him, ought not to be considered as an evil, but as what was meant for his real good.

17. He added; "and if death be only a change of existence, it must certainly be advantageous to remove from judges like these, to Minos, Rhadamanthus, and other upright men, who on account of their love of justice and virtue, have been exalted by the divinity to the exercise of this important function. What delight must it not occasion, to live in continual intercourse with the heroes and poets of antiquity! And since no real evil can happen to those, who are in the concern and protection of Heaven, it becomes you, my friends to be of good comfort with respect to my death."

18. "For my own part, I am fully persuaded, that for me to die is gain; and therefore I am not offended at my judges, for condemning me so unjustly. I make it my particular request, that all of you will so behave towards my sons when they have attained the years of reason and manhood, as I have ever treated you. I entreat you will not cease to blame and accuse them, when you see them prefer wealth, or pleasure, or any other frivolous object, to the inestimable worth of virtue."

19. "And if they think highly of their own merit, while at the same time, O Athenians! it is insignificant and of little value, reproach them for it, as I have done you. If you act according to the tenor of these instructions, you will do justice to me and my sons. And now I go to die, and you to live; but which is preferable the divinity only knows." It is no wonder, that the disciples of Socrates should have considered the events of his very extraordinary life, and more especially the conclusion of it, as regulated and directed by the interposition of Heaven.

20. His unalterable firmness and amiable virtues were evinced and displayed in every circumstance. It happened that his trial took place immediately after the commencement of an annual festival, in which a vessel, decorated by the high-priest, was sent to Delos, to commemorate, by grateful acknowledgments to Apollo, the triumphant return of Theseus of Crete, and the happy deliverance of Athens, from a disgraceful tribute.

21. During the absence of this vessel, it was not lawful to inflict any capital punishment. The friends of Socrates, in the mean time visited him in prison. Their conversation chiefly turned on the subjects that had formerly occupied their attention: and though they did not afford that pleasure, which they usually derived from the company of the philosopher, they did not occasion that gloom which is naturally excited by the presence of a friend under the condemnation of death.

22. Contrary winds protracted the absence of the vessel thirty days, but when the fatal ship arrived in the harbour of Sunium, and was hourly expected at Piraeus, Crito, the most confidential of the disciples of Socrates, carried the first intelligence of it to his master; and ventured to propose a clandestine escape, by means of money that he had collected, and which would, he doubted not, corrupt the fidelity of his keepers. This unmanly proposal, excited by the friendship of Crito, Socrates answered in a vein of pleasantry, which shewed the perfect composure of his mind.

23. "In what country, my friend, is it possible to elude the shafts of death? Whither shall I flee, to avoid the irrevocable doom passed on all the human race?" Apollodorus, another of his disciples, remarked, "that what grieved him beyond measure was, that such a man should perish unjustly." "And would you," replied Socrates, "be less grieved were I deserving death?"

24. His friends and especially Crito, urged that he would not be less ungenerous than imprudent, in obeying a cruel and capricious multitude, and thereby rendering his wife a widow, his children orphans, and his disciples forever miserable and forlorn; and therefore conjured him, by every thing sacred and divine, to save his life. Socrates replied, however unjustly we are treated, it is neither our duty, nor our interest, to retort the injuries of

our parents or our country ; but to teach, by our example, obedience to the laws.

25. The strength of these arguments, but still more the unalterable firmness of his mind, silenced the struggling emotions of his friends. When the fatal morning arrived, his disciples hastened earlier than usual to the gate of the prison, but were desired to wait until the executioners had loosed the fetters of Socrates, and announced to him that he must die before the setting of the sun. When introduced to the philosopher, they found him just relieved from his bonds, and attended by his wife Xantippe, who carried in her arms his infant son.

26. As soon as they appeared, she exclaimed " Alas ! Socrates, here come your friends, who for the last time behold you, and you them." Socrates desired Crito to conduct her home. The philosopher, now reclining on his couch, began a discourse on the connexion between pain and pleasure. He drew his leg towards him, and gently rubbing it, remarked, that the one sensation was generally followed by that of the other. For though he had felt pain during the time his leg was galled by the iron, yet now a pleasing sensation followed.

27. Neither pleasure, nor pain, he observed, can exist apart ; they are seldom pure and unmixed ; and whoever experiences the one, may be sure he will soon feel the other. " Had Æsop," said he, " made this reflection, I think he would have remarked, that the divinity, desirous of reconciling these opposite natures, but finding the design impracticable, had, at least, united their extremes. For this design pleasure has ever been followed by pain, and pain by pleasure."

28. He discussed with his disciples several important and interesting subjects ; particularly concerning suicide, and the immortality of the soul. These discussions consumed the greater part of the day. The arguments of the philosopher convinced and consoled his disciples, as they have frequently done the virtuous and learned in succeeding ages. On the subject of death, he said, " They whose minds are adorned with temperance, justice and fortitude, and who have despised the vain ornaments and vain pleasures of the body, ought not to regret their separation from their terrestrial companions."

29. "And now," continued he, speaking in tragical language, "the destined hour summons me to death." Soon after, the keeper of the prison entered, and addressing himself to Socrates, said, "I cannot accuse you of the rage and execrations too often vented against me by those, to whom it is my duty to announce, by command of the magistrates, that the hour for drinking the poison is arrived. Your fortitude, mildness, and generosity, exceed all that I have hitherto been witness of"

30. "I am sensible that you will pardon even this action of mine; since you know it is occasioned by compulsory orders. And now, as you are acquainted with the purport of my message, I bid you farewell and exhort you to bear your hard fate with as much patience as possible." Socrates also bade him farewell; and gave orders that the poison should be brought. Crito then made a sign, to a boy that waited: who went and prepared the hemlock, and returned with the person who was to administer it.

31. When Socrates perceived his arrival he said to him, "Tell me, for you are experienced in such matters, what I have to do." "Nothing further" replied he, "than to walk in your chamber, till your limbs feel heavy, and then sit down on your couch." The philosopher then took the cup, and asked, whether it were lawful to employ any part of the beverage in libation. The other answered, there was not a quantity more than sufficient. Socrates then drank the poison with an unaltered countenance.

32. His friends and disciples made great lamentations, but the philosopher, in order to still their noisy grief said with a mixture of gentleness and authority, "that he had before dismissed the women, lest there should be any unmanly complaint." When he found the poison began to work in his vitals, he uncovered his face, and said, "Crito, we owe a cock to Æsculapius; sacrifice it, and neglect it not;" intimating thereby, that this offering should be made to the god, as if he had recovered from his disease. Crito asked him, if he had any further commands; but he made no reply. Soon after, he was in an agony, and Crito shut his eyes.

33. Thus died Socrates; a man, whom his disciples declared they could never cease to remember, and whom

remembering, they could not cease to admire. "That man," says Xenophon, "who is a lover of virtue, and has found a more profitable companion than Socrates, I consider as the happiest of human kind." The current of popular passions was frequently uniform in the Athenian republic, till the period of reflux arrived.

34. The factitious resentment excited against Socrates by such absurd and improbable calumnies, as scarcely to be believed, even by those who were most ready to receive and propagate them, extended itself to his numerous friends and adherents with great rapidity. Fortunately, however, for letters and humanity, the rage of faction was confined within the attic border. Many of his disciples, wisely eluded a storm, which they were unable to resist. Some took refuge in Thebes; whilst others fled to Megara.

35. It was not till after the death of Socrates, that the people became conscious of their error, in destroying that great and good man. It was then that mingled sentiments of pity, shame, and remorse, gave a new direction to the fury of the people. The accusers and the judges of Socrates were used with much more cruelty than the philosopher himself. This, however, was more justly inflicted on them than on him. Nothing was heard throughout the city, but discourses in favour of Socrates.

36. The academy, the Lyceum, private houses, public walks, and market places, all seemed to the sorrowful Athenians still to re-echo the sound of his beloved voice. "Here," said they, "he formed our youth, and taught our children to love their country and be obedient to their parents. In this place he gave us lessons, and when he saw us lax in our moral duties, he applied seasonable reproaches, that he might engage us more earnestly in the pursuit of virtue."

37. "And now, alas! how have we rewarded this good and worthy man for his important services!" The whole city was in mourning and consternation; the schools were shut up, and all exercises suspended. Many of his accusers and judges were driven into exile; numbers were put to death; and several perished in despair by their own hands. For as Plutarch observes, all those, who had any share in this black and improbable calumny, were held in such abomination by their coun-

trymen, that no one would give them fire, answer a question, or go into the same bath with them.

58. The illustrious sage had a statue of brass erected to him, by the Athenians, of the workmanship of Lysippus, which was placed in the most conspicuous part of the city. Thus did his fame, like the hardy oak, derive vigour from length of years, and increase from age to age, until the superstitious Athenians worshipped him as a god, whom their injustice and cruelty had executed as a criminal.

Note. Socrates was born at Alopece, in Attica, 467 years before Christ, and was condemned, as above, at the age of 70 or 71.—Crete, now called Candia, is an island in the Mediterranean, 200 miles in length, and 50 in breadth. The climate is said to be delightful, and, excepting December and January, the whole year is one continued fine day. Its latitude is 35° north.

Questions.

- Where and at what period was Socrates born?
 What was his age at the time of his death?
 Why was he condemned to drink the *deadly hemlock*?
 Where is Crete or Candia situated?
 What is its extent?
 " " " climate?

HOLLAND.—*Goldsmith.*

Description of the Characters, Manners, and Customs of the inhabitants of the Batavian Republic.

Of their Persons, Dress, and general Character.

1. THE natives of the United provinces are of good stature, and inclined to be corpulent, but are remarkable in general for a heavy awkward mien; their features are regular, and their complexions fair.

2. " Embosom'd in the deep where Holland lies,
 " Methinks her patient sons before me stand,

"Where the proud ocean leans against the land
 "And, sedulous to stop the coming tide,
 "Lift the proud rampire's artificial pride;
 "Onward methinks and diligently slow,
 "The firm connected bulwark seems to go,
 "Spreads its long arms amidst the wat'ry roar,
 "Scoops out an empire and usurps the shore;
 3. "While the pent ocean, rising o'er the pile,
 "Sees an amphibious world beneath him smile,
 "The slow canal, the yellow blossom'd vale,
 "The willow tufted bank, the gliding sail,
 "The crowded mart, the cultivated plain;
 "A new creation rescued from his reign."

4. The better sort of people imitate the French fashions in their dress; but those who are stamped with the genuine character of their native country never fail to load themselves with an enormous incumbrance of clothes. Both men and women wear at least two waistcoats, with as many coats and the former cover their limbs with double trowsers. But the dress of the young girls is the most singular, especially at the time of any festival or holiday.

5. In speaking of these an amusing writer observes, that any one would have supposed that the figures which appeared were masques, or designed as caricatures. Imagine a short figure with more breadth than goes to the proportion of elegance, and with very little alteration in the width downwards to the waist, the petticoats descending only half way below the knee. Imagine further, a round small face covered with a hat of three feet in diameter, perfectly circular, and applied to the head in a part contiguous to the circumference.

6. Now conceive a number of these figures in motion brandishing their horizontal hats, rolling their diminutive eyes, and affecting a thousand ridiculous graces under cover of this extensive canopy. The *tout ensemble* may bring to the recollection those sculptural vagaries in which a human figure is made a prop of a cathedral seat, the support of a wainscot pulpit, or the stand of a mahogany table.

7. The Dutch are usually distinguished into five classes; the peasants and farmers; sea faring men; merchants and tradesmen; Those who live upon their estates, or the in-

terest of their money ; and the military officers. The peasants are industrious, but stupid, easily managed by fair language, if they are allowed time to understand it. The seafaring-men are a plain, rough, and hardy people, seldom using more words than are necessary about their business, and have repeatedly shewn great valour in contending with their enemies.

8. The trading people, in general, are said to exert all their skill to take advantage of the folly or ignorance of those with whom they have any dealing ; and are great extortioners, when there is no law to restrain them ; but in other cases they are the plainest and best dealers in the world. Those who live on their patrimonial estates in great cities resemble the merchants and tradesmen in the modesty of their dress, and their parsimonious way of living ; but between the education and manners in those classes there is a wide difference.

9. The gentry or nobility are usually employed in military service ; they value themselves much on their rank ; but their most conspicuous characteristic is a great frugality and order in their expenses ; what they can spare from their domestic charges is laid out in the ornament and furniture of their houses, rather than in keeping great tables, fine clothes, and equipages.

Sect. 2. Of their Houses, Diet, and Amusements.

10. The lower part of the houses in Holland is lined with white Dutch tiles, and their kitchen furniture, consisting of copper, pewter, and iron, are kept so exceedingly bright, that it affords a striking proof of their cleanliness. Their beds and tables are covered with the finest linen, their rooms are adorned with pictures, and their yards and gardens with flowers. They heat their rooms with stoves, placed either underneath or round the apartments, which render the heat equal on all sides.

11. The women have little stoves or pans of lighted peat, which they put into a square box and lay under their feet. People of condition have these carried with them on visits, and even to church. The diet of the Dutch boors is usually mean, consisting mostly of roots, herbs, sour milk, and pulse, but in the towns, the common people live better. All ranks in the nation are much addicted to

the use of butter, and those of the inferior classes seldom take a journey without a butter-box in their pocket.

12. The diversions of the Hollanders are bowls, billiards, chess, and tennis. Shooting wild geese and ducks in winter, and angling in summer, make another part of their pastimes. In the most rigorous season of the year, sledges and skates are a great diversion. Both men and women use them alike, to carry their goods to market as well as for their pleasure. The sledge is drawn by a horse, or pushed along by a man on skates.

13. When the snow is upon the ground and the streets are frozen, young people of consequence appear abroad in the most magnificent sledges. The person drives the sledge himself, which is covered with a rich skin or caparison, and a fine tuft of feathers, and the rider is comfortably wrapped up in furs, or a fine Indian quilt. The sledges are of various shapes, finely painted, gilt, and varnished, and the harness is rich and splendid.

14. In summer, it is common to see multitudes of people walking out on the banks of fine canals, well planted with trees, or by the sea-shore, or in public tea-gardens. Almost all these excursions end in the tavern, where they meet with a variety of little amusements and agreeable entertainment at a cheap rate.

15. Even common labourers indulge themselves in such recreations. The same distinctions are not maintained in Holland between wealthy traders and mechanics as in other countries. They converse pretty much on a level; neither is it easy to know the man from the master, or the maid from her mistress.

Sect. 3. Of Dutch modes of travelling.

16. Their usual mode of travelling is in covered boats, drawn by a horse at the rate of three miles an hour, for which the fare does not exceed a penny a mile. A passenger in such a vehicle has the convenience of carrying a portmanteau or provisions, so that he need not be at any expence in a public house by the way. The Inns generally afford a soft bed and clean linen; but it is difficult to procure any other chamber than one of the several little cabins, that are ranged round a great room, where people

of different ranks lie promiscuously and disturb one another the whole night.

17. Although the common fare is at the rate of a penny per mile, yet strangers are usually counselled to engage the *roof* or *ruffle*, which is the name distinguishing the best cabin, and for those who are averse from mixing with a promiscuous society, and have a decided antipathy to smoke, it is certainly a wise precaution. In engaging this, a traveller will have an example of Dutch accuracy in their minutest transactions; a formal printed receipt or ticket is given for the few pence which it costs, by a commissary, who has no other business than to regulate the affairs of the boats.

18. The punctuality of the departure and arrival of these boats is well known, and justifies the method of reckoning distances by hours rather than by leagues or miles. Every man who enters the boat, whatever be his condition, either brings a pipe in his mouth or in his hand. A slight touch of the hat, upon entering the cabin, franks him for the whole time of his stay; and the laws of etiquette allow him to smoke in silence to the end of his passage.

19. We see, as at a meeting of Quakers, fixed features, and changeless postures; the whole visage is mysterious, and solemn, but betraying more of absence than intelligence. Hours will pass and no mouth expand, but to whiff the smoke; nor any limb be put in motion, except to rekindle the pipe. Nothing can wear a more awkward appearance than their carriages, the bodies of which are placed on low sledges, and drawn by one horse.

20. The driver is on foot, and in addition to the concern of the horse, he is obliged to watch every movement of the sledge, that the carriage may not be upset; for which purpose he walks by the side, with the reins in one hand, and in the other a wetted rope, which he sometimes throws under the sledge to prevent it taking fire, and to fill up the little gaps in the pavement. Of these sledges there are great numbers in the city of Amsterdam; the price is about eight pence for any distance within the city, and eight pence an hour for attendance. Some few years past no four-wheeled carriages were to be seen.

21. "Oh happy streets! to rumbling wheels unknown,
No carts, no coaches, shake the floating town."

Later refinements have at length introduced them, and this inelegant and inexpeditious mode of travelling and airing is abandoned to persons whose fortune or frugality admit not of a more costly equipage.

Sect. 4. Of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, North Holland, &c.

22. Almost all the principal thoroughfares of Amsterdam are narrow; but the carriages being few, and their motion slow, the foot passengers are perfectly safe, though there is no raised pavement for them. There are broad terraces to the streets over the two chief canals, but these are sometimes encumbered by workshops placed immediately over the water, between which and the houses the owners maintain an intercourse of packages and planks, with very little care about the freedom of the passage.

23. The ardour, the activity, the crowd, and the bustle which prevail in all quarters of the port are inconceivable. Bells are sounding, and vessels parting at all hours. Piles of merchandise and throngs of passengers fill all the avenues. It appears the mart of exhaustless plenty, and the grand depository of Europe. The streets are filthy as well as narrow; the whole city pierced with an infinity of canals, which cut each other in every possible direction.

24. The principal edifices in Holland are founded on piles, owing to the swampiness of the ground. The whole country being as it were taken from the ocean, has afforded Butler an object for his raillery: in his description he alludes to the character of the Dutch, as being employed by all nations in exporting and importing merchandise.

25. It may be constantly observed of the Dutch, that they will never, either in their societies or in their business, employ their time for a moment in gratifying malice, indulging envy, or assuming those petty triumphs which fill life with so much misery: but they will seldom step one inch out of their way, or surrender one moment of their time, to save those they do not know from any inconvenience.

26. A Dutchman throwing cheeses into a warehouse, or drawing iron along a pathway, will not stop while a lady or inferior person passes unless he sees somebody inclined to protect them; a warehouse man trundling a cask, or a woman in her favourite occupation of throwing water upon her windows, will leave it entirely to the passengers to take care of their limbs or their clothes.

27. In Rotterdam, the streets, markets, and quays, are crowded with the sons of industry. Every coffee-house is an exchange, and all the society cultivated refers to bargain, transfers, and contracts. There are no theatres but warehouses, no routs but on the change, no amusements but that of balancing their profits. They shew but little deference to a stranger, if he appears to have no interest in their commercial transactions.

28. He may dine with them, without obtaining the interchange of a minute's conversation. Their language seems formed for them, and they for the language. Rude, harsh, and guttural, it does not appear to be adapted for the polite intercourse of society nor the effusions of love. Gallantry and politeness are playthings to tare and tret; and all the courtly graces of language, are baubles, compared with those sinewy terms that tie and untie with effect the knots of trade.

29. Industrious habits in each bosom reign,
 And industry begets a love of gain;
 Hence all the good from opulence that springs,
 With all those ills superfluous treasure brings,
 Are here displayed. Their much lov'd wealth imparts
 Convenience, plenty, elegance, and arts;
 But view them closer, craft and fraud appear,
 E'en liberty itself is barter'd here.

30. At gold's superior charm all freedom flies,
 The needy sell it, and the rich man buys,
 A land of tyrants, and a den of slaves,
 Here wretches seek dishonourable graves,
 And calmly bent, to servitude conform,
 Dull as their lakes that sleep beneath the storm.

31. A stranger will often be struck with the sight of wagons filled with large brass jugs, bright as new gold. In these vessels which have short narrow necks, covered with a wooden stopper, milk is brought from the fields throughout Holland. It is carried to the towns in light

wagons or carts drawn by excellent horses. On a holiday, or at a fair time in the villages, may be seen peasants sitting on benches round a circle in which children are dancing to the scraping of a French fiddler.

32. The women wear large hats, such as have been already described, lined with damask or flowered linen. Children of seven years old, as well as women of seventy are in this preposterous disguise. All on those occasions have necklaces, ear-rings, and ornamental clasps for the temples, of solid gold. At the fair at the Hague, there are theatres, reviews, and every other species of amusement; all the public roads are filled with carriages, and the streets crowded with puppet-shows, mountebanks, and wild beasts.

33. In North Holland the inside of the houses are richly decorated, and finished with the most costly ornaments; but the principal apartments are often kept for show, while the owners live in cellars and garrets. Some of the rooms are paved with small square tiles put together without cement. The furniture in one particular chamber is composed of silken ornaments, which, by ancient prescription is bequeathed from father to son, and preserved as an offering to Hymen: such is the custom of these Arcadian villages from generation to generation.

34. There is likewise a practice common to all the natives of North Holland: to every house, of whatever quality, there is an artificial door, elevated nearly three feet above a level with the ground, and never opened but on two occasions. When any part of the family marries, the bride and bridegroom enter the house by this door; and when either of the parties die, the corpse is carried out by the same door. Immediately after the due ceremonies are performed in either of those cases, this door is fastened up, never more to turn on its hinges again, till some new event of a similar nature demand its services. The extraordinary neatness which prevails through the whole is a prodigy.

Note. Holland is bounded on the west by the German ocean, east by the province of Utrecht, south by Dutch Brabant, and north by the Zuyder Sea. The population is estimated at 1,200,000. Amsterdam is situated at the confluence of the rivers Amstel and Wye, 175 miles

east by north from London. Its population in 1806 was reckoned at 300,000. Rotterdam is seated on the Merwe, a branch of the river Maese, 30 miles south of Amsterdam, in 52° north latitude. Population 40,000. Hague, ten miles northwest of Rotterdam, contains 45,000 inhabitants.

Questions.

- What is the situation of Holland ?
 How bounded ?
 What are the diversions of the Hollanders ?
 What is their mode of travelling ?
 Into how many classes are the inhabitants divided ?
 What are the principal characteristics of the people ?
 What are the rivers of Holland ?
 What is the situation of Amsterdam ?
 What of Rotterdam ?
 What of Hague ?

BATTLE OF THE NILE.—*Southey.*

1. ON the 25th of July, 1798, Nelson sailed from Syracuse for the Morea. Anxious beyond measure, and irritated that the enemy should so long have eluded him, the tediousness of the nights made him impatient ; and the officer of the watch was repeatedly called on to let him know the hour, and convince him, who measured time by his own eagerness, that it was not yet day break. The squadron made the Gulph of Coron on the 28th.

2. Trowbridge entered the port, and returned with intelligence that the French had been seen about four weeks before, steering to the S. E. from Candia. Nelson then determined immediately to return to Alexandria ; and the British fleet accordingly, with every sail set, stood once more for the coast of Egypt. On the first of August they came in sight of Alexandria : and at four in the afternoon Captain Hood, in the *Zealous*, made the signal for the French fleet.

3. For many preceding days, Nelson had hardly taken any sleep or food ; he now ordered his dinner to be served,

while preparations were making for the battle ; and when his officers rose from table, and went to their separate stations, he said to them : “ Before this time tomorrow I shall have gained a peerage, or Westminster Abbey.” The French steering direct for Candia, had made an angular passage for Alexandria ; whereas Nelson, in pursuit of them, made straight for that place, and thus materially shortened the distance.

4. The comparative smallness of his force made it necessary to sail in close order, and it covered a less space than it would have done if the frigates had been with him : the weather also was constantly hazy. These circumstances prevented the English from falling in with the enemy on the way to Egypt, and during the return to Syracuse there was still less probability of discovering them. The advantage of numbers both in ships, guns, and men was in favour of the French.

5. They had 13 ships of the line and 4 frigates, carrying 1196 guns, and 11,230 men. The English had the same number of ships of the line, and one 50 gun ship ; carrying 1012 guns, and 8068 men. The English ships were all 74's : the French had three 80 gun ships, and one three decker of 120. During the whole pursuit, it had been Nelson's practice, whenever circumstances would permit, to have his captains on board the Vanguard, and explain to them his own ideas of the different and best modes of attack, and such plans as he proposed to execute on falling in with the enemy, whatever their situation might be.

6. There is no possible position, it is said which he did not take into calculation. His officers were thus fully acquainted with his principles of tactics : and such was his confidence in their abilities, that the only thing determined upon, in case they should find the French at anchor, was for the ships to form as most convenient for their mutual support, and to anchor by the stern. “ First gain the victory,” he said, “ and then make the best use of it you can.”

7. The moment he perceived the position of the French, that intuitive genius with which Nelson was endowed, displayed itself ; and it instantly struck him, that where there was room for an enemy's ship to swing, there was room for one of ours to anchor. The plan which he in-

tended to pursue, therefore, was to keep entirely on the outer side of the French line, and station his ships, as far as he was able, one on the outer bow, and another on the outer quarter of each of the enemy's.

8. This plan of doubling on the enemy's ships was projected by Lord Hood, when he designed to attack the French fleet at their anchorage in Gourjean road. Lord Hood found it impossible to make the attempt; but the thought was not lost upon Nelson, who acknowledged himself, on this occasion, indebted for it to his old and excellent commander. Captain Berry, when he comprehended the scope of the design, exclaimed with transport, "If we succeed, what will the world say!"—"There is no *if* in the case," replied the admiral; "that we shall succeed is certain; who may live to tell the story, is a very different question."

9. As the squadron advanced, the enemy opened a steady fire from the starboard side of their whole line full into the bows of our van ships. It was received in silence; the men on board of every ship were employed aloft furling the sails, and below in tending the braces, and making ready for anchoring. A miserable sight for the French; who with all their skill and all their courage, and all their advantages of numbers and situation, were upon that element, on which, when the hour of trial comes, a Frenchman has no hope.

10. Admiral Brueys was a brave and able man; yet the indelible character of his country broke out in one of his letters, wherein he delivered it as his private opinion, that the English had missed him, because, not being superior in force they did not think it prudent to try their strength with him. The moment was now come in which he was to be undeceived. A French brig was instructed to decoy the English, by manoeuvring so as to tempt them towards a shoal lying off the island of Bequieres; but Nelson either knew the danger, or suspected some deceit; and the lure was unsuccessful.

11. Captain Foley led the way in the Goliath, out sailing the Zealous, which for some minutes disputed this post of honour with him. He had long conceived, that if the enemy were moored in line of battle in with the land, the best plan of attack would be, to lead between them and

the shore, because the French guns on that side were not likely to be manned, nor even ready for action.

12. Intending, therefore, to fix himself on the inner bow of the *Guerrier*, he kept as near the edge of the bank as the depth of water would admit; but his anchor hung, and having opened his fire, he drifted to the second ship, the *Conquerant*, before it was clear: then anchored by the stern, inside of her, and in ten minutes, shot away her masts. Hood, in the *Zealous*, perceiving this, took the station which the *Goliath* intended to have occupied, and he totally disabled the *Guerrier* in twelve minutes.

13. The third ship which doubled the enemy's van, was the *Orion*, Sir J. Saumarez; she passed to windward of the *Zealous*, and opened her larboard guns as long as they bore on the *Guerrier*; then passing inside the *Goliath*, sunk a frigate, which annoyed her, hauled round toward the French line, and anchoring inside, between the fifth and sixth ships from the *Guerrier*, took her station on the larboard bow of the *Franklin*, and the quarter of the *Peuple Souverain*, receiving and returning the fire of both.

14. The sun was now nearly down. The *Audacious*, Captain Gould, pouring a heavy fire into the *Guerrier* and the *Conquerant*, fixed herself on the larboard bow of the latter; and when that ship struck, passed on to the *Peuple Souverain*. The *Theseus*, Captain Miller, followed, brought down the *Guerrier's* remaining main and mizen masts, then anchored inside of the *Spartiate*, the third in the French line. While these advanced ships doubled the French line, the *Vanguard* was the first that anchored on the outer side of the enemy, within half-pistol shot of their third ship, the *Spartiate*.

15. Nelson had six colours flying in different parts of his rigging, lest they should be shot away;—that they should be struck, no British admiral considers as a possibility. He veered half a cable, and instantly opened a tremendous fire; under cover of which the other four ships of his division, the *Minotaur*, *Bellerophon*, *Defence*, and *Majestic*, sailed on ahead of the admiral. In a few minutes, every man stationed at the first six guns in the fore part of the *Vanguard's* deck, was killed or wounded; these guns were three times cleared.

16. Captain Lewis, in the *Minotaur*, anchored next ahead, and took off the fire of the *Aquilon*, the fourth in the enemy's line. The *Bellerophon*, Captain Darby, passed ahead, and dropt her stern anchor on the starboard bow of the *Orient*, seventh in the line. Bruey's own ship, of 120 guns, whose difference in force was in proportion of more than seven to three, and whose weight of ball, from the lower deck alone, exceeded that from the whole broadside of the *Bellerophon*.

17. Captain Peyton, in the *Defence*, took his station ahead of the *Minotaur*, and engaged the *Franklin* the sixth in the line; by which judicious movement the British line remained unbroken. The *Majestic*, Captain Westcott, got entangled with the main rigging of one of the French ships astern of the *Orient*, and suffered dreadfully from that three decker's fire; but she swung clear and closely engaged the *Heureux*, the ninth ship on the starboard bow, receiving also the fire of the *Tenant* which was the eighth in the line.

18. The other four ships in the British squadron, having been detached previous to the discovery of the French, were at a considerable distance when the action began. It commenced at half after six; about seven, night closed, and there was no other light than that from the fire of the contending fleets. Trowbridge in the *Culloden*, the foremost of the remaining ships, was two leagues astern. He came on sounding, as the other had done.

19. As he advanced, the increasing darkness increased the difficulty of the navigation; and suddenly, after having found eleven fathoms' water, before the lead could be hove again, he was fast aground; nor could all his own exertions, joined to those of the *Leander* and the *Mutine Brig*, which came to his assistance, get him off in time to bear a part in the action. His ship, however, served as a beacon to the *Alexander* and *Swiftsure*, which would else, from the course they were holding, have gone considerably farther on the reef, and must inevitably have been lost.

20. These ships entered the bay, and took their stations, in the darkness, in a manner still spoken of with admiration by all who remember it. Captain Hallowell in the *Swiftsure*, as he was bearing down, fell in with what seemed to be a strange sail: Nelson had directed his

ships to hoist four lights horizontally at the mizen peak, as soon as it became dark : and this vessel had no such distinction.

21. Hallowell, however, with great judgment, ordered his men not to fire ; if she was an enemy, he said she was in too disabled a state to escape ; but, from her sails being loose, and the way in which her head was, it was probable she might be an English ship. It was the *Bellerophon*, overpowered by the huge *Orient* : her lights had gone overboard, nearly 200 of her crew were killed, or wounded, all her masts and cables had been shot away ; and she was drifting out of the line, toward the leeside of the bay.

22. Her station, at this important time, was occupied by the *Swiftsure*, which opened a steady fire on the quarter of the *Franklin*, and the bows of the French admiral. At the same instant, Captain Ball, with the *Alexander*, passed under his stern and anchored withinside on his larboard quarter, raking him, and keeping up a severe fire of musquetry on his decks. The last ship which arrived to complete the destruction of the enemy was the *Leander*.

23. Captain Thompson, finding that nothing could be done that night to get off the *Culloden*, advanced with an intention of anchoring athwart hawse of the *Orient* : the *Franklin* was so near her ahead, that there was not room for him to pass clear of the two ; he therefore took his position athwart hawse of the latter, in such a position as to rake both. The two first ships of the French line had been dismasted within a quarter of an hour after the commencement of the action ; and the others had in that time suffered so severely, that victory was already certain.

24. The third, fourth, and fifth were taken possession of at half past eight. Meantime Nelson received a severe wound on the head from a piece of langridge shot. Berry caught him in his arms as he was falling. The great effusion of blood occasioned an apprehension that the wound was mortal ; Nelson himself thought so ; a large flap of the skin of the forehead, cut from the bone, had fallen over one eye ; and the other being blind, he was left in total darkness.

25. When he was carried down, the surgeon,—in the midst of a scene scarcely to be conceived by those who have never seen a cock-pit in time of action, and the he-

roism which is displayed amid its horrors,—with a natural and pardonable eagerness, quitted the poor fellow then under his hands; that he might instantly attend the admiral. “No,” said Nelson, “I will take my turn with my brave fellows.” Nor would he suffer his own wound to be examined till every man who had been previously wounded was properly attended to.

26. Fully believing that the wound was mortal, and that he was about to die, as he had ever desired, in battle, and in victory, he called the chaplain, and desired him to deliver what he supposed to be his dying remembrance to Lady Nelson; he then sent for Captain Louis on board from the *Minotaur*, that he might thank him personally for the great assistance which he had rendered to the *Vanguard*: and ever mindful of those who deserved to be his friends, appointed Captain Hardy from the brig, to the command of his own ship, Captain Berry having to go home with the news of the victory.

27. When the surgeon came in due time to examine his wound, (for it was in vain to entreat him to let it be examined sooner) the most anxious silence prevailed; and the joy of the wounded men, and of the whole crew, when they heard that the hurt was merely superficial, gave Nelson deeper pleasure than the unexpected assurance that his life was in no danger. The surgeon requested, and as far as he could, ordered him to remain quiet; but Nelson could not rest.

28. He called for his secretary, Mr. Campbell, to write the despatches. Campbell, had himself been wounded; and was so affected at the blind and suffering state of the admiral, that he was unable to write. The chaplain was then sent for; but before he came, Nelson, with his characteristic eagerness, took the pen, and contrived to trace a few words, marking his devout sense of the success which had already been obtained.

29. He was now left alone; when suddenly a cry was heard on the deck that the *Orient* was on fire. In the confusion, he found his way up unassisted and unnoticed; and to the astonishment of every one, appeared on the quarter deck, where he immediately gave order that boats should be sent to the relief of the enemy. It was soon after nine that the fire on board the *Orient* broke out.

30. Brueys was dead : he had received three wounds, yet would not leave his post ; a fourth cut him almost in two. He desired not to be carried below, but to be left to die upon deck. The flames soon mastered his ship. Her sides had just been painted ; and the oil-jars, and paint-buckets were lying on the poop. By the prodigious light of this conflagration, the situation of the two fleets could now be perceived, the colours of both being clearly distinguishable.

31. About ten o'clock the ship blew up. This tremendous explosion was followed by a silence not less awful ; the firing immediately ceased on both sides ; and the first sound which broke the silence, was the dash of the shattered masts and yards, falling into the water from the vast height from which they had been exploded. It is upon record, that a battle between two armies was once broken off by an earthquake :—such an event would be felt like a miracle ; but no incident in war, produced by human means, has ever equalled the sublimity of this instantaneous pause, and all its circumstances.

32. About seventy of the *Orient's* crew were saved by the English boats. Among the many hundreds who perished, were the Commodore, Casa, Bianca, and his son, a brave boy only ten years old. They were seen floating on the wreck of a mast when the ship blew up. She had money on board to the amount of 600,000*l.* A port fire from her fell into the main-royal of the *Alexander* ; the fire which it occasioned was speedily extinguished.

33. Captain Ball had provided, as far as human foresight could provide, against such a danger. All the shrouds and sails of his ship, which were not absolutely necessary for its immediate management, were thoroughly wetted, and so rolled up, that they were as hard and as little inflammable as so many solid cylinders. The firing recommenced with the ships to leeward of the centre, and continued till about three. At day-break, the *Guillaume Tell*, and the *Genereux*, the two rear ships of the enemy, were the only French ships of the line which had their colours flying : they cut their cables in the forenoon, not having been engaged, and stood out to sea, and two frigates with them.

34. The *Zealous* pursued ; but as there was no other ship in a condition to support Hood, he was recalled.

It was generally believed by the officers, that if Nelson had not been wounded, not one of these ships could have escaped; the four certainly could not, if the Culloden had got into action: and if the frigates belonging to the squadron had been present, not one of the enemy's fleet would have left Aboukir Bay.

55. These four vessels, however, were all that escaped; and the victory was the most complete and glorious in the annals of naval history. "Victory," said Nelson, "is not a name strong enough for such a scene;" he called it a conquest. Of thirteen sail of the line, nine were taken and two burnt: of the four frigates, one burnt, another sunk.

36. The British loss in killed and wounded amounted to 895. Westcott was the only captain that fell. 3105 of the French, including the wounded, were sent on shore by cartel; and 5225 perished. As soon as the conquest was completed, Nelson sent orders through the fleet, to return thanksgiving in every ship for the victory with which Almighty God had blessed his majesty's arms.

Note. Horatio Nelson, Lord Viscount, was the third son of the Rev. Edmund Nelson, England; and was born September 29. 1758. He entered the navy at 12 years of age. In October, 1805, he completely defeated the French off Trafalgar, in which engagement he lost his life by a musket ball discharged from the *round top* of one of the enemy's ships. It is said he had been engaged in upwards of one hundred naval actions; in most of which he was successful. He lost his right eye and arm several years previous to his death.

DEATH OF ARCHIMEDES.

1. DURING the sacking of Arcadina, Archimedes was shut up in his closet, and so intent on the demonstration of a geometrical problem, that neither the tumult and noise of the soldiers, nor the cries and lamentations of the people, could divert his attention. He was very deliberately drawing his lines and figures, when a

soldier entered his apartment, and clapped a sword to his throat.

2. "Hold friend," said Archimedes, "for one moment, and my demonstration will be finished." The soldier, astonished at the unconcern and intrepidity of the philosopher in such imminent danger, resolved to carry him to the proconsul. But Archimedes unfortunately taking with him a small box of mathematical and astronomical instruments, the soldier, supposing it contained silver and gold, and not being able to resist the force of temptation, killed him on the spot.

3. His death was much lamented by Marcellus, who caused his funeral to be performed with the greatest pomp and solemnity, and ordered a monument to be erected to his memory, among those illustrious men, who had distinguished themselves in Syracuse. The passion of this philosopher for mathematical knowledge was so strong, that he devoted himself entirely to the pleasures of study.

4. This gave occasion to the report, that he was so charmed with the soothing songs of a domestic tyrant, that he neglected the common concerns and occupations of life. Every other object he despised; and that he might not interrupt his pursuits, he frequently denied himself the necessaries of life. Hiero, king of Syracuse, prevailed by entreaties on the speculative geometrician, to descend to mechanics; and Archimedes constructed those wonderful machines for the defence of cities, the effects of which retarded, and might perhaps have completely defeated the taking of Syracuse. He is also said to have been the inventor of a sphere of glass, on which the periodical and synodical motions of the stars and planets were represented.

Note. Archimedes was a famous geometrician of Syracuse, who invented, besides a machine of glass that faithfully represented the motions of all the heavenly bodies, many articles of machinery, highly ingenious and astonishingly powerful.—Marcellus was a celebrated Roman consul.—Syracuse was an ancient and strong city of Sicily, in 37° north latitude.

DESCRIPTION OF A THUNDER STORM.

—*Thompson.*

BEHOLD! slow settling o'er the lurid grove,
 Unusual darkness broods, and, growing, gains
 The full possession of the sky, surcharg'd
 With wrathful vapor, from the secret beds
 Where sleep the mineral generations, drawn
 Thence nitre, sulphur, and the fiery spume
 Of fat bitumen, steaming on the day,
 With various tinctur'd trains of latent flame,
 Pollute the sky; and in yon baleful cloud,
 A reddening gloom, a magazine of fate,
 Ferment; till by the touch ethereal rous'd,
 The dash of clouds, or irritating war
 Of fighting winds, while all in calm below,
 They furious spring. A boding silence reigns,
 Dread thro' the dun expanse, save the dull sound
 That from the mountain, previous to the storm,
 Rolls o'er the muttering earth, disturbs the flood,
 And shakes the forest leaf without a breath.
 Prone to the lowest vale the aerial tribes
 Descend: the tempest-loving raven scarce
 Dares wing the dubious dusk. In rueful gaze
 The cattle stand, and on the scowling heavens
 Cast a deploring eye, by man forsook,
 Who to the crowded cottage hies him fast,
 Or seeks the shelter of the downward cave.
 'Tis listening fear and dumb amazement all:
 When to the startled eye the sudden glance
 Appears far south, eruptive through the cloud,
 And following slower, in explosion vast
 The thunder raises his tremendous voice.
 At first heard solemn o'er the verge of heaven,
 The Tempest growls; but as it nearer comes,
 And rolls its awful burden on the wind,
 The lightnings flash a larger curve, and more
 The noise astounds; till overhead a sheet
 Of livid flame discloses wide; then shuts,
 And opens wider; shuts and opens still
 Expansive, wrapping aether in a blaze:
 Follows the loosen'd aggravated roar
 Enlarging, deepening, mingling; peal on peal,

Crush'd horrible, convulsing heaven and earth.

Down comes a deluge of sonorous hail,
Or prone descending rain. Wide rent, the clouds
Pour a whole flood; and, yet its flame unquench'd,
'Th' unconquerable lightning struggles through,
Ragged and fierce, or in red whirling balls,
And fires the mountain with redoubled rage.
Black from the stroke, above the mouldering pine
Stands a sad shatter'd trunk; and stretch'd below,
A lifeless group the blasted cattle lie.
Here the soft flocks, with that same harmless look
They wore alive, and ruminating still
In fancy's eye, and there the frowning bull,
And ox half rais'd. Struck on the castle cliff,
The venerable tower and spiry fane
Resign their aged pride. The gloomy woods
Start at the flash, and from their deep recess
Wide flaming out their trembling inmates shake.
Amid Carnarvon's mountains rages loud
The repercussive roar: with mighty crush,
Into the flashing deep, from the rude rocks
Of Penmanmaur heap'd hideous to the sky
Tremble the smitten cliffs; and Snowden's peak,
Dissolving, instant yields his wintry load,
Far seen, the heights of heathy Cheviot blaze,
And Thule bellows through her utmost isles.

Guilt hears appal'd, with deep'y troubled thought,
And yet not always on the guilty head
Descends the fated flash. Young Celadon
And his Amelia were a matchless pair;
With equal virtue form'd, and equal grace,
The same, distinguish'd by their sex alone:
Her's the mild lustre of the blooming morn,
And his the radiance of the rising day.

They lov'd; but such their guiltless passion was,
As in the dawn of time inform'd the heart
Of innocence and undissembling truth;
'Twas friendship heighten'd by the mutual wish;
'Th' enchanting hope and sympathetic glow,
Beam'd from the mutual eye. Devoting all
To love, each was to each a dearer self,
Supremely happy in th' awaken'd power
Of giving joy. Alone, amid the shades,

Still in harmonious intercourse they liv'd
The rural day, and talk'd the flowing heart,
Or sigh'd and look'd unutterable things.
So pass'd their life, a clear united stream,
By care unruffled ; till, in evil hour,
The tempest caught them on the tender walk,
Heedless how far and where its mazes stray'd,
While with each other blest, creative love
Still bade eternal Eden smile around.
Presaging instant fate, her bosom heav'd
Unwonted sighs, and stealing oft a look
Of the big gloom of Celadon, her eye
Fell tearful, wetting her disorder'd cheek.
In vain assuring love, and confidence
In heaven, repress'd her fear ; it grew, and shook
Her frame near dissolution. He perceiv'd
Th' unequal conflict, and as angels look
On dying saints, his eyes compassion shed,
With love illumin'd high. " Fear not," he said,
" Sweet innocence ! thou, a stranger to offence,
" And inward storm ! He who yon skies involves
" In frowns of darkness, ever smiles on thee
" With kind regard. O'er thee the secret shaft
" That wastes at midnight, or th' undreaded hour
" Of noon, flies harmless : and that very voice
" Which thunders terror thro' the guilty heart,
" With tongues of seraphs whispers peace to thine.
" 'Tis safety to be near thee, sure, and thus
" To clasp perfection !" From his void embrace,
Mysterious heaven ! that moment, to the ground,
A blacken'd corse, was struck the beauteous maid.
But who can paint the lover as he stood,
Pierc'd by severe amazement, hating life,
Speechless, and fix'd in all the death of woe !
So, faint resemblance ! on the marble tomb,
The well-dissembled mourner stooping stands,
Forever silent and forever sad.

THE GRAND DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

—*Scott.*

Sect. 1. Europe.

1. **EUROPE** is the first of the grand divisions of the world. We can only say in general, that towards the east, it is bounded by Asia, without ascertaining the boundary line ; elsewhere the limits are more accurately defined ; from the Sea of Azoph to the Mediterranean on the southeast, through the Euxine, or Black Sea, the Bosphorus, the sea of Marmora, the Dardanelles, and the Archipelago ; on the south it is bounded by the Mediterranean ; on the west by the Atlantic ; and on the north by the Frozen Sea ; Cabloti Rocca or the Rock of Lisbon, on the coast of Portugal, being the most westerly point of land, longitude 10° west.

2. The most easterly point is in 60° east longitude. Its extent from south to north, is supposed to be from the 26th to the 72d degree of north latitude. The number of inhabitants in Europe is calculated at 150 millions : but it is certainly capable of supporting a much greater number. These form different states, which are sometimes united and sometimes divided, as different political interests may weigh ; each state speaks a different language, many of which are derived from the same original source, or are a mixture of others, formed and sanctioned by time.

3. Europe may be divided into 16 parts ; 4 to the north, viz. the British Islands, Denmark with Norway, Sweden and Russia ; 8 in the centre, viz. France, Netherlands, Switzerland, Germany, Bohemia, Hungary, Poland and Prussia, and four to the south, viz. Portugal, Spain, Italy, and European Turkey. Its length from east to west is reckoned at 1100 leagues, and its breadth from north to south about 900.

4. Although Europe is the smallest quarter of the earth in number of square miles, yet it may be considered as the principal in every thing relating to man in society, mildness of air, fertility of soil, whence are produced all the necessaries, and most of the luxuries of life ; for the beauty, strength, courage, and wisdom of its inhabi-

tants ; the excellence of its government, laws and religion.

5. The principal islands of Europe are Great Britain, Ireland, the Orcædes, the Hebrides, Iceland, the islands of Ferro in the Atlantic ; Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Candy, the Greek isles, Majorca, Minorca and others in the Mediterranean ; and in the Baltic are Zealand, Funen, Rugen, Bornholm, Gothland, Oesel, &c. The most considerable rivers are the Po and Tiber, in Italy ; the Rhine, the Danube, the Elbe, and the Oder, in Germany ; the Loire, the Seine, the Rhone and the Garonne in France ; the Tagus, and the Duero, in Spain ; the Vistula in Poland, the Dnieper, the Volga and the Don, in Russia ; the Thames and the Severn, in England ; the Tai, in Scotland ; the Shannon, in Ireland ; the Scheldt, and the Maese, in the Netherlands.

Note. The sea of Azoph lies north of the Black Sea, with which it communicates by the strait Caffa.—The Dardanelles are two castles in Turkey, that command the south west entrance of the strait of Gallipoli, or the ancient Hellespont.

Questions.

What are the boundaries of Europe ?

What the extent ?

How many inhabitants does it contain ?

Into how many parts is Europe divided ?

How many to the north ?

How many in the centre ?

How many to the south ?

What are the principal European islands in the Atlantic ?

What in the Mediterranean ?

What in the Baltic ?

What are the principal rivers in Germany ?

What in Italy ?

What in France ?

What in Spain ?

What in Poland ?

What in Russia ?

What in England ?

What in Scotland ?

What in Ireland?

What in the Netherlands?

Where is the sea of Azoph?

How does it communicate with the Black Sea?

Where are the Dardanelles?

Sect. 2. Asia.

6. Asia is situated between 20° and 184° east longitude comprehending 164 degrees, which, at 46 miles to a degree, are equal to 7544 miles, its greatest length. It is principally situated between the equator and 78° north latitude, a distance nearly equal to 5350 miles. The continent of Asia, in its extent from south west to north east includes nearly one third part of the circumference of the terraqueous Globe. It is bounded north by the frozen sea, east by Beerings Straits, which separate it from America, south east and south by the Pacific Ocean, south west by the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, and the east end of the Mediterranean, which divides it from that continent.

7. It is bounded west, by the Archipelago, the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, the Straits of Constantinople, the Black Sea, part of the Don and the Medwediza, thence by an imaginary line to the Wolga, along that river about 100 miles, and thence by the Oural mountains which divide European Russia from Siberia. The principal rivers of Asia are the Oby, Ennissey, Lena, Yana, Indighirka, Kolhima, Anadir, Amour, Whang or Yellow river, Kiam, Ta, Ava, Burampooter, Ganges, Indus, Wolga, Oxus, Tigris, and Euphrates; beside many more of less extent, though considerable rivers.

8. The most noted lakes are the Caspian, Aral, Baikal, and the Tong Ping. Asia contains several extensive ridges of mountains. Among these are the Altay, Saygansk, and Stanovay, Khrebet, in Siberia; the Taurus, and Antitaurus; besides those of Arabia, Persia, India and China. It is divided into a great many independent states; these are as follows; Japan, China, India east of the Ganges, which comprehends Tonquin, Cochin China, Pegu, Burmah, Assem, Siam, and Malacca.

9. India west of the Ganges, includes Bengal, Northern Circars, Orissa, Golconda, Carnatic, Travancore, Mysore,

Visapour, Amedinagur, Bahar, Allahabad, Agimere, Agra, Malwa, Candeish, Guzerat, Drelhi, and Lahore; Persia, and the Turkish and Russian Empires, which comprehends several extensive countries, the Asiatic Islands, said to amount to 150,000 in number, but of this there is no certainty.

10. Some geographers divide them into three classes and others into four, but this has reference only to the seas in which they are situated. Those most noted for commerce and European settlements, are the Japan Islands, the Ladrões, Formosa, Banda, Ternate, Celebes, Tidor, Mothier, Machian, Gilolo, Borneo, Brehian, Sumatra, Java, the Andaman and Nicobar Isles, Ceylon and Maldives, those in the Northern Archipelago, and those in the Mediterranean, which are Cyprus, Rhodes, Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Nicaria and Stanchio.

11. It is calculated that the population of the whole continent is not less than 650 millions. In some countries the population is ascertained with a degree of accuracy. Of others there are no data given, on which to found correct calculations, so that conjecture forms a part of the estimate. One thing is perhaps certain, that it contains more people than all the other parts of the globe. The inhabitants in the more southern part, are slender, effeminate, and of a dark complexion; remarkable for their ingenuity in certain manufactures, in colouring, and various kinds of workmanship.

12. In the northern regions, where active industry is more necessary, the inhabitants are hardy, stout, and warlike. Except a small number of christians of the Armenian and Greek churches, and those who have emigrated for mercenary purposes, from Europe, the inhabitants are Pagans and Mahometans. Asia approaching so near the equator and the north pole, includes a great variety of climates. With respect to richness of soil, and immense variety of productions, it is superior to any other of the continents. According to divine revelation, Asia was the region first inhabited by man and has since been the theatre of many wonderful events; but a relation of these belongs to the historian.

Note. The sea of Marmora, between Europe and Asia, is 120 miles in length and 50 in breadth. It communi-

cates with the Archipelago by the strait of Gallipoli, on the south west, and with the Black Sea by the strait of Constantinople, on the north east. The Red Sea, between Africa and Arabia, is 1300 miles from north to south and 200 broad. It is separated from the Mediterranean on the north, by the isthmus of Suez, south of which may be seen the aperture of the mountain, on the western side of the sea, through which the children of Israel passed into the water.

Questions.

- What is the situation of Asia?
- What are the boundaries?
- What are the principal rivers of Asia?
- What is the number of the lakes?
- What are the principal mountains?
- What are the independent states of Asia?
- What are the commercial islands?
- How many inhabitants has Asia?
- What is their religion?
- When was Asia first peopled?
- Where is the sea of Marmora?
- What is its length and breadth?
- How does it communicate with the Black Sea?
- What is the situation and extent of the Red Sea?
- How is it connected with the Mediterranean?

Sect. 3. Africa.

13. Africa is properly a vast peninsula, and the largest in the world. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, which separates it from Europe and part of Asia, on the west by the Atlantic Ocean, south by the Southern Ocean, north east by the Red Sea and the isthmus of Suez, which divide it from Asia, and east by the Indian Ocean. It is situated between latitude 37° north, and 34° south. Its greatest length from north to south is 4980 miles.

14. Cape Verd, which is the most westerly point of the continent, lies in longitude 57° east, and cape Guardafui which is the most easterly point in longitude 125° making the distance from east to west 3,989 miles. The number of empires, kingdoms, states or countries, into

which Africa is divided is not known to us; as a great part of the interior is yet unexplored.

15. Those that are known, and partly so, amount to about forty six, *viz.* Egypt, Barca, Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers and Morocco, all of which extend along the south coast of the Mediterranean.—Zaara, Biledulgerid, Tombut, Mundingo, Sierra Leona, Nigritia, Jaloffs, Pholey, Ardrah, Widah, Guinea, Commendo, Fetu, Anta, Jady, Axina, Benin, Angola, Benguela, Loango, Congo Proper, Monomotapa, Caffraria, Mosambique, Melinda, Sofala, Abex, Magadoxa, Aniam, Abyssinia, Bornou, Fezzan, Cashna, Brana, Nubia, &c.

16. The islands belonging to this coast are Madagascar, Babelmandel, Bourbon, Mauritius, Zocrata, Comoro isles, St. Helena, Bissagoes, Bissao, Goree, Cape de Verd, Canaries, Madeiras, Fernando Po, Annabon, St. Matthew and Ascension, besides some small ones. The principal rivers are the Nile, Niger, Sennegal, Gambia, Marbea, Gondet, Barodus, Tafilet, the river of the Elephants, and several others that fall into the Atlantic.

17. The rivers of the Holy Ghost, St. Christophers, St. Jago, Zebec, Magadoxa, and a few others fall into the Indian Ocean; of some of these rivers little more is known than the name, and the place where they fall into the sea. Its principal lakes are the Dambea, Zaftan, and Zambre or Zaire.

18. From this enumeration of lakes and rivers, one would suppose that Africa was well watered, but it is otherwise; some large districts being entirely destitute; and in the interior parts, there are vast tracts of light and barren sands, which are blown sometimes in such prodigious quantities by the winds, as to bury whole caravans, and suffocate the unfortunate traveller.

19. Africa is intersected by extensive ranges of lofty mountains; of which the most remarkable is the Atlas. This chain extends from the Atlantic, in an easterly direction, across the continent of Egypt. The mountains of the Moon, are said to be more elevated than those of Atlas; those of Sierra Leona, extend to Ethiopia. The most noted capes or promontories, are those of Good Hope, Cape Verd, Seven Capes, and Guardafui. The only strait belonging to Africa, is that of Babelmandel which connects the Red Sea and Indian Ocean.

20. The population of this country is unknown, and any calculation on that head can only be but vague conjecture : some have stated it at 150 millions. The different languages spoken by the inhabitants are the Coptic, Arabic, Greek, African or Morisco, a variety of negro dialects, Dutch, French, and Lingua Franca. Africa being intersected by the Equator, near the middle, the heat must of consequence be extremely great. On the sea-coast, the lands are generally extremely fertile. Of the four continents into which geographers have divided the terraqueous globe, Africa is the most conveniently situated for commerce.

21. Notwithstanding its superior advantages, neither the natives, nor Europeans have availed themselves of them ; for Africa remains, except in some places, an uncultivated wild ; and when we consider that it is richer in mines of gold, silver, and copper, than any of the other continents, whence this extreme neglect has arisen, appears inexplicable. The religious sects in this continent, except the European settlements, may be classed under three general heads, viz. Mahometanism, Paganism, and Copts, which last is less numerous than either of the two first.

22. It is said that Africa contains a greater variety of wild animals, than any of the other continents, and in greater abundance ; among which are the lion, tiger, panther, leopard, elephant, hippopotamus, zebra, giraffe, camel, dromedary and rhinoceros ; of which last there are two species in this division of the globe. One of the species has two horns growing out of its nose, and the other but one.

23. Of the European nations who have possessions in Africa, Portugal holds more than all the rest. The French, Dutch, and English have settlements on the south coasts of Guinea. The Portuguese trade to the east coast for senna, aloes, civit, ambergris, and frankincense. It is believed on good authority that a party of Phenicians sailed round Africa about 604 years before Christ ; yet it cannot be said that by this voyage any other knowledge of it was obtained, than that of its being a peninsula.

24. In 1412, the Portuguese fitted out an expedition, in order to explore the western coast ; but the discovery proceeded very slowly ; for it was not till after several

succeeding attempts, the last of which took place in 1497, under the command of Vasco de Gama, who doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and ascertained the true form of Africa.

Questions.

What are the boundaries of Africa ?

What is the extent ?

What are the countries ?

How many of these are on the south coast of the Mediterranean ?

What are the principal islands of Africa ?

What are the chief rivers ?

How many of these fall into the Atlantic ?

How many into the Indian Ocean ?

What are the lakes of Africa ?

What are the mountains ?

What are the capes ?

Of what quality is the soil on the sea-shore ?

Of what quality in the interior ?

What is the religion of Africa ?

Sect. 4. America.

25. America, is the fourth grand division of the earth, and by much the largest. It lies between 80° north, and 56° south latitude, a distance which at $69\frac{1}{2}$ miles to a degree, is equal to 9432 miles. Its easternmost point, which is Cape St. Roque, in South America, is 40° east longitude, and its westernmost point, which is cape Prince of Wales, at the south entrance of Beering's straits, is 93° west longitude. But the distance between these two extreme points, does not give the true breadth of the continent ; for it extends from north, to southeast, and intersects 80 degrees of the equator, forming, at each intersection, an acute angle with each meridian.

26. The greatest breadth of the continent, on a due east and west line, is from the east point of Labrador to Point Brooks, on the north west coast, which is 2906 miles, and its greatest breadth from cape St. Roque, on the Atlantic, to cape Blanco, in the south sea, is 2774. These are the two broadest parts of the continent. The

north and south divisions are connected by the isthmus of Darien, a narrow and mountainous strip of land, in some places reckoned but 60 miles over.

27. America is bounded on the north by the Frozen Sea, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the west by the South Sea and on the south by the South Atlantic and South Pacific oceans. It is more advantageously situated for commerce than Europe or Asia; but much less so than Africa. The distance across the Atlantic from Europe is 1100 leagues, and from Africa, for nearly 2000 miles from 500 to 700 leagues. It is separated from Asia by Beerings straits, which are only about 39 miles over.

28. Thence the coasts of these two continents trend greatly from each other: that of America to the south-east, and that of Asia to the southwest, giving a form to the north end of the Pacific ocean, approaching nearly to a semicircle. The greatest distance of the two continents is reckoned at 10,000 miles. Geographers have divided this continent into North and South America: that division lying north of the bay of Panama in 9° north latitude, is called North America, and that lying South of the latter, South America, though comprehending a tract of country upwards of 700 miles north of the equator.

29. The isthmus which connects the north and south divisions, forms an immense gulf, interspersed with many islands, called the West Indies, to distinguish them from those on the east coast of Asia, which are called the East Indies. The principal rivers in South America, are the Amazon, La Plata, Oronoque, and St. Francis, which, in extent and magnitude, are far superior to the largest rivers in the old world.

30. The most noted of those in North America, are the Mississippi, St. Lawrence, Missouri, Ohio, a branch of the Mississippi; Wabash, Tennessee, and Cumberland, though tributary streams of the Ohio, are large navigable rivers. Besides other large rivers of the United States, many of which are navigable from 50 to 300 miles. The most remarkable lakes are Superiour, Michigan, Huron, Erie, Ontario, Champlain, Slave Lake, and that of Niagara.

31. After this enumeration of lakes and rivers, it is

almost unnecessary to observe, that no quarter of the old world is so abundantly supplied with water, as our continent. The United States alone, contain nearly 100 rivers that are navigable, intersecting the country in various directions. Besides the lakes, some of which are, in comparison to those of the old hemisphere, large seas, open a navigable communication of more than 2000 miles, through the northern division of the continent.

32. The extensive countries of Amazonia, and Paraguay, in South America, are no less abundantly supplied with water, than the United States, by the rivers Amazon and La Plata, and their tributary streams. The former receives in its course upwards of 200 navigable rivers. With respect to the mountains which diversify our continent, the operations of nature are no less wonderful, than they are in regard to the rivers and lakes.

33. The most noted in North America, are the Appalachian mountains, a vast chain extending in a south west direction, nearly 1000 miles through the United States. The White mountains in New Hampshire, the Green mountains in Vermont, and an extensive range that stretches from the plains of Mexico, to the northwest, called the Shining mountains. In South America, is that immense range called the Cordillera of the Andes, which for extent and elevation surpasses every other chain of mountains in the known world.

34. It commences near the isthmus of Darien and extends through the whole of the south division to the Straits of Magellan, a distance of 4500 miles. The most elevated point of the Andes, according to Don Ulloa, is 20,280 feet above the level of the sea, being 7200 feet higher than the Peak of Teneriffe; and 4618 above Mount Blanc, the loftiest mountain in Europe. America, from its extending so far north and south enjoys all the varieties of climate the earth affords.

35. In the northern latitudes the climates are notwithstanding, marked by some peculiarities, the winters being much colder than those countries in Europe under the same parallel. In Newfoundland, and Cape Breton, at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, the winters are very severe, yet these lie opposite to France; and in Terrade Labrador, the winters are intolerable to an European,

though that country lies nearly in the same parallel with Great Britain.

36. The New England states lie opposite to the Bay of Biscay; New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, are intersected by the same parallels with Spain and Portugal, though in these the winters are not so cold by several degrees as with us. From the great extent of America, on each side the equator, it possesses all that diversity of soil found on the habitable globe. The great variety of natural productions, are perhaps more abundant than in any of the other quarters.

37. Platina, gold, silver, iron, lead and copper are the principal metals. The increase of the precious metals in Europe, since the discovery of America, is astonishing, notwithstanding the sums sent annually to China, which never return. South America produces also considerable quantities of diamonds, emeralds, amethysts, &c. But it furnishes abundant articles of more utility to mankind.

38. Of these are reckoned, cochineal, indigo, sugar, coffee, rice, arnatta, logwood, brasil, fustic, pimento, lignum-vitæ, ginger, cocoa, redwood, the balsam of Tolu and Peru, jesuit's bark, sassafras, caesia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots and plants; it likewise affords the greatest plenty of finest fruits; besides a vast number of culinary roots and vegetables. The fertility of its soil, is calculated for raising, in the highest degree of perfection, almost all kinds of exotics.

39. It also furnishes an immense variety of birds; some of which far exceed in beauty, colour, and shape, the most admired of those in the old world. The rivers, lakes, and sea-coasts abound in the greatest variety and number of fish. Beginning north, the king of Great Britain possesses Labrador, with the countries around Hudson's Bay, Upper and Lower Canada and Nova Scotia. The islands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Providence, Jamaica, St. Christopher, Antigua, Dominica, Nevis, Barbuda, Anguila, Montserrat, St. Vincent, Barbadoes, the Granades, Granadillas and Bermudas, besides some others.

40. The United States, comprehend one federal republic. Many divisions of South America have thrown off the yoke of foreign subjection and have formed themselves

into independent republicks. From the census taken of the United States, of Canada, and a part of Mexico, and estimating the population of the other parts by these, the whole number of inhabitants in America does not exceed 35 millions.

41. Many opinions have been formed, by different writers, about the peopling of this continent. America took its name from Americus Vespucius, a Florentine, who accompanied Ojeda, a Spanish adventurer, on a voyage of discovery; and having drawn up an entertaining history of his voyage, it was published and read with avidity. In his narrative he had the artifice to insinuate that he was the first that discovered this world.

42. Many of his readers gave credit to the insinuation; from which circumstance it assumed the name of America. Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, was the first who in 1492 made this continent known to Europeans. Dr. Foster in his collections of northern voyages, has satisfactorily proved, that America was discovered by the Norwegians, some centuries before Columbus made his discovery; but the knowledge of it seemed to be entirely lost to the Europeans, except what remained in manuscript accounts, and these perhaps in the possession of persons who could not read them.

Note. The Oronoque has its source in the Andes, and after running 1400 miles falls into the Gulf of Paria, opposite the island of Trinidad, in 5° north latitude. The Mississippi rises in Bear Lake, in 48° north latitude and 98° west longitude, and enters the Gulf of Mexico in 29° north latitude. Its principal tributaries are the Missouri from the west, and the Illinois, Ohio, and Tennessee from the east. It is navigable to St. Anthony's falls in 45° north latitude.

Lake Superior, between 45° and 50° north latitude, and 84° and 92° west longitude, is 1500 miles in circumference; it is the largest body of fresh water on the globe. Michigan which is wholly within the United States, lies between 41° and 45° north latitude and 84° and 87° west longitude; and is 950 miles in circumference. It communicates with lake Huron, at the north eastern part, through the straits of Michillimakinak. Lake Huron, a part of which lies within the United States, in a medium latitude of 45° .

north, is 1000 miles in circumference. It communicates with lake Superior on the north west and lake St. Clair on the south.

Questions.

- What are the boundaries of America?
- What are the extremes of latitude?
- What of longitude?
- How are the north and south divisions of America connected?
- What is the distance from Europe to America across the Atlantic?
- What is the distance from Africa to America?
- What is the distance from Asia, across Beering's Straits?
- What is the name of the bay between North and South America?
- What is the latitude of this bay?
- What are the principal rivers of South America?
- What are their magnitudes compared with those of the old world?
- What are the mountains of South America?
- What are the most noted rivers of North America?
- What are the most remarkable lakes of North America?
- What are the most noted mountains?
- Where do the Andes of South America commence?
- Where do they terminate?
- What is their greatest elevation above the level of the sea?
- What are the native metals of America?
- What is the climate?
- Where is the source of the river Oronoque?
- What is its length?
- Where does it fall into the ocean?
- Where is the source of the Mississippi river?
- In what degree of latitude?
- Into what gulf does it discharge its waters?
- In what latitude is this gulf?
- For what distance is the Mississippi navigable?
- Where are the falls of St. Anthony?
- What are the principal tributaries of the Mississippi?
- Where is lake Superior situated?
- How many miles is it in circumference?

Where is lake Michigan ?

Where are the straits Michillimakinak ?

Where is lake Huron ?

With what other lakes does it communicate ?

When was America first discovered ?

By whom ?

Sect. 5. New Holland.

43. New Holland, the fifth and last grand division, is situated between 10 and 43° south latitude, and between 131 and 174° west longitude. Its square surface exceeds that of Europe. When it was first discovered is uncertain ; about the beginning of the last century, the north and west coasts were explored by the Dutch, and in 1642, the south extremity was discovered by Tasman. In 1770, Capt. Cook traced the east and north east coast from 38° south latitude, and ascertained its separation from New Guinea.

44. In 1773, Capt. Furneaux, by connecting Tasman's discoveries with Capt. Cook's, completed the circuit. The land in that part of it discovered by Tasman called Van Diemen's land is for the most part of a good height, diversified with hills and vallies. Dogs are the only tame animal in New Holland. Quadrupeds except the Kangaroo are scarce. This animal is about the size of a sheep ; the head, neck, and shoulders, are small in proportion to the body, the tail is thick, but tapering towards the end, and nearly as long as the body ; the skin is covered with a short fur of a mouse colour.

45. It does not go on all fours, but leaps ; the hind legs being three times the length of the fore legs, which it uses only for digging. The bats are as large as a partridge. Sea and water fowls, as gulls, shaggs, soland geese, ducks, and pelicans of an enormous size are numerous ; the land birds are crows, parrots, paroquets, and other birds of excellent plumage, doves, quails, bustards, herons, cranes, hawks, eagles, and numerous flocks of pigeons, exceedingly beautiful.

46. The sea affords various kinds of fish, and some very delicious ; none except the mullet, and some of the shell fish, are known in Europe ; green turtle, lobsters, crabs, muscles, and cockles of an enormous size, and several kinds

of oysters, are found in abundance. In the mud, under the mangroves, are found some pearl oysters. New Holland has few inhabitants. Captain Cook named this country New South Wales. A British regiment of foot was sent thither, and a new colony formed of convicts, transported, under the command of a governor and other officers.

Questions.

What is the situation and extent of New Holland ?

Is it larger or smaller than Europe ?

Is the date of its first discovery ascertained ?

What is the face of the country ?

What is the quality of the soil ?

Has New Holland many inhabitants ?

DESTRUCTION OF CARTHAGE. BEFORE CHRIST 146 YEARS.—*Ancient History.*

1. THE Carthaginians perceived the wisdom of Annibal, who had foreseen the consequences of their conduct ; but it was now too late either to profit by his sagacity or his assistance. Affrighted at the Roman armaments, against which they were totally unprepared, they immediately condemned those who had broken the league, and most humbly offered adequate satisfaction. To these submissions, the senate only returned an evasive answer, demanding three hundred hostages within thirty days, as a security for their future conduct, and an implicit obedience to their commands.

2. With these rigid conditions it was supposed the Carthaginians would not comply ; but it turned out otherwise, for this infatuated people sacrificing every thing to their love of peace, sent their children within the limited time ; and the consuls landing at Utica soon after, were waited upon by deputies from Carthage, to know the senate's further demands, as certain of a ready acceptance.

3. The Roman generals were not a little perplexed in what manner to drive them to resistance ; wherefore Gen-

sorinus, the consul, commending their diligence, demanded all their arms; but these also, contrary to expectation, they delivered up. At last it was found that the conquerors would not desist from making demands, while the suppliants had any thing left to supply.

4. They therefore received orders to leave their city, which was to be levelled to the ground; at the same time, being allowed to build another in any part of their territories, not less than ten miles from the sea. This severe and despotic injunction they received with all the concern and distress of a despairing people; they implored for a respite from such a hard sentence; they used tears and lamentations: but finding the consuls inexorable, they departed with a gloomy resolution, prepared to suffer the utmost extremities, and to fight to the last for their seat of empire, and the habitations of their ancestry.

5. A general spirit of resistance seemed to inspire the whole people against their imperious foes; and they, now too late, began to see the danger of riches in a state, when it had no longer power to defend them. Those vessels, therefore, of gold and silver, which their luxury had taken such pride in, were converted into arms, as they had formerly given up their iron, which in their present circumstances, was the most precious metal.

6. The women also parted with their ornaments, and even cut off their hair, to be converted into strings for their bowmen. Asdrubal, who had been lately condemned for opposing the Romans, was now taken from prison to head their army; and such preparations were made, that when the consuls came before the city, which they expected to find an easy conquest, they met with such repulses, as quite dispirited their forces, and shook their resolution.

7. Several engagements were fought before the walls, generally to the disadvantage of the assailants; so that the siege would have been discontinued, had not Scipio Æmilianus, the adopted son of Africanus, who was appointed to command it, used as much skill to save his forces after a defeat, as to inspire them with hopes of ultimate victory. But all his arts would have failed, had he not found means to seduce Pharneas, the master of the Carthaginian horse, who came over to his side.

8. From that time he went on successfully; and, at

length the inhabitants were driven into the citadel. He then cut off all supplies of provisions from the country ; and next blocked up the haven ; but the besieged, with incredible industry, cut out a new passage into the sea, by which they could receive necessaries from the army without. Scipio perceiving this, set upon them in the beginning of the ensuing winter, killed seventy thousand of their men, and took ten thousand prisoners of war.

9. The unhappy townsmen, though now bereft of all external succour, still resolved upon every extremity, rather than submit ; but they soon saw the enemy make nearer approaches ; the wall which led to the haven was quickly demolished ; soon after the Forum was taken, which offered the conquerors a deplorable spectacle of houses, nodding to their fall, heaps of men lying dead, or the wounded struggling to emerge from the carnage around them, and deploring their own and their country's ruin.

10. The citadel next surrendered at discretion ; and all now except the temple, was carried, which was defended by deserters from the Roman army, and those who had been most active in promoting the war. These, however, expecting no mercy, and finding their condition desperate, set fire to the building, and voluntarily perished in the flames. Asdrubal, the Carthaginian general surrendered himself to the Romans when the citadel was taken ; but his wife and two children rushed into the temple while on fire and expired with their country.

11. The conflagration was now extended by the merciless conquerors over the whole of this noble city, which being twenty four miles in circumference, the burning continued for seventeen successive days. The senate of Rome, indeed, ordered, that it should be levelled with the ground and interdicted its being rebuilt. The first part of their cruel command was strictly executed ; the latter remained in force only for a time. All the cities which assisted Carthage in this war were likewise devoted to the same fate, and the lands belonging to them were given to the friends of the Romans.

CAPTURE OF QUEBEC BY WOLFE.—*Silliman.*

1. ON the twelfth of September, 1759, one hour after midnight, General Wolfe, with his army, leaving the ships, embarked in boats, and silently dropped down with the current, intending to land a league above Cape Diamond, and thus to gain the heights of Abraham. But, owing to the rapidity of the current, they fell below their intended place, and disembarked at what is now called Wolfe's cove, a mile, or a mile and a half above the city.

2. The operation was a most critical one—they had to navigate in silence, down a rapid stream—to hit upon a right place for a landing, which in the dark might be easily mistaken—the shore was shelving, and the bank to be ascended, steep and lofty, and scarcely practicable, even without opposition. Doubtless, it was this combination of circumstances, which lulled the vigilance of the wary discerning Montcalm: he thought such an enterprise absolutely impracticable, and therefore had stationed only sentinels and picket guards along this precipitous shore.

3. Indeed, the attempt was in the greatest danger of being defeated by an occurrence, which is very interesting, as marking much more emphatically, than dry official accounts can do, the very great delicacy of the transaction. One of the French sentinels, posted along the shore, challenged the English boats in the customary military language of the French, "*who goes there?*" to which a Captain of Frazer's regiment, who had served in Holland, and was familiar with the French language and customs, promptly replied, "*la France.*"

4. The next question was much more embarrassing, for the sentinel demanded "*to what regiment?*" The Captain who happened to know the name of one of the regiments which was up the river, with Bougainville, promptly rejoined, "*the Queen's.*" The soldier immediately replied, "*pass;*" for he concluded at once, that this was a French convoy of provisions, which, as the English had learned, from some deserters, was expected to pass down the river to Quebec.

5. The other sentinels were deceived in a similar manner; but one, less credulous than the rest, running down to the water's edge, called out, "*Why dont you speak*

boulder?” The same captain, with perfect self command, replied, “Hush, we shall be overheard and discovered.” The sentry satisfied with this caution retired. The British boats were on the point of being fired into, by the Captain of one of their own transport ships, who, ignorant of what was going on, took them for French; but General Wolfe perceiving a commotion on board, rowed along side in person, and prevented the firing which would have alarmed the town, and frustrated the enterprize.

6. General Wolfe, although greatly reduced by a fever, to which a dysentery was superadded, was nevertheless the first man to leap on shore. The rugged precipices, full of projections of rocks and of trees, and shrubs growing every where among the cliffs, into which the bank was broken, presented a most forbidding appearance, and General Wolfe familiarly speaking to an officer who stood by, said, “I don’t believe there is any possibility of getting up, but you must do your endeavour.”

7. There was only a narrow path, leading obliquely up the hill; this had been rendered by the enemy impassable, in consequence of being broken up by cross ditches, and there was besides an entrenchment at the top, defended by a captain’s guard. This guard was easily dispersed, and the troops then pulled themselves up by taking hold of the boughs and stumps of the trees and of the projections of the rocks.

8. This precipice (which may be in different places, from one hundred and fifty, to two hundred feet high,) is still very rude and rugged, but probably much less so than in 1759; it can now be surmounted, without very great difficulty, by men who are unmolested. Wolfe staked all upon a very hazardous adventure; had he been discovered prematurely, through a spy, a deserter, or an alarmed sentry, his army would have been inevitably lost; but having gained the heights, he formed his troops and met the enemy in good order.

9. The Plains of Abraham lie South and West of Quebec, and commence the moment you leave the walls of the city. They are a very elevated tract of ground; this must of course be the fact, as they are on the summit of the heights which terminate at the river; they are nearly level—free from trees and all other obstacles, and it is supposed were nearly so at the time of the battle.

It was about an hour before the dawn, that the army began to ascend the precipice, and by day light, they were formed and in perfect preparation to meet the enemy.

10. The Marquis de Montcalm, was no sooner informed that the English troops were in possession of the heights of Abraham than he prepared to meet them, and for this purpose marched his army across the Charles, from his entrenchments at Beauport, and between nine and ten o'clock the two armies met face to face. Montcalm's numbers were nearly the same as those of the English army, but nearly half his troops were Indians and Canadians, while the whole of Wolfe's were disciplined corps of the best description.

11. The French General could not now, as at Montmorenci, avail himself of the cover of entrenchments, behind which undisciplined troops, especially if skilled in marksmanship, have often repelled the assault of veterans. Montcalm made however the best possible disposition of his troops—apportioning his regulars in such distinct bodies, along the line, as to support the irregulars, in the most effectual manner.

12. In front, among the cornfields and bushes, he placed one thousand five hundred of his best marksmen, principally Indians and Canadians, whose destructive fire was patiently borne by the British line, but they reserved their own till the enemy, whose main body they perceived rapidly advancing, was within forty yards, when it was poured in upon the French, and continued with such deadly effect, that it could not be withstood.

13. The French fought bravely, but they were broken, and notwithstanding one or two efforts to make a stand, and renew the attack, they were so successfully pushed by the British bayonet and hewn down by the highland broad sword that their discomfiture was complete. The battle was particularly severe on the French right and the English left. This ground is very near the St. Lawrence, and but a little distance in front of the citadel, and all the events that passed there, must have been distinctly seen by those on the walls of Quebec.

14. It must have been a most interesting spectacle, and we can easily enter into the feelings of the American French, who viewed their country and their city, and their firesides, and homes, as involved in the issue of this

battle. With what emotions then, must they have seen their defenders, not only falling in the ranks, but driven by the furious onsets of the enemy to the walls of the city, where they were slaughtered by the bayonet and the broad sword, on the very glacis, and in the ditches, immediately under their eyes.

15. About one thousand of the French were killed and wounded, and more than half that number of the English; and it is thought that the French army would have been totally destroyed if the city had not opened its gates to receive a part, and if another part had not taken refuge in the works over the St. Charles. Montcalm was on the French left, and Wolfe on the English right, and here they both fell in the critical moment which decided the victory.

16. Wolfe, early in the action received a bullet in his wrist, but he bound it around with his handkerchief, and continued to encourage his troops: soon after, another ball penetrated his groin, but this wound although much more severe, he concealed, and persevered till a third bullet pierced his breast. It was not till that moment that he submitted to be carried into the rear of the line: he was no longer able to stand, and leaned his head upon the shoulder of a lieutenant who sat down for that purpose.

17. Being aroused by the distant sound of "they fly— they fly," he eagerly asked "who fly?" and being told it was the French, he replied, "I die happy." He asked to be sustained on his feet that he might once more behold the field, but his eyes were already swimming in death, his vision was gone, and he expired on the spot. His death has furnished a grand and pathetic subject for the painter, the poet, and the historian, and undoubtedly, (considered as a specimen of *mere military* glory) it is one of the most sublime that the annals of war afford.

Note. Quebec the capital of Lower Canada, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles. It is built on a high rock and divided into the upper and lower town. The houses are of stone; the fortifications are very strong, though irregular; and the harbour is safe and commodious. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants. Its latitude is 47 degrees north.

Questions.

In what latitude is Quebec ?

On what river is it situated ?

When was it taken from the French ?

By whom was it taken ?

On what is the town built ?

What is the strength of its fortifications ?

Where are the plains of Abraham ?

VOLCANIC MOUNTAINS.—COTOPAXI.—*Scott.*

1. THIS mountain is the loftiest of those volcanoes of the Andes, which, at recent epochs, have undergone eruptions. Notwithstanding it lies near the equator, its summit is covered with perpetual snows. The absolute height of Cotopaxi, is 18,876 feet, or three miles and a half, consequently it is 2,622 feet, or half a mile, higher than Vesuvius would be, were that mountain placed on the top of the Peak of Teneriffe! Cotopaxi is the most mischievous of the volcanics in the kingdom of Quito, and its explosions are the most frequent and disastrous.

2. The masses of scorice, and the pieces of rock, thrown out of this volcano, cover a surface of several square leagues, and would form, were they heaped together, a prodigious mountain. In 1738, the flames of Cotopaxi rose 3,000 feet, or upwards of half a mile above the brink of the crater. In 1744, the roarings of this volcano were heard at the distance of six hundred miles. On the 4th of April, 1768, the quantity of ashes ejected at the mouth of Cotopaxi was so great, that it was dark till three in the afternoon.

3. The explosion which took place in 1803, was preceded by the sudden melting of the snow which covered the mountain. For twenty years before, no smoke or vapour, that could be perceived, had issued from the crater; but in a single night, the subterraneous fires became so active, that at sun-rise, the external walls of the cone, heated to a very considerable temperature, appeared na-

ked, and of the dark colour which is peculiar to vitrified scoriae.

4. "At the port of Guayquil," says Humboldt, "fifty two leagues distant, in a straight line from the crater, we heard, day and night, the noise of this volcano, like continued discharges of a battery; and we distinguished these tremendous sounds even on the Pacific ocean." The form of Cotopaxi is the most beautiful and regular of the colossal summits of the high Andes.

5. It is a perfect cone, which, covered with a perpetual layer of snow, shines with a dazzling splendour at the setting of the sun, and detaches itself in the most picturesque manner from the azure vault above. This covering of snow conceals from the eye of the observer even the smallest inequalities of the soil; no point of rock, no stony mass, penetrating this coat of ice, or breaking the regularity of the figure of the cone.

Sect. 2. Mount Etna.

6. Mount Etna, now called Gibel by the inhabitants, is a volcano of Sicily. It is 63 miles in circumference at the base, and 10,954 feet in height. But travellers vary greatly in their accounts both of its height and circumference. This mountain, famous from the remotest antiquity, both for its bulk and terrible eruptions, stands in the eastern part of the island, in a very extensive plain. The crater is a little mountain, about a quarter of a mile perpendicular, and very steep, situated in the middle of a gently inclining plain, of about nine miles in circumference.

7. In the middle of the little mountain is a hollow about two miles and a half in circumference. It goes shelving down from the top, like an inverted cone. In the middle of this funnel is the tremendous and unfathomable gulph; from which continually issue terrible and confused noises, which in an eruption are increased to such a degree, as to be heard at a great distance. Of all its eruptions that of 1668, was the most terrible; it was attended with an earthquake that overturned the town of Catania, and buried 18,000 persons in its ruins.

8. On the side of the mountain fronting the south east is the celebrated chesnut tree called, "*Castagno di cento cavilli*," from its astonishing size, being large enough to

shelter 100 horses under its boughs. It stands single, upon a gentle rising; the land around it is an open pasture encircled with woods. This wonderful tree consists of five trunks, growing out of the same root; in the middle is a hut covered with tiles where the fruit of the tree is deposited. Mr. Swinburne measured it, an inch above the ground, and found it 196 feet in circumference. Reidesel measured it, and found it 204 palms.

Sect. 3. Mount Vesuvius.

9. Vesuvius is a celebrated volcano of Italy, six miles east of Naples. This mountain has two tops; one of which only goes by the name of Vesuvius, the other being now called Somma. The perpendicular height of Vesuvius, is only 3700 feet, though the ascent from the floor to the top is three Italian miles. One side of the mountain is well cultivated and fertile, but the south and west are entirely covered with cinders and ashes, while a sulphureous smoke constantly issues from the top, sometimes attended with the most violent explosions of stone, the emission of great streams of lava, and all the other attendants of a most formidable volcano.

10. The first of these eruptions recorded in history, took place in the year 79, in which the two cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum were entirely buried under the stones and ashes thrown out. Incredible mischief was also done to the neighbouring country, and numbers of people lost their lives. Since that time 30 different eruptions have been recorded, some of which were extremely violent.

11. In the year 1538, a mountain three miles in circumference, and a quarter of a mile in perpendicular height was thrown up in the course of one night. There have been instances of ashes and sulphureous smoke being carried not only to Rome, but also across the Mediterranean into Africa and even into Egypt; birds have been suffocated in the air, and have fallen down upon the ground; and fishes perished in the neighbouring waters which were made hot and infected by it.

12. The operations of the subterraneous fire appear to be very capricious and uncertain. One day there will be the appearance of a violent fermentation, and the next,

every thing will be quiet; but whenever there has been a considerable ejection of scoriae and cinders, it has been a constant observation, that the lava soon made its appearance, either by boiling over the crater, or forcing its way through the crevices in the conical part of the mountain. The top of the mountain fell in, in 1634, and the mouth of Vesuvius is now little short of two miles in circumference.

Sect. 4. Mount Hecla.

13. On proceeding along the southern coast of Iceland, and at an inconsiderable distance from Skaalholt, Mount Hecla, with its three summits, presents itself to view. Its height is five thousand feet, or nearly a mile above the level of the sea. It is not a promontory, but lies about four miles inland. It is neither so elevated nor so picturesque as several of the surrounding Icelandic mountains; but has been more noticed partly through the frequency of its eruptions, and partly from its situation, which exposes it to the view of many ships sailing to Greenland and North America.

14. The eruptions in the year 1693 and 1766, occasioned terrible devastations, some of the matter being thrown forth to the distance of 150 miles; and a circuit of near 50 laid waste by the lava. It takes up four hours time to ascend. On the highest point where Fahrenheit's thermometer was 24 in the air, it rose to 153 when placed on the ground.

Note. Next to Chimborazo, Cotopaxi is the most elevated point of the Andes, and, until recently, has been supposed to exceed in altitude (with the above exception) all other mountains in the world. Some late accounts of Mount Himmelah, in Asia, give a height to certain peaks of that mountain even exceeding Chimborazo; but the truth of this is not fully established.

15. Catania, a celebrated city of Sicily, is situated on a gulf of the same name, 10 miles from Etna. It is 52 miles southwest of Messina, in 37° north latitude. It contains 30,000 inhabitants. The streets are firmly paved with lava.—Herculaneum, an ancient city of Italy, was overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius, A. D.

79. In 1738, after much labour, a great number of ancient monuments were discovered, such as paintings, statues, furniture, &c.

16. Iceland is a large island, to the west of Norway, 300 miles in length and 150 in breadth, between 64 and 66° north latitude. For two months together the sun never sets, and in the winter it does not rise for the same time, at least not entirely. The middle of the island is mountainous, stony and barren; but in some places there are excellent pastures. The inhabitants profess to believe that the souls of the damned are sent to Mount Hecla.

Questions.

Where is Cotopaxi situated?

Of what mountains is it a peak?

Has Cotopaxi or Chimborazo the highest elevation?

Where is Mount Etna?

What is its circumference at the base?

What is its height?

What is the circumference of the crater?

In what year was Catania destroyed by an eruption from Etna?

How many persons were buried in the ruins of the city?

Where was Catania situated?

In what manner were Herculaneum and Pompeii destroyed?

In what year?

Where is Iceland?

Of what length and breadth?

What is the face of the country?

Is the soil fertile?



LEONIDAS'S ADDRESS TO HIS COUNTRYMEN.

—Glover.

He alone
Remains unshaken. Rising he displays
His godlike presence. Dignity and grace
Adorn his frame, and manly beauty, join'd

With strength Herculean. On his aspect shines
 Sublimest virtue, and desire of fame,
 Where justice gives the laurel; in his eye
 The inextinguishable spark, which fires
 The souls of patriots; while his brow supports
 Undaunted valour, and contempt of death.
 Serene he rose, and thus address'd the throng:

Why this astonishment on every face,
 Ye men of Sparta? Does the name of death
 Create this fear and wonder? O my friends!
 Why do we labour through the arduous paths
 Which lead to virtue? fruitless were the toil,
 Above the reach of human feet were plac'd
 The distant summit, if the fear of death
 Could intercept our passage. But in vain
 His blackest forms and terrors he assumes
 To shake the firmness of the mind, which knows
 That, wanting virtue, life is pain and woe;
 That, wanting liberty, ev'n virtue mourns,
 And looks around for happiness in vain.
 Then speak, O Sparta, and demand my life,
 My heart exulting, answers to thy call,
 And smiles on glorious fate. To live with fame
 The gods allow to many; but to die
 With equal lustre, is a blessing Heaven
 Selects from all the choicest boons of fate,
 And with a sparing hand on few bestows.

Leonidas's Answer to the Persian Ambassador.

Return to Xerxes; tell him, on this rock
 The Grecians, faithful to their post, await
 His chosen myriads; tell him, thou hast seen
 How far the lust of empire is below
 A free-born mind: and tell him to behold
 A tyrant humbled, and by virtuous death
 To seal my country's freedom, is a good
 Surpassing all his boasted pow'r can give.

Leonidas's Farewell to his Wife and Family.

I see, I feel thy anguish, nor my soul
 Has ever known the prevalence of love,

E'er prov'd a father's fondness, as this hour ;
 Nor, when most ardent to assert my fame,
 Was once my heart insensible to thee.
 How had it stain'd the honours of my name
 To hesitate a moment, and suspend
 My country's fate, till shameful life preferred
 By my inglorious colleague left no choice
 But what in me were infamy to shun,
 Not virtue to accept ! Then deem no more
 That, of my love regardless, or thy tears,
 I haste uncall'd to death. The voice of fate,
 The gods, my fame, my country, bid me bleed.
 O thou dear mourner ! wherefore streams afresh
 That flood of woe ? Why heaves with sighs renew'd
 That tender breast ? Leonidas must fall.
 Alas ! far heavier misery impends
 O'er thee and these if soften'd by thy tears
 I shamefully refuse to yield that breath,
 Which justice, glory, liberty, and Heaven
 Claim for my country, for my sons, and thee.
 Think on my long unalter'd love. Reflect
 On my paternal fondness. Has my heart
 E'er known a pause of love, or pious care ?
 Now shall that care, that tenderness, be prov'd
 Most warm and faithful. When thy husband dies
 For Lacedaemon's safety, thou wilt share,
 Thou and thy children, the diffusive good.
 Should I, thus singled from the rest of men,
 Alone entrusted by th' immortal gods
 With pow'r to save a people, should my soul
 Desert that sacred cause, thee too I yield
 To sorrow and to shame ; for thou must weep
 With Lacedaemon, must with her sustain
 Thy painful portion of oppression's weight.
 Thy sons behold now worthy of their names,
 And Spartan birth. Their growing bloom must pine
 In shame and bondage, and their youthful hearts
 Beat at the sound of liberty no more.
 On their own virtue, and their father's fame,
 When he the Spartan freedom hath confirm'd,
 Before the world illustrious shall they rise,
 Their country's bulwark, and their mother's joy.
 Here paus'd the patriot. With religious awe

Grief heard the voice of virtue. No complaint
 The solemn silence broke. Tears ceas'd to flow :
 Ceas'd for a moment ; soon again to stream.
 For now in arms before the palace rang'd,
 His brave companions of the war demand
 Their leader's presence ; then her griefs renew'd
 Too great for utterance, intercept her sighs,
 And freeze each accent on her falt'ring tongue.
 In speechless anguish on the hero's breast
 She sinks. On every side his children press,
 Hang on his knees, and kiss his honour'd hand.
 His soul no longer struggles to confine
 Its strong compunction. Down the hero's cheek,
 Down flows the manly sorrow. Great in woe,
 Amid his children who inclose him round,
 He stands indulging tenderness and love
 In graceful tears, when thus with lifted eyes,
 Address'd to heaven : 'Thou ever living power,
 Look down propitious sire of gods and men !
 And to this faithful woman, whose desert
 May claim thy favour, grant the hours of peace.
 And thou my great forefather, son of Jove,
 O Hercules, neglect not these thy race !
 But since that spirit I from thee derive,
 Now bears me from them with resistless fate,
 Do thou support their virtue ! Be they taught,
 Like thee, with glorious labour life to grace,
 And from their father, may they learn to die !

Note. Leonidas was slain in the battle of Thermopylæ, which straits, between the foot of Mount Oeta, and the Malian Gulf, are the entrance into Greece. This renowned Spartan with 300 followers, bravely defended the passage, for some time, against 120,000 infantry commanded by Xerxes. After a most desperate and almost incredible struggle, the pass was carried by the Persians, but at the expense of 20,000 of their men.

FORT WILLIAM HENRY.—*Silliman.*

I. THE remains of this old fort are still visible ; they are on the verge of the lake, at its head ; the walls, the

gate, and the out-works, can still be completely traced; the ditches have, even now, considerable depth, and the well which supplied the garrison is there, and affords water to this day: near and in this fort, much blood has been shed. In August, 1755, *General*, afterwards *Sir William Johnson*, lay at the head of lake George, with an army about to proceed to the attack of Crown Point; they were troops raised by the northern colonies.

2. Baron Dieskau, who commanded the French forces in Canada, leaving Ticonderoga, came down Lake Champlain through South bay, and was proceeding to the attack of Fort Edward, which contained but five hundred men, and had been reported to Dieskau to be without cannon. To the succour of this fort, General Johnson detached one thousand men, and two hundred Indians, under Colonel Williams of Deerfield.

3. Dieskau's army having, in the mean time, learned that there were cannon at Fort Edward, and being assured that General Johnson's camp was without artillery or entrenchments, importuned their General to change his purpose of attacking fort Edward, and to lead them northward to assail Johnson's camp. Dieskau yielded to their wishes, and turned his course accordingly.

4. The mountains, which form the barriers of Lake George, continue to the south, after they leave the lake, forming a rugged, narrow defile, of several miles in length, most of which was then, and still is, filled with forest trees. In this defile, about four miles from General Johnson's camp, Colonel Williams' party, which left the camp between eight and nine o'clock in the morning of September 6, 1755, very unexpectedly fell in with the army of Baron Dieskau.

5. The two armies met in the road, front to front; the Indians of Dieskau's army were in ambuscade, upon both declivities of the mountain, and thus it was a complete surprise, for Colonel Williams had unhappily neglected to place any scouts upon his wings. A bloody battle ensued, a deadly fire was poured in upon both flanks.—Colonel Williams endeavoring to lead his men against the unseen enemy, was instantly shot through the head, and he, and hundreds of his party, including old Hendrick, the chief of the Mohawks, and forty Indians were slain.

6. The remainder of the party, under the command of

Colonel Whiting, retreated into the camp. They came running in, in the utmost confusion and consternation, and perhaps owed their safety, in a great measure, to another party, which, when the firing was heard, and perceived to be growing louder and nearer, was sent out to succour them.

7. Dieskau, after the retreat of Williams' party, marching on with spirit, attacked General Johnson's entrenched camp, and although he fought with long and persevering valour, his army, in a great measure deserted by the Canadians and Indians, was repulsed with immense slaughter. Dieskau, wounded in the leg was found leaning against a tree.

8. He began to feel for his watch, in order to deliver it up to the soldier, who was approaching him; but the soldier supposing him to be searching for a pistol, unhappily fired a charge into his hips, which caused his death. Nor did this battle terminate the fighting of this bloody day. The remains of Dieskau's army retreated, about four miles, to the ground where Colonel Williams had been defeated in the morning.

9. The rear of the army were then sitting upon the ground; they had opened their knapsacks, and were refreshing themselves, when Captain McGinnies, who with two hundred men, had been despatched from Fort Edward, to succour the main body, came up with this portion of the French army, and totally defeated them, although he was himself mortally wounded. Thus were three battles fought in one day, and almost upon the same ground.

10. Remains of the encampment are still to be found in the woods. The neighbouring mountain, in which the French so suddenly made their appearance, is, to this day, called *French Mountain*, and this name, with the tradition of the fact, will be sent down to the latest posterity.

Massacre of Fort William Henry.—Silliman.

11. The three battles of September 6th, were not the end of the tragedies of Lake George. The Marquis de Montcalm, after three ineffectual attempts upon Fort William Henry, made great efforts to besiege it in form, and in August, 1757, having landed ten thousand men near the fort, summoned it to surrender. The place of the

landing; the remains of his batteries, and other works are still visible; and the graves and bones of the slain are occasionally discovered.

12. He had a powerful train of artillery, and although the fort and works were garrisoned by three thousand men, and were most gallantly defended by the commander, Colonel Munroe, it was obliged to capitulate; but the most honourable terms were granted to Colonel Munroe, in consideration of his gallantry. The bursting of the great guns, the want of ammunition, and above all the failure of General Webb to succour the fort, although he lay idle at fort Edward with four thousand men, were the causes of this catastrophe.

13. The capitulation was however, most shamefully broken; the Indians attached to Montcalm's army, while the troops were marching out of the gate of the fort, dragged the men from the ranks, particularly the Indians in the English service, and butchered them in cold blood—they plundered all without distinction, and murdered women and little children, with circumstances of the most aggravated barbarity.

14. The massacre continued all along the road, through the defile in the mountains, and for many miles. the miserable prisoners, especially those in the rear, were tomahawked and hewn down in cold blood; it might well be called the *bloody defile*, for it was the same ground that was the scene of the battles only two years before, in 1755. It is said, that efforts were made by the French to restrain the barbarians, but they were not restrained.

15. The miserable remnant of the garrison with difficulty reached to Fort Edward pursued by the Indians, although escorted by a body of French troops. Fort William Henry was levelled by Montcalm, and has never been rebuilt. Fort George was built as a substitute for it, on a more commanding scite, and although often mentioned in the history of subsequent wars, was not the scene of any memorable event.

16. It was the depot for the stores of the army of General Burgoyne, till that commander relinquished his connection with the lakes, and endeavoured to push his fortunes without depending upon his magazines in the rear.

Note. Lake George, in the state of New York, lies south west of Lake Champlain, and is 37 miles long, and

from 1 to 7 broad. It embosoms more than 200 beautiful islands, and falls into Champlain by a channel three miles long.

Questions.

- Where was Fort William Henry situated?
 In what year was it surrendered?
 To whom?
 Were the terms of capitulation observed?
 Where is Lake George?
 What is its length and breadth?

GIBRALTER.

1. **THIS** impregnable fortress, belonging to Great Britain, is situated upon a tongue of land, at the southern extremity of Europe on the north side of the narrow sea, which forms a communication between the Mediterranean and Atlantic, called the straits of Gibraltar. A fortified line is drawn by the Spaniards, to cut off the communication of the garrison with the rest of Spain. The length of Gibraltar, from the lines on the Spanish side, to the most southern part called *Europa point*, is about three English miles, and the circumference seven.

2. On the west side, stands the town of Gibraltar, on the water side, and is defended by a line of ramparts, forming a continued fortification from the north and perpendicular side of the rock, to the extremity of the *Moors'* wall, which nearly divides the rock into two equal parts. This wall was built about the year one thousand, and runs from the water side about one third of the way up with a very rapid ascent till it meets an inaccessible part of the rock, where it was discontinued, and another built further to the south at an accessible place.

3. The fortifications have since been continued round the rock, and rendered impregnable by works cut into the interior on the north and eastern side, where it is perpendicular. The English, since they became masters of this place, have been indefatigable in excavating the rock

and forming subterraneous walks, 5000 feet in length, galleries and caverns, into which the besieged might retreat during an attack, in case the outer works should be carried by an enemy.

4. These galleries form several tiers or ranks (23 in number) of batteries, from 300 to 1300 feet above the surface of the flat country below, called *the neutral ground*, which is between the Spanish and English lines. Were a general battering of all the embrasures to take place at the same time, it would afford one of the grandest spectacles in the world. It would resemble a huge monster, with a thousand mouths, each vomiting out thunder, smoke, and red hot balls.

5. The cannon have all been so well practised, and are all so well elevated, that the object aimed at is hit with as much certainty as with a fusee. The whole surface of the rock, outside, is planted with cannon, in every place where it is possible to make an attack, even with one or two men only at a time. Should the water lines be carried by an enemy, they would have to dispute the ascent to the top of the mountain, inch by inch, and in many places, by narrow passes, between stupendous rocks, which are not more than 25 or 30 feet wide.

6. Should they even succeed and obtain possession of the whole surface of the mountain, they would have to combat with an army in the bowels of the rock, against a thousand mines and other artifices, which would render the situation of the conquerors very unsafe. It is said there are close quarters in the rocks for more than twelve thousand men, and provisions for three years, always stored in the rocks, with a sufficient quantity of ammunition.

7. Gibraltar was first fortified in the modern style in the reign of the emperor Charles 5th. It was taken by the English in 1704. It has since been repeatedly besieged but always without success. In July, 1779, commenced the celebrated siege by the combined forces of France and Spain; every scheme which ingenuity could devise, which rashness could hazard, or force execute was tried by the besiegers to no purpose, when in 1783, the siege was abandoned.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF DEMOSTHENES.

—*Kingston.*

1. DEMOSTHENES was a celebrated Athenian, son of a rich blacksmith, called Demosthenes, and of Cleobule. He was but seven years of age when his father died. His guardians negligently managed his affairs, and embezzled the greatest part of his possessions. His education was totally neglected, and for whatever advances he made in learning, he was indebted to his industry and application.

2. He became the pupil of Isaeus and Plato, and applied himself to study the orations of Isocrates. At the age of 17, he gave an early proof of his eloquence and abilities, against his guardians, from whom he obtained the retribution of the greatest part of his estate. His rising talents were impeded by weak lungs and a difficulty of pronunciation, especially of the letter *r*, but these obstacles were soon conquered by unwearied application.

3. To correct the stammering of his voice, he spoke with pebbles in his mouth; and removed the distortion of his features, which accompanied his utterance, by watching the motions of his countenance in a looking-glass. That his pronunciation might be loud and full of emphasis, he frequently ran up the steepest and most uneven walks, where his voice acquired force and energy; and on the sea-shore, when the waves were violently agitated, he declaimed aloud to accustom himself to the noise and tumults of a public assembly.

4. He also confined himself in a subterraneous cave to devote himself more closely to studious pursuits; and to eradicate all curiosity of appearing in public, he shaved one half of his head. In this solitary retirement, by the help of a glimmering lamp, he composed the greatest part of his orations, which have ever been the admiration of every age, though his cotemporaries and rivals severely inveighed against them, and observed that they smelt of oil.

5. His abilities, as an orator, raised him to consequence at Athens, and he was soon placed at the head of the government. In this public capacity, he roused his countrymen from their indolence, and animated them against the

encroachments of Philip of Macedonia. In the battle of Cheronæa, however, Demosthenes betrayed his pusillanimity, and saved his life by flight.

6. After the death of Philip, he declared himself warmly against his son and successor, Alexander, whom he branded with the appellation of boy; and when the Macedonians demanded of the Athenians their orator, Demosthenes reminded his countrymen of the fable of the sheep which delivered their dogs up to the wolves. Though he had boasted that all the gold of Macedonia could not tempt him, yet he suffered himself to be bribed by a small golden cup from Harpalus.

7. The tumults which this occasioned, forced him to retire from Athens, and in his banishment, which he passed at Troezen and Ægina, he lived with more effeminacy than true heroism. When Antipater made war against Greece, after the death of Alexander, Demosthenes was publicly called from his exile, and a galley was sent to fetch him from Ægina.

8. His return was attended with much splendour, and all the citizens crowded at the Piræus to see him land. His triumph and popularity, however, were short. Antipater and Craterus, were near Athens, and demanded all the orators to be delivered up into their hands. Demosthenes with all his adherents fled to the temple of Neptune in Calauria.

9. When he saw all hopes of safety were banished, he took a dose of poison, which he always carried in a quill, and expired, on that day that the Thesmophoria were celebrated, in the 66th year of his age, 322 years before Christ. Demosthenes has been deservedly called the prince of orators; and Cicero, his successful rival among the Romans, calls him a perfect model, and such as he wished to be.

10. These two great princes of eloquence have often been compared together; but the judgment hesitates to which to give the preference. They both arrived to perfection; but the measures by which they obtained it were diametrically opposite. Demosthenes has been compared, and with propriety, by his rival Æschines, to a Siren, from the melody of his expressions.

11. No orator can be said to have expressed the various passions of hatred, resentment, or indignation, with more

energy than he ; and as a proof of his uncommon application, it need only be mentioned, that he transcribed eight, or even ten times, the history of Thucydides, that he might not only imitate, but possess the force and energy of the great historian.

Note. Plato, esteemed the divine philosopher, was chief of the Athenian academy, and Isocrates was the teacher in oratory.—Ægina is an island in the Ægean sea, situated near Delos, which was famed as the birth place of Apollo.—Antipater was a general of Alexander, king of Macedonia, and succeeded him in his government.—Thucydides was an eloquent Greek historian, much admired for his elegant and perspicuous style.

NEW ZEALAND.—*Goldsmith.*

1. THE natives of New Zealand are generally equal to the tallest Europeans in stature, they are stout and well made, but by the manner of sitting in their canoes, their legs are distorted. In general the New Zealanders have the aquiline nose with dark coloured eyes, and black hair, which is tied up to the crown of the head. The principal men among them use the practice of tattowing themselves in spiral and other figures.

2. In many places their skin is indented in such a manner as to look like carving, but the inferior people content themselves with besmearing their faces with red paint and ochre. The faces of the old men are almost covered with indentations, painted black, which make a most frightful appearance, but those who are young, blacken only their lips like the women, and gradually extend their decorations as they advance in years. The marks upon the face are generally spiral, and are performed with great regularity.

Sect. 2. Of their Dress.

3. The dress of a New Zealander is certainly the most uncouth that can be imagined. It is made of the leaves of a flag split into three or four slips, which, when dry, are

interwoven with each other into a kind of stuff between netting and cloth, with all the ends which are eight or nine inches long hanging out on the upper side.

4. Of this cloth, if cloth it may be called, two pieces serve for a complete dress; one of them is tied over their shoulders with a string, and reaches as low as the knee; to the end of this string is fastened a bodkin of bone, which is easily passed through any two parts of this upper garment, so as to tack them together; the other piece is wrapped round the waist, and reaches nearly to the ground.

Sect. 3. Of the War-Dance, and Music of the New Zealanders.

5. Their war-dance consists of a great variety of violent motions and contortions of the limbs, accompanied with grimaces. The tongue is frequently thrust out to a considerable length, and the eyelids forcibly drawn up in a frightful manner. At the same time they brandish their spears, shake their darts, and cleave the air with their *patoo-patoos*, an instrument shaped like a pointed battle-dore, with a short handle and sharp edges.

6. This horrid dance is always accompanied with a song which is wild but not disagreeable, and every strain concludes with a loud and deep sigh, which is uttered in concert. In the motions of the dance, there is a strength, firmness and agility, which must excite the admiration of strangers: and in their songs they keep time with so much exactness, that more than a hundred paddles struck against the side of the boat at once, will convey to the ear but a single sound, at the divisions of their music.

7. They have sonorous instruments; one is the shell, called the Triton's trumpet, with which they make a noise not unlike that which is made with a cow's horn: the other is a small wooden pipe, resembling a small nine-pin. A hideous bellowing was all the sound that could be produced by these instruments.

Sect. 4. Of the treatment of their enemies.

8. The New Zealanders avow the horrid practice of eating their enemies, which fact, however strange and in

credible, was completely ascertained by Captain Cook, when he visited these islands in the year 1770. "I shall add," says the narrator of the voyages, "that in almost every cove where we landed, we found fresh bones of men near the places where fires had been made."

9. Among the heads that were brought on board, some seemed to have false eyes: and ornaments in their ears as if alive. That which Mr. Banks bought was sold with great reluctance by the possessor: the head was manifestly that of a young person, about fourteen or fifteen years of age, and by the contusions on one side, appeared to have received many violent blows, and indeed a part of the bone near the eye was wanting.

Sect. 5. Of their Religion and Conduct towards their dead.

10. Much cannot be known of the religion of the New Zealanders, but it is certain that they acknowledge the influence of Supreme Beings, one of whom is supreme, the rest subordinate. One of these islanders appeared to have a much more deep and extensive knowledge of these subjects than any other of the people; and whenever he was disposed to instruct them, which he sometimes did in a long discourse, he was sure of a numerous audience, who listened in profound silence, with much reverence and attention.

11. What homage they pay to the deities could not be learnt; no place of public worship was visible, but near a plantation of sweet potatoes was seen a small area, of a square figure, surrounded with stones, in the middle of which one of the sharpened stakes which they use as a spade was set up, and upon it was hung a basket of fern roots, which the natives said was an offering to the gods, by which the owner hoped to render them propitious, and obtain a plentiful crop.

12. Their manner of disposing of the dead was different in different parts of the island. In the north they buried them in the ground; in the south they threw them into the sea. No grave was to be seen in the country, and the inhabitants affect to conceal every thing relating to the dead with a sort of mysterious secrecy. But whatever may be the sepulchre, the living are themselves the monuments.

13. Scarcely a single person is to be seen of either sex whose bodies are not marked with the scars of wounds, which have been inflicted, as a testimony of their regret for the loss of a relation or friend. "Some of these wounds," says Captain Cook, "were seen in a state so recent that the blood was scarcely stanch'd, which shews that death had been among them, while we were on the coast; and this makes it more extraordinary that no funeral ceremony should have fallen under our notice;" some of the scars were very large and deep, and in many instances had greatly disfigured their faces.

Note. New-Zealand consists of two large islands, situated in the south Pacific Ocean. The country is very mountainous, and some of the summits are covered with perpetual snow. The inhabitants are warlike and ferocious.

Questions.

Where are the islands of New Zealand?

What is the character of the inhabitants?

How do they treat their enemies?

What is their religion?

How do they manifest their regret for the death of a friend?

What is the face of the country?

LAPLAND.—*Worcester.*

Inhabitants, Manners, and Customs.

1. THE Laplanders are of a diminutive size, and have short black hair, a wide mouth, hollow cheeks, and a chin somewhat long and pointed. Their complexion is swarthy, which is rather the effect of smoke, than the natural hue of the skin. They possess great strength of body, and are capable of undergoing extraordinary degrees of labour. They are inured from infancy to activity and exertion, and are remarkable for swiftness of foot.



Page 158.—The Laplander travelling in a Sledge.

The first part of the document is a letter from the Secretary of the Board of Education to the Board of Directors of the City of New York. The letter is dated 1848 and is addressed to the Board of Directors. The letter discusses the progress of the Board of Education and the various schools that have been established in the city. The letter also discusses the financial situation of the Board and the various ways in which the Board has been able to raise money to support its operations. The letter concludes with a request for the Board of Directors to continue to support the Board of Education in its efforts to improve the education of the children of the city.

The second part of the document is a report from the Board of Education to the Board of Directors. The report is dated 1848 and is addressed to the Board of Directors. The report discusses the progress of the Board of Education and the various schools that have been established in the city. The report also discusses the financial situation of the Board and the various ways in which the Board has been able to raise money to support its operations. The report concludes with a request for the Board of Directors to continue to support the Board of Education in its efforts to improve the education of the children of the city.

The third part of the document is a list of the names of the various schools that have been established in the city. The list is dated 1848 and is addressed to the Board of Directors. The list includes the names of the schools, the names of the teachers, and the names of the students. The list also includes the names of the various buildings that have been used as schools. The list concludes with a request for the Board of Directors to continue to support the Board of Education in its efforts to improve the education of the children of the city.

The fourth part of the document is a list of the names of the various buildings that have been used as schools. The list is dated 1848 and is addressed to the Board of Directors. The list includes the names of the buildings, the names of the teachers, and the names of the students. The list also includes the names of the various buildings that have been used as schools. The list concludes with a request for the Board of Directors to continue to support the Board of Education in its efforts to improve the education of the children of the city.

The fifth part of the document is a list of the names of the various teachers who have been employed by the Board of Education. The list is dated 1848 and is addressed to the Board of Directors. The list includes the names of the teachers, the names of the schools, and the names of the students. The list also includes the names of the various buildings that have been used as schools. The list concludes with a request for the Board of Directors to continue to support the Board of Education in its efforts to improve the education of the children of the city.

The sixth part of the document is a list of the names of the various students who have been enrolled in the schools. The list is dated 1848 and is addressed to the Board of Directors. The list includes the names of the students, the names of the schools, and the names of the teachers. The list also includes the names of the various buildings that have been used as schools. The list concludes with a request for the Board of Directors to continue to support the Board of Education in its efforts to improve the education of the children of the city.

2. The Laplanders wear a conical cap in the form of a sugar loaf, of a greyish colour, with a tassel of various shreds on the top, and a border of fur round the lower part. The coat, which serves at once as shirt and outer garment, is generally made of sheepskin, with the wool upon it turned next the skin, and reaches below the knees, when not tied up with the girdle. The great coat, made of kersey or rein-deer skin, with the hairy side outwards, is open only at the breast. They use no stockings, but wear a kind of pantaloons of coarse cloth or tanned leather, or the skin of the rein-deer's legs fitted close to the limbs. Their shoes also are made of the skin of the rein-deer. They wear leather belts, ornamented with tin or brass, and with thongs of leather, to which are attached balls of tin, keys, &c. hanging down behind.

3. The dress of the women is similar to that of the men; but in addition to it they wear handkerchiefs, short aprons made of painted cloth, rings on their fingers, and earrings, from which are suspended, among the better sort, chains of silver, which pass two or three times about the neck. They are much addicted to finery, and to the use of embroidery manufactured from brass wire, and, where that cannot be had, list of different colours is substituted. They neither cut nor comb their hair, and their habits are extremely filthy.

4. The Laplanders change their habitation according to the season, living in houses in winter, and in tents in summer. The houses are constructed of stones and sods, roofed with beams and rafters, and small wood between them; over these are laid bushes and turf, with fine earth on the top. They have neither door nor chimney; the former is supplied by two vaulted passages, through which they must creep on their hands and feet.

5. The tents are about 12 feet long, and 9 high; they are constructed of 6 poles, nearly meeting at the top, and covered with skins or cloth. In the structure and situation of these tents they endeavour to display some finery and taste. The internal arrangement is the same in both the tents and houses. The fire-place consists of a square inclosure of low stones, situated in the centre, and the spaces on each side of the fire-place are divided by logs of wood into three apartments, which may be styled bed chambers; of these the space farthest from the door is

accounted the most honourable, and is occupied by the husband and wife; that in the middle by the children; and the outer one by the servants. The floor is covered with small branches of trees, and over these are spread skins of rein-deer, on which the family sit or recline. At all seasons these dwellings are filled with smoke so dense as to render it inconceivable how human beings can exist in them and preserve their eye-sight.

6. The household furniture consists of horn spoons, pots and kettles made of brass or copper, sometimes of stone; wooden bowls, a basket, and a barrel for oil and other liquids. A few of the richer natives possess two or three pewter dishes and silver spoons. The maritime Laplanders use a lamp made of sea-shell, with a rush wick; but the mountaineers have seldom any other light than what the fire affords.

7. The diet of the Laplanders consists almost wholly of animal food. The inhabitants of the coast subsist chiefly on fish, with a little beef and mutton; those in the interior principally on the milk and flesh of the rein-deer. The milk is used in a variety of ways, fresh or boiled, or coagulated, or made into butter and cheese. The little bread made use of is chiefly barley-cake, baked on the hearth. The poorer people grind the chaff, and even some of the straw along with the grain. Sometimes the inner bark of the fir and pine tree is ground into meal and mixed with the barley flour. They are extravagantly fond of tobacco, and when they cannot procure it, will masticate the slips of the bag or chips of the cask in which it has been kept. Their common drink is water; brandy is very scarce but is eagerly sought for. They are subject to swelled necks, or goitres, similar to those of Switzerland. Although their lot is full of toil and penury, yet they are remarkable for their strong attachment to their native country.

8. Matrimonial negotiations among the Laplanders are conducted with great formality and decorum. When a young man has selected his object, he communicates his wishes to his own family, who repair in a body to the dwelling of the young woman's parents, carrying a slight present, such as a ring or ornamented girdle, to the fair one, and a quantity of brandy to entertain the friends. When arrived at the hut, the suiter is left without, till he

shall be invited to enter; and as soon as the rest of the party have entered, their spokesman fills a bumper of brandy, which he offers to the girl's father, and the acceptance of it indicates his approbation of the match proposed. After the liquor has gone round, the lover is introduced, and the parents of the girl having given their consent, he offers her the present, and promises wedding clothes to her father and mother.

8. Sometimes a sum of money is given both to the bride and her parents; and among the better class, a wife, counting all expenses, commonly costs the husband about a hundred copper dollars. After the parties have been betrothed, the young man is allowed to visit his fair one, whose favour he generally endeavours to conciliate by presenting tobacco, brandy, or whatever he thinks will be most acceptable. After the marriage takes place, the bridegroom usually remains a year or more with the parents of the bride, and at his departure receives what portion they are able to give their daughter.

9. The funerals of the Laplanders are attended with little ceremony. The body, slightly wrapped in a coarse cloth, is carried to the grave by the friends and relatives, who are entertained with a slight repast, and a small portion of metheglin. In former times it was customary to raise a heap of stones over the grave; but an old sledge turned bottom upwards, is now the only monument placed over the spot where the body is buried.

10. The Laplanders were not converted to Christianity till the 17th century, and are still extremely ignorant of its doctrines and duties. Although great pains have been taken by the Swedes and Danes to inform them on the subject of religion, yet the majority of them continue to practise superstitions and idolatries, almost as gross as any that are met with among pagans. Augury and witchcraft are practised among them; and they have been considered by modern traders as very skilful in magic and divination. Their magicians make use of what they call a drum, an instrument not very dissimilar to a tambourine, containing on it figures of their divinities, with various ornaments. A black cat is kept in every house, and reckoned a most valuable appendage; they talk to it as a rational creature, and in hunting and fishing parties it is their usual attendant.

11. The Laplanders are wholly destitute of learning, and have no accurate division of time. They have neither writing nor letters, but a number of hieroglyphics. Their language comprehends so many dialects that it is with difficulty they understand each other. Besides looking after the rein-deer, the fishery, and the chase, the men employ themselves in the construction of their canoes, sledges, and harness. Their trade consists in the exchange of skins of foxes, squirrels, and sables.

12. The rein-deer is the most valuable gift that providence has bestowed on the poor Laplander. It serves as the principal beast of burden; its milk is highly valued; its flesh supplies the chief nourishment of the inhabitants during part of the year; its sinews are made into thread; and its skin furnishes a great part of the dress of the inhabitants. The rein-deer bears a great resemblance to the stag, but is much smaller, being in general only four feet in height from the foot to the top of the back, and but two feet long in the body. It is remarkable equally for the elegance of its shape, the beauty of its palmated horns, and the ease with which it supports itself during a long winter of nine months. In summer it feeds on grass, and is extremely fond of the herb called the great water-horse tail; but in winter refuses hay, and obtains its whole nourishment from the rein-deer moss, which grows here in great profusion. A remarkable instinct is displayed by the animal in discovering this plant under the snow, and in digging it out.

13. The foot of the rein-deer seems shaped exactly to enable it to walk on snow, spreading out when set down, so as to cover a large surface, but contracting when lifted up so as to be easily withdrawn if it happen to plunge into the snow. The movements are thus attended by a sort of snapping noise, not unlike that of an electrical machine. When yoked in a sledge they are easily guided by a small cord fastened round the horns. They will run, if hard driven, 50 or 60 miles without stopping, and at the rate of 10 miles an hour.

14. The sledges are made of birch wood, and formed like a boat with a flat stern. Those used for travelling are commonly so light as to be easily carried in the arms, and are only large enough for the traveller to sit in them with his legs stretched on the bottom.

15. The rein-deer is found wild, but the greater number are domesticated, and form in fact the chief wealth of the natives. The poorer class have from 50 to 200; the middle class from 300 to 700: and the affluent often upwards of 1000. The females are driven home morning and evening to be milked, and yield about as much milk as a she-goat. The rein-deer cast their horns every year, the males in November, and the females in May. The new horns are at first flexible, and so tender as to occasion pain to the animal when roughly handled. Those of the male are often two feet and a half in length, and their points are as far distant from each other.

Note. Lapland, the most northerly country of Europe, extends from the north cape, in 71° north latitude, to the white Sea, under the arctic circle. It is inhabited by the same people, though the country is subject to different powers. Norwegian Lapland, under the dominion of Denmark, lies between the northern sea and the river Pais. Swedish Lapland comprehends all the country from the Baltic to the mountains that separate Norway from Sweden.

Questions.

- Of what size and complexion are the Laplanders?
- On what do they principally subsist?
- Are they given to idolatry?
- What are their attainments in literature?
- In what does their most valuable property consist?
- Where is Lapland situated?
- Where is Norwegian Lapland?
- To what government is it subject?
- Where is Swedish Lapland?

DESTRUCTION OF ROME BY THE GAULS.

—*Ancient History.*

1. THE countries through which the Gauls passed, in their rapid progress, made little resistance; the natives being terrified by their vast numbers, the fierce-

ness of their natures, and their dreadful preparations for war. But the rage and impetuosity of this ferocious people were directed solely against Rome. They went on without doing the least intentional injury in their march, breathing vengeance only against the Romans, whom they considered alone as transgressors.

2. The Roman army, at this conjuncture, was under the command of six military tribunes; the number of their forces which amounted to forty thousand men, was nearly equal to those of Brennus; but the soldiers were less obedient, and the generals had not confidence in each other, so as to unite for their mutual safety. The two armies met near the river Allia, eleven miles from the city, both equally confident of victory, both equally disdainful to survive a defeat.

3. The leaders on either side put their forces in array; the Romans to prevent their being surrounded, extended their lines, and placed the best legions in the wings of their army. The Gauls, on the other hand, by a happy disposition, had their choicest men in the middle; and with these they made the most desperate attack. The centre of the Roman army, unable to withstand the impetuosity of the charge, quickly gave way; while the two wings saw themselves in a manner divided from each other and their centre occupied by the enemy.

4. They made for a time, a feeble attempt to unite; but finding it impracticable, a rout ensued, in which the Romans seemed to have lost all power, not only of resistance, but of flight. Nothing but terror and confusion reigned through their broken ranks: the wretched remains of their army were either drowned in attempting to cross the Tiber, or hastened to take refuge in Veii, while only a few of them returned to Rome, with the dreadful intelligence of their overthrow.

5. All hopes of resistance in the field being now over, the remaining inhabitants that were able to bear arms, threw themselves into the capitol, which they fortified, in order to hold out a siege. The rest of the people, a poor and forlorn multitude of old men, women, and children, endeavoured to hide themselves in some of the neighbouring towns, or resolved to await the conqueror's fury, and lie in death under the ruins of their native city.

6. But more particularly the ancient senators and priests, struck with a religious enthusiasm on this occasion, resolved to devote their lives to atone for the crimes of the people, and, habited in their robes of ceremony, placed themselves in the forum, on their ivory chairs. The Gauls, in the mean time, were giving a loose to their triumph, in sharing and enjoying the plunder of the enemy's camp.

7. Had they immediately marched to Rome upon gaining the victory, the capitol itself would have yielded, but they continued two days feasting upon the field of battle, and, with barbarous pleasure, exulting amidst their slaughtered foes. On the third day after the victory, the facility of which amazed the Gauls themselves. Brennus appeared with all his forces before the city. He was at first much surprised to find the gates wide open to receive him, and the walls defenceless; so that he began to impute the unguarded situation of the place to a stratagem of the Romans.

8. After proper precautions, however, he entered the city, and marching into the forum, there beheld the ancient senators sitting in their order, observing a profound silence, unmoved and undaunted. The splendid habits, the majestic gravity, and the venerable looks of these old men, who had all borne the highest offices of the state, awed the barbarous enemy into reverence; they took them to be the tutelar deities of the place, and began to offer blind adoration, till one, more forward than the rest, put forth his hand to stroke the beard of Papyrus, who had once enjoyed the dignity of dictator.

9. An insult so gross, the noble Roman could not endure, but lifting up his ivory sceptre, struck the savage to the ground. This seemed as a signal for a general slaughter; Papyrus fell first, and all the rest shared his fate, without mercy or distinction. Thus the fierce invaders pursued their slaughter for three days successively, sparing neither sex nor age, and then setting fire to the city, in a short time every house was reduced to a heap of ashes, and Rome became nearly a waste.

10. At this crisis, all the hopes of the Romans were placed in the capitol; every thing without that fortress was but an extensive scene of misery, desolation, and despair. All the magnificent buildings which were once

the pride of Rome, were now become a heap of shapeless ruins. Nor was it the city alone that felt the utmost rage of the conquerors, but all the neighbouring towns, which were accessible to their incursions, shared the same fate and were burnt without distinction.

11. Still, however, the citadel remained ; and Brennus tried every art in vain to reduce it. He first ineffectually summoned the garrison, with threats, to surrender ; he then resolved to besiege it in form, and encompassed it with his army. Nevertheless, the Romans repelled his attempts with bravery ; for despair had now supplied them with that perseverance and vigour, which had they shown more early, would have saved them from this catastrophe.

12. The siege had continued for above six months, the provisions of the garrison were almost exhausted, their numbers lessened by continual fatigue, and nothing seemed to remain but death, or submission to the mercy of the conquerors, which was dreaded more even than death itself. In short they had resolved on dying, when they were revived from their despondence, by the appearance of a man whom they saw climbing up a rock, and whom they knew, upon his arrival, to be a messenger from their friends without.

13. This person's name was Pontius Comminus, a young plebian, who had swam across the Tiber by night, passed through the enemy's guards, and with extreme fatigues, climbed up the capitoline rock, with tidings to the besieged, that Camillus, their expatriated dictator, was levying an army for their relief, that the citizens of Ardea, and Veii, had armed in his favour, and had made him their general ; and that he only waited his country's confirmation of their choice, to enter the field and give the barbarians battle.

14. The Romans were struck with a mixture of rapture and abashment, to find that the man whom they had injuriously spurned from the city, was now, in its desperate state, ready to become its defender. They instantly chose him for their dictator, with an enthusiasm which his virtues deserved, and prepared to sustain the siege with recruited vigour. Thus the messenger, having received his answer and proper instructions, had the good

fortune to return to Camillus, though not without encountering a variety of perils.

15. Meanwhile Brennus carried on the siege with extreme ardour. He hoped speedily to starve the garrison into a capitulation ; but they, sensible of his intent, although in actual want, caused several loaves to be thrown into his camp, to convince him of the futility of his expectations. Frustrated in this aim, his hopes were again revived, when some of his soldiers came to inform him, that they had discovered traces of footsteps which led up to the rock, and by which they supposed the capitol might be surprised.

16. Accordingly, a chosen body of his men were ordered by night upon this dangerous service, which they with great labour and difficulty almost effected ; they had got indeed upon the very wall ; the Roman sentinels were fast asleep ; their dogs within gave no alarm, and all promised an instant victory ; when the garrison were awakened by the gabbling of some sacred geese, that had been kept in the temple of Juno.

17. The besieged instantly perceived the imminence of their danger, and each snatching the weapon he could instantly find, ran to oppose the assailants. Manlius, a patrician of acknowledged bravery, was the first who exerted all his strength, and inspired courage by his example. He boldly mounted the rampart, and at one effort threw two Gauls headlong down the precipice : others hastened to his assistance, and the walls were cleared of the enemy, almost in an instant.

18. After this failure the hopes of the barbarians began to decline, and Brennus seems to have wished for an opportunity for raising the siege with credit. His soldiers often held conferences with the besieged, while upon duty, and the proposals for an accommodation were anxiously desired by the common men, before the chiefs thought of negotiation. At length the commanders on both sides came to an agreement, that the Gauls should immediately quit the city and territories of Rome, upon being paid a thousand pounds weight of gold.

19. This agreement being confirmed by oath on either side, the gold was brought forth ; but upon weighing, the Gauls attempted fraudulently to kick the beam, of which the Romans complaining, Brennus insultingly cast his

sword and belt into the scale, crying out, that the only portion of the vanquished was to suffer. By this reply, the Romans saw that they were at the victor's mercy; and knew it was in vain to expostulate against any conditions he should be pleased to impose.

20. At this very juncture, however, and while they were thus debating upon the ransom, it was rumoured that Camillus the dictator, was at the head of a large army, hastening to their relief, and entering the gates of Rome. Camillus actually appeared soon after, and entering the place of controversy, with the air of one who was resolved not to suffer imposition, demanded the cause of the contest.

21. Being informed of the cause of the dispute, he ordered the gold to be carried back to the capitol: "For," said he, "it has ever been the manner with us Romans, to ransom our country, not with gold, but with iron; it is I only that am to make peace, as being the dictator of Rome, and my sword alone shall purchase it." The enraged Gauls ran to arms; a battle ensued; and so total was the defeat of Brennus and his followers, that they soon wholly disappeared from Italy, leaving no traces but those of their ravages behind them.

Note. Rome was a very ancient city of Italy, formerly the mistress of the world, and seat of the Roman empire, the residence of the Pope and head of the Roman church: none could compare with it in respect to its buildings and antiquities, the number of its monuments and curiosities, and the singularity of its historical events. It was founded, according to some, 753 years before the birth of Christ, by Romulus, the first king. It was destroyed by Brennus 385 years before Christ.

Questions.

Where was ancient Rome situated?

For what was Rome remarkable?

When was it founded?

By whom?

When was it destroyed?

By whom?

THE TEMPLE OF FAME.—*Pope.*

IN that soft season when descending show'rs
 Call forth the greens, and wake the rising flow'rs ;
 When op'ning buds salute the welcome day,
 And earth relenting feels the genial ray ;
 As balmy sleep had charm'd my cares to rest,
 And love itself was banish'd from my breast,
 (What time the morn mysterious visions brings,
 While purer slumbers spread their golden wings ;)
 A train of phantoms in wild order rose ;
 And, join'd, this intellectual scene compose.

I stood, methought, betwixt earth, seas, and skies ;
 The whole creation open to my eyes :
 In air self-balanc'd hung the globe below,
 Where mountains rise, and circling oceans flow :
 Here naked rocks and empty wastes were seen,
 There tow'ry cities, and the forest green ;
 Here sailing ships delight the wand'ring eyes,
 There trees and intermingled temples rise :
 Now a clear sun the shining scene displays,
 The transient landscape now in clouds decays.

O'er the wide prospect as I gaz'd around,
 Sudden I heard a wild, promiscuous sound,
 Like broken thunders that at distance roar,
 Or billows murm'ring on the hollow shore :
 Then, gazing up, a glorious pile beheld,
 Whose tow'ring summit ambient clouds conceal'd.
 High on a rock of ice the structure lay,
 Steep its ascent, and slipp'ry was the way ;
 The wond'rous rock like Parian marble shone,
 And seem'd to distant sight of solid stone.
 Inscriptions here of various names I view'd,
 The greater part by hostile time subdued ;
 Yet wide were spread their fame in ages past,
 And poets once had promis'd they should last.
 Some, fresh engrav'd, appear'd of wits renown'd ;
 I look'd again, nor could their trace be found.
 Critics I saw, that other names deface,
 And fix their own with labour in the place ;
 Their own, like others, soon their place resign'd,
 Or disappear'd, and left the first behind.

Nor was the work impair'd by storms alone,
 But felt th' approaches of too warm a sun ;
 For fame, impatient of extremes, decays
 Not more by envy than excess of praise.
 Yet part no injuries of heaven could feel,
 Like crystal, faithful to the graving steel :
 The rock's high summit, in the temple's shade,
 Nor heat could melt, nor beating storm invade.
 There, names inscrib'd unnumber'd ages past,
 From time's first birth, with time itself shall last ;
 These ever new, nor subject to decays,
 Spread, and grow brighter, with the length of days.
 So Zembla's rocks (the beauteous work of frost)
 Rise white in air, and glitter o'er the coast ;
 Pale suns, unfelt, at distance roll away,
 And on th' impassive ice the lightnings play ;
 Eternal snows the growing mass supply,
 Till the bright mountains prop th' incumbent sky :
 As Atlas fix'd, each hoary pile appears
 The gather'd winter of a thousand years.
 On this foundation Fame's high temple stands ;
 Stupendous pile ! not rear'd by mortal hands.
 Whate'er proud Rome or artful Greece beheld,
 Or elder Babylon, its fame excell'd.
 Four faces had the dome, and ev'ry face,
 Of various structure, but of equal grace :
 Four brazen gates, on columns lifted high,
 Salute the diff'rent quarters of the sky.
 Here fabled chiefs, in darker ages born,
 Or worthies old, whom arms or arts adorn,
 Who cities rais'd, or tam'd a monstrous race,
 The walls in venerable order grace :
 Heroes in animated marble frown,
 And legislators seem to think in stone.

Westward a sumptuous frontispiece appear'd,
 On Doric pillars of white marble rear'd,
 Crown'd with an architrave of antique mould
 And sculpture rising on the roughen'd gold.
 In shaggy spoils here Theseus was beheld,
 And Perseus dreadful with Minerva's shield :
 There great Alcides, stooping with his toil,
 Rests on his club, and holds th' Hesperian spoil ;
 Here Orpheus sings ; trees moving to the sound,

Start from their roots ; and form a shade around :
 Amphion there the loud creating lyre
 Strikes, and beholds a sudden Thebes aspire !
 Cythaeron's echoes answer to his call,
 And half the mountain swells into a wall :
 There might you see the length'ning spires ascend,
 The domes swell up, the widening arches bend,
 The growing tow'rs like exhalations rise,
 And the huge columns swell into the skies.

The eastern front was glorious to behold,
 With diamond flaming, and Barbaric gold.
 There Ninus shone, who spread th' Assyrian fame,
 And the great founder of the Persian name :
 There, in long robes, the royal Magi stand ;
 Grave Zoroaster waves the circling wand :
 The sage Chaldeans rob'd in white appear'd,
 And Brachmans, deep in desert woods rever'd.
 These stopp'd the moon, and call'd the unbodied
 shades

To midnight banquets in the glimm'ring glades ;
 Made visionary fabrics round them rise,
 The airy spectres skim before their eyes ;
 Of Talismans and Sigils knew the pow'r,
 And careful watch'd the planetary hour.
 Superior, and alone, Confucius stood,
 Who taught that useful science to be good.

But on the south, a long majestic race
 Of Egypt's priests the gilded niches grace,
 Who measur'd earth, describ'd the starry spheres,
 And trac'd the long record of lunar years.
 High on his car Sesostris struck my view,
 Whom sceptred slaves in golden harness drew :
 His hands a bow and pointed javelin hold,
 His giant limbs are armed in scales of gold,
 Between the statues obelisks were plac'd,
 And the learn'd walls with hieroglyphics grac'd.

Of Gothic structure was the northern side,
 O'erwrought with ornaments of barb'rous pride,
 Their huge colosses rose, with trophies crown'd ;
 And Runic characters were grav'd around.
 There sat Zamolxis with erected eyes ;
 And Odin here in mimic trances dies.
 There on rude iron columns, smear'd with blood,

The horrid forms of Sythian heroes stood.
 Druids and bards (their once loud harps unstrung,)
 And youths that died to be by poets sung.
 These and a thousand more of doubtful fame,
 To whom old fables gave a lasting name,
 In ranks adorn'd the temple's outward face
 The wall, in lustre and effect like glass,
 Which o'er each object casting various dies,
 Enlarges some, and others multiplies:
 Nor void of emblem was the mystic wall;
 For thus romantic Fame increases all.

The temple shakes, the sounding gates unfold,
 Wide vaults appear, and roofs of fretted gold;
 Rais'd on a thousand pillars wreath'd around
 With laurel foliage, and with eagles crown'd.
 Of bright transparent beryl were the walls,
 The friezes gold, and gold the capitals:
 As heaven with stars, the roof with jewels glows,
 And ever-living lamps depend in rows.
 Full in the passage of each spacious gate,
 The sage historians in white garments wait;
 Grav'd o'er their seats the form of time was found,
 His scythe revers'd and both his pinions bound.
 Within stood heroes, who thro' loud alarms
 In bloody fields pursued renown in arms.
 High on a throne, with trophies charg'd, I view'd
 The youth that all things but himself subdued;
 His feet on sceptres and tiaras trod,
 And his horn'd head belied the Lybian God.
 There Caesar, grac'd with both Minervas, shone;
 Caesar, the world's great master, and his own;
 Unmov'd, superior still, in ev'ry state,
 And scarce detested in his country's fate.
 But chief were those who not for empire fought,
 But with their toils their country's safety bought.
 High o'er the rest Epaminondas stood;
 Timoleon, glorious in his brother's blood;
 Bold Scipio, saviour of the Roman state,
 Great in his triumphs, in retirement great;
 And wise Aurelius, in whose well taught mind
 With boundless power, unbounded virtue join'd,
 His own strict judge, and patron of mankind. }
 Much suff'ring heroes next their honours claim,

Those of less noisy and less guilty fame,
 Fair Virtue's silent train : supreme of these
 Here ever shines the godlike Socrates ;
 He whom ungrateful Athens could expel,
 At all times just but when he sign'd the shell ;
 Here his abode the martyr'd Phocion claims,
 With Agis, not the last of Spartan names ;
 Unconquer'd Cato shews the wound he tore ;
 And Brutus his ill genius meets no more.

But, in the centre of the hallow'd choir,
 Six pompous columns o'er the rest aspire ;
 Around the shrine itself of Fame they stand,
 Hold the chief honours, and the fane command.
 High on the first the mighty Homer shone,
 Eternal adamant compos'd his throne ;
 Father of verse ! in holy fillets drest,
 His silver beard wav'd gently o'er his breast ;
 Tho' blind, a boldness in his looks appears ;
 In years he seem'd, but not impair'd by years.
 The wars of Troy were round the pillar seen :
 Here fierce Tydides wounds the Cyprian queen ;
 Here Hector glorious from Patrocles' fall,
 Here dragg'd in triumph round the Trojan wall
 Motion and life did ev'ry part inspire,
 Bold was the work, and prov'd the master's fire ;
 A strong expression most he seem'd t' affect,
 And here and there diselos'd a brave neglect.

A golden column next in rank appear'd
 On which a shrine of purest gold was rear'd ;
 Finish'd the whole, and labour'd every part,
 With patient touches of unwearied art :
 The Mantuan there in sober triumph sate,
 Compos'd his posture, and his look sedate ;
 On Homer still he fix'd a rev'rent eye,
 Great without pride, in modest majesty.
 In living sculpture on the sides were spread
 The Latin wars, and haughty Turnus dead ;
 Eliza stretch'd upon the fun'ral pyre ;
 Æneas bending with his aged sire :
 Troy flam'd in burning gold ; and o'er the throne
Arms and the man in golden cyphers shone.

Four swans sustain a car of silver bright,
 With heads advanc'd, and pinions stretch'd for flight :

Here, like some furious prophet, Pindar rode,
 And seem'd to labour with th' inspiring God,
 Across the heap a careless hand he flings,
 And boldly sinks into the sounding strings.
 The figur'd games of Greece the column grace;
 Neptune and Jove survey the rapid race.
 The youths hang o'er their chariots as they run,
 The fiery steeds seem starting from the stone,
 The champions, in disorder'd posture, threat;
 And all appear'd irregularly great.

Here happy Horace tun'd the Ausonian lyre
 To sweeter sounds, and temper'd Pindar's fire;
 Pleas'd with Alcaeus' manly rage t' infuse
 The softer spirit of the Sapphic Muse.
 The polish'd pillar diff'rent sculptures grace;
 A work outlasting monumental brass.
 Here smiling Loves and Bacchanals appear;
 The Julian star, and great Augustus here.
 The Doves that round the infant poet spread
 Myrtles and lays, hang hov'ring o'er his head.

Here, in a shrine that cast a dazzling light,
 Sat fix'd in thought the mighty Stagyrte;
 His sacred head a radiant zodiac crown'd,
 And various animals his sides surround;
 His piercing eyes, erect, appear to view
 Superior worlds, and look all nature through.

With equal rays immortal Tully shone;
 The Roman rostra deck'd the consul's throne;
 Gath'ring his flowing robe, he seem'd to stand
 In act to speak, and graceful stretch'd his hand.
 Behind, Rome's genius waits with civic crowns,
 And the great father of his country owns.

THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA.

1. THIS stupendous wall, which extends across the northern boundary of the Chinese empire, is deservedly ranked among the grandest labours of art. It is conducted over the summits of high mountains, several of which have an elevation of not less than 5225 feet, (nearly a mile) across deep vallies, and over wide rivers by

means of arches : in many parts it is doubled or trebled to command important passes ; and at the distance of nearly every hundred yards is a tower or massive bastion.

2. Its extent is computed at 1500 miles ; but in some parts, where less danger is apprehended, it is not equally strong or complete, and towards the northwest consists merely of a strong rampart of earth. Near Coopekoo it is twenty feet in height, and the top about fifteen feet thick ; some of the towers, which are square, are forty eight feet high, and about forty in width. The stone employed in the foundations, angles, &c. is a strong grey granite ; but the materials for the greatest part consist of bluish bricks, and the mortar is remarkably pure and white.

3. The era of the construction of this great barrier, which has been, and will continue to be, the wonder and admiration of ages, is considered by Sir George Staunton as having been absolutely ascertained ; and he asserts that it has existed for two thousand years. In this assertion he appears to have followed Du Halde, who informs us, that " this prodigious work was constructed two hundred and fifteen years before the birth of Christ, by order of the first emperor of the family of Tsing, to protect three large provinces from the irruptions of the Tartars.

4. However in the history of China, contained in his first volume, he ascribes this erection to the second emperor of the dynasty of Tsing, named Chi Hoang Ti ; and the date, immediately preceding the narrative of this construction, is the year 137 before the birth of Christ. Hence suspicions may arise, not only concerning the epoch when this work was undertaken, but also relatively to the purity and precision of the Chinese annals in general.

5. Mr. Bell who resided some time in China, and whose travels are deservedly esteemed for the accuracy of their information, assures us that this wall was built somewhere about the year 1160, by one of the emperors to prevent the frequent incursions of the Monguls, whose numerous cavalry used to ravage the provinces, and effect their escape before an army could be assembled to oppose them. Renaudot observes that this wall is not mentioned by any oriental geographer whose writings boast a higher antiquity than three hundred years.

6. It is surprising that it should have escaped Marco Paulo, who, admitting he entered China by a different rout, can hardly be supposed, during his long residence in the north of China, and in the country of the Monguls, to have remained ignorant of such a stupendous work. Amid these difficulties, it may be reasonably conjectured, that similar modes of defence had been adopted in different ages; and that the ancient rude barrier, having fallen into decay was replaced, perhaps after the invasion of Gingis, by the present erection, which, even from its state of preservation, can scarcely aspire to a very remote antiquity.

Questions.

What is the length of the Wall of China?

The breadth?

The height?

On which boundary of the empire does it stand?

When was it erected?

For what purpose?

Is it yet firm?

THE GREAT DESERT SAHARA.—*Riley.*

1. THE most striking figure of Africa consists of the immense deserts which prevade its surface, and which are supposed to comprise the one half of its whole extent. The chief of these is, by way of eminence, called Sahara, or the Desert. It stretches from the shores of the Atlantic, with few interruptions, to the confines of Egypt, a space of more than forty five degrees, or 2700 geographical miles, by a breadth of twelve degrees, or 720 geographical miles.

2. It is one prodigious expanse of red sand, and sandstone rock of the granulations of which, the red sand consists. It is, in truth, an empire of sand, which seems to defy every exertion of human power or industry, although it is interspersed with various islands, and fertile and cultivated spots of different sizes, of which Fezzan is the chief of those which have been hitherto explored.

South of this sandy ocean, and nearly midway between the Mediterranean Sea and the coast of Guinea, rise the walls of Tombuctoo, the capital of the very interesting empire of Bembarra—a city which constitutes the great mart for the commerce of all the interior of Africa.

3. To maintain this commerce is the laborious work of the *akkabaars*, or caravans, which cross this enormous desert from almost every part of the African coast. The mode in which it is traversed is highly curious. The caravans consist of several hundred loaded camels, accompanied by the Arabs who let them out to the merchants for the transport of their goods. During their route, they are often exposed to the attacks of the roving Arabs of Sahara, who generally commit their depredations on the approach to the confines of the desert.

4. In this tiresome journey, the caravans do not proceed to the place of their destination, in a direct line across the desert, but turn occasionally eastward or westward, according to the situation of certain fertile, inhabited, and cultivated spots called *oases*, interspersed in various parts of the Sahara, like islands in the ocean. These serve as watering places to the men, as well as to feed, refresh, and replenish the hardy and patient camel. At each of these cultivated spots, the caravan sojourns about seven days, and then proceeds on its journey, until it reaches another spot of the same description.

5. In the intermediate journeys, the hot winds, denominated Shume, or Simoon, are often so violent, as considerably, if not entirely, to exhale the water carried in skins by the camels, for the use of the passengers and drivers. On these occasions, it is affirmed by the Arabs, that five hundred dollars have been frequently given for a draught of water, and that ten or twenty dollars are commonly paid, when a partial exhalation has occurred.

6. In 1805, a caravan proceeding from Tombuctoo to Tafilet, was disappointed in not finding water at one of the usual watering places, when horrible to relate, the whole of the persons belonging to it, two thousand in number, besides one thousand eight hundred camels, perished of thirst! Accidents of this nature, account for the vast quantities of human and other bones, which are found heaped together in various parts of the desert.

7. The following is the general route of the caravans,

in crossing the desert. Having left the city of Fez, the capital of Morocco, they proceed at the rate of three miles and a half an hour, and travel seven hours each day. In the space of eighteen days, they reach Akka, where they remain a month; as this is the place of rendezvous at which they are formed into one grand accumulated caravan. In proceeding from Akka to Tagassa, sixteen days are employed; and here again, the caravan sojourns fifteen days to refresh the camels.

8. It then directs its course to the *oasis* and well of Taudeny, which is reached in seven days; and, after another stay of fifteen days, proceeds to Arawan, a watering place, situated at a like distance. After having sojourned there fifteen days, it sets out, and reaches Tombuctoo on the sixth day, after having performed a journey of fifty-four days of actual travelling, and seventy-five of repose, making altogether, from Fez to Tombuctoo, one hundred and twenty-nine days, or four lunar months and nine days.

9. Another caravan sets out from Wedinoon and Sok Assa, traversing the desert between the black mountains of Cape Bojadore and Gualata; it touches at Tagassa and El Garbie, or West Tagassa, where having staid to collect salt it proceeds to Tombuctoo. The time occupied by this caravan, is five or six months, as it proceeds as far as Gibbel-bied, or the white mountains, near cape Blanco, through the deserts of Mograffa and Woled Abusebah, to a place named Agadeen, where it sojourns twenty days.

10. The caravans which cross the desert, may be compared to fleets of merchant vessels under convoy, the *stata*, or convoy of the desert, consisting of a certain number of Arabs, belonging to the tribe through whose territory the caravan passes. Thus in crossing the territory of Woled Abusebah, it is accompanied by Sebayhees, or people of that country, who on reaching the confines of the territory of Woled Deleim, deliver their charge to the protection of the chiefs of that country.

11. These again conduct it to the confines of the territory of the Mograffa Arabs, under whose care it at length reaches Tombuctoo. Any assault on the caravan during this journey, is considered as an insult to the whole tribe to which the convoy belongs; and for such an outrage they never fail to take ample revenge. Besides

these grand caravans, others cross the desert on an emergency, without a convoy, or a guard. This is, however, a perilous expedition—as they are too often plundered near the northern confines of the desert, by two notorious tribes named Dikna and Emjot.

12. In the year 1798, a caravan consisting of two thousand camels laden with the produce of the Souham territory, together with seven hundred slaves, was plundered and dispersed, with great slaughter. These desperate attacks are conducted in the following manner. The tribe being assembled, the horses are picketed at the entrance of the tents, and scouts sent out, to give notice when a caravan is likely to pass. These scouts being mounted on the *heirie*, or fleet horses of the desert, quickly communicate the intelligence when the whole tribe mount their horses, taking with them a sufficient number of female camels, on whose milk they entirely subsist.

13. Having placed themselves in ambush near a watering place, they issue thence on the arrival of the caravan, which they plunder without mercy, leaving the unfortunate merchants entirely destitute. The food, dress, and accommodations of the people who compose the caravan, are simple and natural. Being prohibited by their religion the use of wine and intoxicating liquors, and exhorted by its principles to temperance in all things, they are commonly satisfied with a few nourishing dates, and a draught of water, travelling for weeks successively without any other food.

14. At other times, when they undertake a journey of a few weeks across the desert, a little barley meal, mixed with water, constitutes their only nourishment. In following this abstemious mode of life, they never complain, but solace themselves with the hope of reaching their native country, singing occasionally during the journey, whenever they approach a habitation, or when the camels are fatigued. Their songs are usually sung *in trio*; and those of the camel-drivers who have musical voices, join in the chorus.

15. These songs have a surprising effect in renovating the camels, while the symphony and time maintained by the singers, surpass what any one would conceive who has not heard them. The day's journey is terminated early,

in the afternoon, when the tents are pitched, prayers said, and the supper prepared by sunset. The guests now arrange themselves in a circle, and the sober meal being terminated, converse till they are overcome by sleep. At day-break, next morning, they again proceed on their journey.

Questions.

Where is the desert of Sahara, or Zahara ?

What is its length ?

What its breadth ?

What is the emporium of interior Africa ?

How is the commerce of this city supported ?

To what extremities are the caravans sometimes reduced ?

Are there any fertile and cultivated spots in this desert ?

Are the Arabs abstemious ?

What do they principally subsist on ?

Have they a disposition to plunder ?

EXPEDITION OF BURGOYNE.—*Silliman.*

1. IN May, 1775, Ticonderoga, and Crown Point, and the small marine force on the lake, had been taken by surprise, by the Americans, led by Colonels Allen and Arnold, and thus, the command of lakes George and Champlain, had been acquired without bloodshed, and with comparatively little effort. This opened the way for the invasion of Canada, which was undertaken, in form, in the summer of 1775, it being supposed that the Canadians were disaffected to the British government, and needed nothing but the appearance of an American army, to induce a general revolt.

2. Accordingly in September, 1775, General Schuyler, with General Montgomery, proceeded to the Sorel river, and took post at the Isle-aux-Noix, eight or nine miles above St. Johns, and eleven below the egress of the river from Lake Champlain. General Schuyler falling sick, the command devolved on General Montgomery, who, in the course of a few weeks, reduced the forts of St. Johns and Chambly, on the river Sorel, and captured Montreal,

and the towns of Sorel, and the Trois Rivieres, on the St. Lawrence.

3. Early in December he formed a junction with General Arnold, who in November arrived at Point Levi, opposite to Quebec, with the little army which he commanded, (having traversed the hideous wilderness between the Kennebec and St. Lawrence rivers,) and the two armies united, scarcely equalling one thousand men, proceeded in due form, to invest Quebec. The siege, from the want of heavy cannon, proving ineffectual, they made a desperate assault on the last day of December.

4. This terminated in the death of Montgomery, and the defeat of the enterprise; the army, however kept its ground, in the vicinity of Quebec, till spring, and maintained, partly a siege, and partly a blockade of the place. On the return of spring, and the arrival of British reinforcements, the American army gradually retired up the St. Lawrence; and, although largely reinforced, from time to time, till it amounted eventually to eight thousand men, it was not able to retain possession of the country.

5. By degrees, after various conflicts, more or less important, all that had been gained by so much effort and blood, was relinquished. In June, 1776, the evacuation of Canada was complete, and the great objects, originally in view, of uniting Canada to the states, and of preventing invasion from that quarter, were entirely defeated. Still the Americans held the command of the lakes, and Sir Guy Carleton, who commanded in Canada, made such astonishing efforts to prepare a navy, that by the autumn of 1776, he had a force much superior to that of the Americans.

6. A desperate conflict ensued, in October of the same year; and General Arnold, who commanded the American flotilla, although he did every thing which valour could accomplish, witnessed the complete destruction of this little navy. Thus the principal obstacles, that prevented the invasion of the new States, from Canada, were removed, and the tide of war with a powerful reflux, was soon to roll back from the North.

7. The troops, destined for the intended invasion, were already in Canada, and General Burgoyne, their future commander, returned to England in the autumn of 1776, to digest the plan of the intended campaign. By an exer-

tion of arbitrary authority, he was made to supersede General Sir Guy Carleton, who had commanded, with much ability, during the preceding campaign, and whose only fault in the view of the English ministry, was, probably, his humanity and clemency to the Americans; his magnanimity, however, led him still to do every thing in his power to forward the service.

8. In the spring of 1777, General Burgoyne returned to Canada, took the command, and the armament proceeded on its destination. It was led by accomplished and experienced officers;—it was furnished with a most formidable train of brass artillery, and with the apparatus, stores, and equipments, which the nature of the service required, and the art of man had invented. Veteran corps of the best troops of Britain and Germany, formed almost the whole of this dreadful army, while Canadians, and American loyalists, furnished it with rangers, scouts, and spies and a numerous array of savages, with their own dress, and weapons, and with their own characteristic ferocity, increased the terrors of its approach.

9 It numbered, according to common estimation, ten thousand strong, including every description of force; an army, which considering the theatre of action, was equal to ten times that number in the ordinary wars of Europe. It is probable, however, that this force was somewhat over-rated, by the Americans, as the regular troops did not exceed, (according to the statement of the British officers,) seven thousand men. Unmolested in its progress, from St. Johns, up the lake, it landed and invested Ticonderoga on the first and second days of July.

10. This post, the key of the North, had not been attempted by Sir Guy Carleton, after the destruction of the American flotilla, in the preceding October. It had in the meantime been strengthened by additional works, and men, and the command of it committed to General St. Clair, an officer of the highest standing. The country looked to him for a vigorous defence, and expected that he would soon stem the tide of invasion, and fix bounds to its proud billows.

11. But, that country little knew the really feeble, and ill provided state of the garrison, and its utter incompetency, to contend with the formidable army by which it was threatened. Had it been even much stronger than

it was, its strength would have been rendered unavailing, by the unexpected occupancy of Sugar Loaf Hill, or Mount Defiance, hitherto deemed inaccessible, and equally neglected, by all previous commanders, whether French, British or Americans, and had the latter now thought proper to possess it, they could not have spared troops for the purpose.

12. From this commanding, and very contiguous position, General Burgoyne was already prepared, to pour down into the garrison a certain and deadly fire from his artillery; while not an effective shot could be returned. The Eagle, perched in the covert of the rock, was poising his wings to dart upon the defenceless prey, that was crouching beneath him, and nothing but precipitate flight could save the victim.

13. Accordingly on the night of the fifth of July, Ticonderoga was abandoned: the baggage, stores, hospital, ordnance and moveable provisions were dispatched to Skeensborough, by water, in the little American flotilla, while the main body of the garrison, having crossed the lake to Fort Independence, defiled to the left into Vermont. They were closely pursued by a body of the British, under General Frazer, and of the Germans under General Reidesel, who, the next day, brought them to action, and the obstinate and sanguinary conflicts at Hubberton, evinced, that although in retreat, they were still very formidable.

14. This little army led by General St. Clair, after a circuitous rout, reached the Hudson, at Batten Kill, and soon joined General Schuyler, who, with the main army, was a few miles above, at Fort Edward. General Burgoyne, with the great body of the British troops, proceeded in pursuit of his enemy, up the lake to Skeensborough, and destroyed the American flotilla, baggage and stores, while General Phillips with most of the stores of General Burgoyne, went up lake George, to Fort George, situated at its head.

15. General Schuyler's army continued to retreat, down the Hudson, to Saratoga and Stillwater, and at last, to Van Shaick's island, in the mouth of the Mohawk, where it took post, on the eighteenth of August. From Skeensborough, General Burgoyne, with extreme difficulty, and after several weeks of severe labor and one con-

siderable battle near Fort Anne, cleared the passage to Fort Edward ; for General Schuyler, in consequence of General Burgoyne's halting nearly three weeks at Skeensborough, had time to throw very formidable obstructions in his way.

16. He felled innumerable trees into Wood Creek, and across the roads, by Fort Anne ; he demolished bridges, and by every other means in his power, so impeded his march, that the British army did not arrive at Fort Edward, on the Hudson, till the 30th of July. A junction was at length formed at this place, between the main body, and the division that went by lake George. In order to enable General Burgoyne to move down the Hudson, it was necessary to transport the stores, boats and ammunition, a distance of sixteen miles, over a very difficult country, from Fort George to Fort Edward.

17. But still on the fifteenth of August, there was at Fort Edward, only four days' provisions in advance: On the sixteenth, Colonel Baum, who with his Germans, had been detached by Burgoyne, to seize a magazine of stores at Bennington, in Vermont, and to countenance the loyalists in that quarter, was totally defeated and slain by General Stark ; most of his detachment were either killed or taken prisoners ; and Colonel Breyman, who had been sent to succour Baum, and who arrived on the same ground, a few hours after the battle, was also defeated, and with extreme difficulty, regained the main army with the greater part of his troops.

18. In the mean time Colonel St. Leger, in consequence of an arrangement, made in England, had proceeded early in August, with an army of British and Indians, to attack Fort Stanwix, called also Fort Schuyler, on the Mohawk. This was intended to operate as a diversion in favour of Burgoyne ; to distract the Americans, and, in case of success, to bring down a powerful force, upon their flank.

19. This expedition was attended with some success, in the defeat of Colonel Herkimer, who fell into an ambuscade, while advancing with the militia of the vicinity, to relieve the Fort ; he was slain with many of his party ; but a successful sally from the Fort—the reported advance of General Arnold with a force greatly magnified by the artful representations of some friendly Indians, and the fears and fickleness of the savages, in the British

army, eventually defeated St. Leger's expedition, and caused him to retreat in extreme confusion and distress.

20. Thus, General Burgoyne was disappointed of any collateral aid, from St. Leger, and the signal defeat at Bennington, not only deprived him of any supply of provisions from that source, but lost him a sixth part of the regular troops in his army, and revealed the important secret, that regular troops could be beaten by militia. These events revived the courage of the Americans, gave them time to rally and recruit their armies; and very materially embarrassed and retarded the movements of General Burgoyne.

21. To retreat was to abandon the objects of his expedition, and to disappoint the expectations of his government; to advance, although with increasing difficulties, and dangers, was therefore the only alternative. Accordingly on the thirteenth and fourteenth of September, he passed the Hudson river, on a bridge of boats, not far from fort Miller, and advanced, without any material opposition, to Saratoga and Stillwater, till, on the seventeenth his advanced guard was within four miles of the American army, now returning northward.

22. On the eighteenth, the fronts of the two armies were almost in contact, and some skirmishing ensued, but without bringing on a general engagement. The two armies were now so situated that the catastrophe could not long be averted, and the four succeeding weeks, were pregnant with dangers and difficulties, and fruitful in the waste of human life.

Sect. 2. The battle ground.

23. The two great battles which decided the fate of Burgoyne's army, were fought, the first on the nineteenth of September, and the last, on the seventh of October on Bemis' heights, and very nearly on the same ground, which is about two miles west of the river. The river is, in this region, bordered for many miles, by a continued meadow, of no great breadth; upon this meadow, there was then, as there is now, a good road, close to the river, and parallel to it.

24. Upon this road, marched the heavy artillery and baggage, constituting the left wing of the British army.

while the advanced corps of the light troops, forming the right wing, kept on the heights which bound the meadows. The American army was south and west of the British, its right wing on the river, and its left resting on the heights. A great part of the battle ground was occupied by lofty forest trees, principally pine, with here and there a few cleared fields, of which the most conspicuous, was called Freeman's farm, and is so called in General Burgoyne's plans.

25. Such is nearly the present situation of these heights, only there is more cleared land; the *gigantic* trees have been principally felled, but a considerable number remain, as witnesses to posterity; they still shew the wounds, made in their trunks and branches, by the missiles of contending armies; their roots still penetrate the soil, that was made fruitful by the blood of the brave, and their sombre foliage still murmurs with the breeze, which once sighed, as it bore the departing spirits along.

26. The British picket occupied a small house, on Freeman's farm, when a part of Colonel Morgan's corps fell in with, and immediately drove them from it, leaving the house almost "encircled with their dead." The pursuing party almost immediately, and very unexpectedly fell in with the British line, and were in part captured, the rest dispersed.

27. This incident occurred at half past twelve o'clock; there was then an intermission till one, when the action was sharply renewed; but it did not become general, till three, from which time it raged with unabated fury till night. "The theatre of action," (says General Wilkinson) "was such that though the combatants changed ground a dozen times, in the course of the day, the contest terminated on the spot where it began.

28. "This may be explained in a few words. The British line was formed on an eminence in a thin pine wood, having before it Freeman's farm, an oblong field, stretching from the centre towards its right, the ground in front sloping gently down to the verge of this field, which was bordered, on the opposite side by a close wood: the sanguinary scene lay in the cleared ground, between the eminence occupied by the enemy, and the wood just described; the fire of our marksmen from this wood, was too deadly to be withstood, by the enemy, in line."

29. "When they gave way and broke, our men rush-

ing from their covert pursued them to the eminence, where having their flanks protected, they rallied, and charging in turn, drove us back into the wood, from whence a dreadful fire would again force them to fall back ; and in this manner, did the battle fluctuate, like waves of a stormy sea, with alternate advantages, for four hours, without one moment's intermission."

30. " The British artillery fell into our possession, at every charge, but we could neither turn the pieces upon the enemy nor bring them off ; the wood prevented the last, and the want of a match the first, as the lint stock was invariably carried off, and the rapidity of the transitions did not allow us time to provide one ; the slaughter of this brigade of artillerists was remarkable, the Captain and thirty six men being killed or wounded out of forty eight."

31. " It was truly a gallant conflict, in which death, by familiarity, lost its terrors, and certainly a drawn battle as night alone terminated it : the British army keeping its ground in rear of the field of action, and our corps, when they could no longer distinguish objects, retiring to their own camp. Yet General Burgoyne claimed a victory." It had however with respect to him, all the consequences of a defeat : his loss was between five and six hundred, while ours was but little more than half that number ; his loss was irreparable, ours easily repaired, and in proportion to our entire army, as well as absolutely, it was much less than his.

32. The stress of the action, as regards the British, lay principally on the twentieth, twenty-first and sixty-second regiments ; the latter which was five hundred strong, when it left Canada, was reduced to less than sixty men, and to four or five officers. General Burgoyne states, that there was scarcely ever an interval of a minute in the smoke, when some British officer was not shot by the American riflemen, posted in the trees in the rear, and on the flank of their own line.

33. A shot which was meant for General Burgoyne, severely wounded Captain Green, an Aid of General Phillips : the mistake was owing to the captain's having a rich laced furniture to his saddle, which caused the marksman to mistake him for the General. Such was the ardour of the Americans, that, as General Wilkinson

states, the wounded men, after having their wounds dressed, in many instances returned again to the battle.

34. The battle of the seventh of October, was fought on the same ground, but it was not so stationary ; it commenced farther to the right, and extended, in its various periods, over more surface, eventually occupying not only Freeman's farm, but it was urged by the Americans to the very camp of the enemy, which, towards night, was most impetuously stormed, and in part carried.

35. The interval between the nineteenth of September and the seventh of October, was one of great anxiety to both armies ; " not a night passed, (adds General Burgoyne) without firing, and sometimes concerted attacks on our pickets ; no foraging party could be made without great detachments to cover it ; it was the plan of the enemy to harrass the army by constant alarms, and their superiority of numbers enabled them to do it, without fatigue to themselves.

37. " By being habituated to fire, our soldiers became indifferent to it, and were capable of eating or sleeping when it was very near them ; but I do not believe that either officer or soldier ever slept during that interval, without his clothes, or that any general officer or commander of a regiment passed a single night, without being upon his legs, occasionally, at different hours, and constantly an hour before day light."

38. The battle of the seventh was brought on by a movement of General Burgoyne, who caused one thousand five hundred men. with ten pieces of artillery, to march towards the left of the American army, for the purpose of discovering whether it was possible to force a passage ; or in case a retreat of the royal army should become indispensable, to dislodge the Americans from their entrenchments, and also to cover a forage, which had now become indispensably necessary.

39. It was about the middle of the afternoon, that the British were observed advancing, and the Americans, with small arms lost no time in attacking the British grenadiers and artillery, although under a tremendous fire from the latter ; the battle soon extended along the whole line ; Colonel Morgan, at the same time, attacked, with his riflemen, on the right wing ; Colonel Ackland, the commander of the grenadiers, fell, wounded : the

grenadiers were defeated, and most of the artillery taken, after great slaughter.

40. After a most sanguinary contest, of less than one hour, the discomfiture and retreat of the British became general, and they had scarcely regained their camp, before the lines were stormed with the greatest fury, and part of Lord Balcarras' camp, was for a short time in possession of the Americans. The Germans under Colonel Breyman, forming the right reserve of the army, were stormed in their encampment, by General Learned and Colonel Brooks.

41. General Arnold was wounded on this occasion; Colonel Breyman was killed; and the Germans were either captured, slain, or forced to retreat in the most precipitate manner, leaving the British encampment, on the right, entirely unprotected, and liable to be assailed the next morning. All the British officers bear testimony to the valour and obstinacy of the attacks of the Americans.

42. The fact was, the British were sorely defeated, routed, and vigorously pursued to their lines, which, it seems probable, would have been entirely carried by assault, had not darkness, as in the battle of the nineteenth, put an end to the sanguinary contest. It is obvious, from General Burgoyne's own account, and from the testimony of his officers that this was a severe defeat; and such an one as has rarely been experienced by a British army.

43. The night of October 7th, was a most critical one for the royal army; in the course of it, they abandoned their camp, changed their whole position, and retreated to their works upon the height, contiguous to the river, and immediately behind the hospital.

Sect. 3. The last encampment.

44. Six days more of anxiety, fatigue and suffering, remained for the British army. They had lost part of their provision batteaux, when they abandoned their hospital, and the rest being exposed to immediate danger, the small stock of provisions remaining was landed under a heavy fire, and hauled up the heights. On these heights, close to the meadows bordering on the river, they formed a fortified camp, and strengthened it with artillery.

45. Most of the artillery, however, was on the plain.

General Gates' army, stretched along south of the Fish-kill, and parallel to it; the corps of Colonel Morgan, lay west and north of the British army, and General Fellows with three thousand men, was on the east of the Hudson, ready to dispute the passage. Fort Edward was soon after occupied by the Americans—a fortified camp was formed on the high ground, between the Hudson and lake George, and parties were stationed up and down the river.

46. The desperate resolution which had been taken in General Burgoyne's camp, of abandoning their artillery and baggage, and (with no more provisions than they could carry on their backs) forcing their way by a rapid night march and in this manner gaining one of the lakes, was rendered abortive. Every part of the camp of the royal army was exposed, not only to cannon balls, but to rifle shot; not a single place of safety could be found, not a corner where a council could be held, a dinner taken in peace, or where the sick and the wounded, the females and the children, could find an asylum.

47. Even the access to the river was rendered very hazardous by the numerous rifle shot; and the army was soon distressed for want of water. General Reidesel, and his lady and children were often obliged to drink wine instead of water, and they had no way to procure the latter, except that a soldier's wife ventured to the river for them, and the Americans out of respect to her sex, did not fire at her. To protect his family from shot, General Reidesel, soon after their arrival at Saratoga, directed them to take shelter in a house, not far off.

48. They had scarcely reached it, before a terrible cannonade was directed against that very house, upon the mistaken idea that all the generals were assembled in it. "Alas," adds the Baroness, "it contained none but wounded and women; we were at last obliged to resort to the cellar for refuge, and in one corner of this, I remained the whole day, my children sleeping on the earth, with their heads in my lap, and in the same situation, I passed a sleepless night."

49. "Eleven cannon balls passed through the house, and we could distinctly hear them roll away. One poor soldier, who was lying on a table, for the purpose of having his leg amputated, was struck by a shot which carried

away his other ; his comrades had left him, and when we went to his assistance, we found him in a corner of the room, into which he had crept, more dead than alive, scarcely breathing."

50. A horse of General Reidesel was in constant readiness for his lady to mount, in case of a sudden retreat, and three English officers who were wounded, and lodged in the same house, had made her a solemn promise, that they would each of them take one of her children, and fly with them, when such a measure should become necessary. "In this horrid situation," they remained six days, till the cessation of hostilities, which ended in a convention for the surrender of the army ; the treaty was signed on the sixteenth, and the army surrendered the next day.

Sect. 4. The Field of Surrender.

51. It was upon the banks of the Fishkill, that the British army surrendered. General Wilkinson's account of this interview is interesting. "Early in the morning of the 17th, visited General Burgoyne in his camp, and accompanied him to the ground, where his army were to lay down their arms, from whence we rode to the bank of the Hudson's river, which he surveyed with attention, and asked me whether it was not fordable. "Certainly, Sir ; but do you observe the people on the opposite shore ?"—"Yes, (replied he) I have seen them too long."

52. He then proposed to be introduced to General Gates, and we crossed the Fishkill, and proceeded to head quarters, General Burgoyne in front, with his adjutant General Kingston, and his aids de camp Captain Lord Petersham, and Lieutenant Wilford behind him ; then followed Major General Phillips, the Baron Reidesel, and the other General officers, and their suits, according to rank."

53. "General Gates, advised of Burgoyne's approach, met him at the head of his camp, Burgoyne in a rich royal uniform, and General Gates in a plain blue frock ; when they had approached nearly within sword's length, they reined up, and halted ; I then named the gentlemen, and General Burgoyne, raising his hat most gracefully,

said, "The fortune of war, General Gates, has made me your prisoner;" to which the conqueror, returning a courtly salute, promptly replied, "I shall always be ready to bear testimony, that it has not been through any fault of your excellency."

54. "Major General Phillips then advanced, and he, and General Gates saluted, and shook hands with the familiarity of old acquaintances. The Baron Reidesel, and the other officers were introduced in their turn." The ground occupied for the surrender was a beautiful meadow, situated at the intersection of the Fishkill with the Hudson and north of the former. There is nothing now to distinguish the spot, except the ruins of old Fort Hardy, built during the French wars, and the deeply interesting historical associations which will cause this place to be memorable to the latest generation.

55. Thousands and thousands, yet unborn, will visit this spot, with feelings of the deepest interest, and it will not be forgotten till Thermopylæ, and Marathon, and Bannockburn, and Waterloo, shall cease to be remembered. There, it shall be said, were the last entrenchments of a proud invading army, on that spot stood their formidable park of artillery—and here, on this now peaceful meadow, they piled their arms! their arms no longer terrible, but now converted into a glorious trophy of victory!

Questions.

In what year was Ticonderoga and Crown Point taken by the Americans?

When was it invested by the British?

Was it abandoned by the Americans?

When were the two great battles fought that decided the fate of Burgoyne?

At what place?

Who commanded the American forces at this time?

RUSSIA.—*Worcester.**Inhabitants, Manners and Customs.*

1. THE Russians are among the most illiterate and least civilized nations of Europe. They are of middle stature, and have in general small mouths, thin lips, and white teeth. They are hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour. Though credulous and ignorant, they have often a lively and engaging manner. They are far from cleanly, but the bad consequences of this great defect are counteracted as far as regards health, by the use of the vapour bath, common among the lower as well as among the higher ranks. Gambling and excessive drinking are very prevalent.

2. The Russians consist chiefly of two classes, the nobility and the bondsmen. The intermediate body, consisting of freemen, comprises, even in the large towns, hardly any others than the foreign settlers and their descendants.

3. The nobility receive the appellations of prince, count, and baron; and none but nobles can be owners of land. Many of them are possessed of large tracts of country, together with the peasantry cultivating the land, and live in great style, with a numerous establishment of servants, among whom, as among the nobles of France and England, three centuries ago, a dwarf and jester not unfrequently form a part. They are, in general, ignorant, proud, sensual, and unprincipled.

4. The dress of the nobles, formerly Asiatic, has in the course of the last century, come round to the European fashion. Among the higher ranks the dress of the men consists of a pelisse, or large fur cloak, fur boots or shoes, a black velvet or fur bonnet, which is made large enough to cover their ears. All classes let their beards grow. The Russian females seem to have no idea of taste in dress: what they aim at is brilliancy of display.

5. "The richness and splendour of the Russian court," says Mr. Coxe, "surpasses all ideas which the most elaborate description can suggest. It retains many traces of its ancient Asiatic pomp, blended with European refinement. An immense retinue of courtiers always preceded.

and followed the empress (Catharine II); the costliness and glare of their apparel, and a profusion of precious stones, created a splendor of which the magnificence of other courts can give only a faint idea. The court-dress of the men is in the French fashion: that of the ladies is a gown and petticoat, with a small hoop; the gown has long hanging sleeves and a short train, and is of a different colour from the petticoat. The ladies wore, according to the fashion of the winter of 1777, at Paris and London, very lofty head-dresses, and were not sparing in the use of rouge.

6. "Amid the several articles of sumptuousness which distinguish the Russian nobility, there is none perhaps more calculated to strike a foreigner, than the profusion of diamonds and other precious stones which sparkle in every part of their dress. In most other European countries these costly ornaments are, excepting among a few of the richest and principal nobles, almost entirely appropriated to the ladies; but in Russia the men vie with the fair sex in the use of them. Many of the nobility were almost covered with diamonds; their buttons, buckles, hilts of swords, and epaulets were composed of this valuable material; their hats were frequently embroidered, as it were, with several rows of them; and a diamond star upon the coat was scarcely a distinction.

7. "This passion for diamonds seems to pervade the lower ranks of people, for even private families abound with them; and the wife of a common Russian burgher will appear with a head-dress or girdle of pearls, and other precious stones to the value of two or three hundred pounds."

8. The Russian peasantry are in a very abject condition, being bought and sold with the estate which they cultivate. They are allowed to take about half of their time to work on their own account; but are subject at all times to be called away in the service of their masters, and when awkward in a new employment are drilled to it by blows. Their master may likewise send them to the army when he thinks fit. He exercises the same despotic authority over their women and among other rights, has that of fixing the time of their marriage.

9. Peasants of the better class have a stable and barn appended to their cottage: but the great majority have

only a cottage, occupied in one end by the family, and in the other by their hogs. Part of the space is taken up by the stove and oven ; on the side is a large shelf, on which some of the inmates sleep, while others repose on the top of the stove, beds being unknown in these humble abodes.

10. The chief articles of food of the peasants are black bread, cabbage, cucumbers, mushrooms, onions, garlic, and turnips. Their common drink is quass, a liquor made by pouring boiling water on rye bread, and leaving it to ferment. Its taste is disagreeable to persons not accustomed to it. Each cottage has a patron saint, like the *Penates* of the Romans, but his figure is often obscured by smoke and filth. The priests are ill calculated to redeem the peasantry from ignorance ; they seldom or never preach, but confine their service to reading the liturgy.

11. Nothing, says Mr. Johnston, arrests the attention of a stranger more, on his entering the Russian capital, than the appearance of the common people. They are all clad alike, having a long swaddling cloak of sheep-skin or coarse cloth wrapped round their bodies. In hot weather this is sometimes exchanged for a coarse shirt and loose trowsers. Their legs are bound round with pieces of sail-cloth, and their shoes are made of the bark of trees. Their hair is cut across from one temple to the other, in a line with their eyebrows ; from the temples it hangs down perpendicularly, so as to cover the ears, from which it is cropped directly across the neck. The lower part of the face is concealed by a hideous and filthy beard. Their countenances, though coarse, are open and full of good humour. In their manners they are extremely animated and considerably polished ; and they talk with rapidity and much gesticulation.

12. The character and manners of the inhabitants of Moscow and neighbourhood, differ considerably from those of St. Petersburg, being more careless and less ceremonious. Every thing bears the mark of antiquity and rudeness. They have, however, a similar costume, being clad in a sheep skin tunic, fastened round the waist with a girdle, or a tunic of cloth, plaited behind like a woman's petticoat.

13. Religion is a prominent feature in the character of a Russian. To this all his actions are devoted, and he becomes the mechanical slave of his devotions. In front

of every church, and in many places in the streets, a painting of the Virgin is exhibited, which no one passes without uncovering his head, profoundly bowing, and crossing himself. In almost every room a picture of the Virgin is hung up; and the moment a Russian enters the door, he performs his duty to the picture, before he addresses himself to any one. If he is accused of any misdemeanor, he asserts his innocence by repeated crossings and invocations to his favourite saint. If he receives a donation, he expresses his thanks, bows, crosses himself, and even kisses the ground.

14. The Russians make admirable soldiers. They are content with extremely small pay, and with a very slender and coarse diet, and are always cheerful. A Russian soldier is remarkable for his fine form; his figure is commanding, his gait erect, his evolutions like a machine, quick and accurate; his uniform simple and graceful. Taken in a body no line can present a finer appearance than these men; and they are excellent models in dress, obedience, and dexterity in the use of arms. Their uniform consists of a long dark-green coat, with red cuffs and collar; long white loose trowsers, made with gaiters at the feet; and a low cap, ornamented at the sides with white cord and tassels.

15. Horses are very numerous in Russia, and are uncommonly hardy and tractable. No trait in the Russian character is more amiable than his humane treatment of his horse. In driving this animal, he makes no use of a whip, but propels him forward only by the sound of music or of his voice: the horse, instead of avoiding, courts the acquaintance of his master. The harness and reins are sometimes made of coarse leather, but more commonly of ropes.—The manes and tails of the horses are worn extremely long, particularly the manes, which are generally false, and carried to such ridiculous length, as to sweep the streets, and become a burden to the suffering animal. These false manes are considered as marks of extraordinary beauty.

16. Women perform the field work, such as cutting down and threshing the grain. When working in the field they wear only a loose shift, fastened round the waist by a girdle and fancifully embroidered round the skirts and neck with red threads. In features they seem to be

as coarsely formed as the men, and in their manners are extremely masculine. In cold weather they are clad, like the men, in sheep-skins.

17. Among the singular customs of this country, that of blessing the apple before it is allowed to be eaten, is a regular religious ceremony. As soon as the apples are known to be ripe, the high-priest solemnly blesses the fruit in the most public manner, and it cannot be eaten till after this ceremony.

18. With a Russian, money is scarce, of high value, and has an uncommon charm over him. For a trifle his services may be commanded, and for that trifle he is most grateful. A postillion, who drives six horses 30 miles, is content to receive six pence. If a shilling is given, he expresses his thanks with great animation, bowing to the ground and kissing it, crossing himself and repeating a prayer. All postillions regularly cross themselves, and offer up a short prayer before they mount the box; and regularly as they pass a church they take off their hats and cross themselves. When not actively employed, they immediately fall asleep. They never make use of beds, but lie upon the pavement of the street, the floor of the stable, or between the wheels of a carriage. If a postillion has occasion to wait for travellers during any part of the night, he lies down on the bare stones under the carriage, with his hat placed under his head for a pillow, and thus sleeps like a dog.

19. The Russian villages all resemble each other; the houses are built of wood, by laying beams one across the other; the spaces between the beams are closed with flax and moss. A large door leads to the yard. In the house is a sort of hall, with numerous conveniences for milk, and other necessaries; and the family room, with a tremendous stove built of tiles, which is always red hot, even in the midst of the most sultry summer. Wooden benches are fastened to the wainscot all round the room, before which stands a table.

20. In one corner is suspended the *Obross* or idol, which the Russian without ceremony calls his God, and on a small shelf underneath, stands a lamp, which in the houses of people of rank is continually burning, but with the common people it is only lighted on holidays; on particular solemn occasions, or when they wish to atone for a

particular sin, they place a lighted wax taper by the side of it. Fowls, dogs, cats, pigeons, in short the whole family are here collected. To one of the main beams is suspended an elastic cradle, by means of ropes, which may be put in motion without difficulty, and will continue swinging some time.

21. A Russian village is entirely destitute of trees, and you may often look round in vain for one to a considerable extent. They have an appearance of nakedness, and the surrounding country is mostly a large uninhabited district, or consists chiefly of grass land for cattle.

22. A great part of the lower class of people at St. Petersburg can scarcely be reckoned among the inhabitants. Throughout the summer many thousands are employed as carpenters, bricklayers, masons, &c., who return home at the approach of winter, and whose numbers are supplied by other thousands who gain their bread as ice-cutters. Most of them have no resident city, and no property except the implements of their industry. They chiefly dwell in the surrounding villages where they enter into companies differently composed as to the numbers and defray the expenses of living out of a common chest. Many of those who have undertaken to erect a building, never leave the place of their employment, but sleep in the open air among heaps of rubbish, or under gateways, in order to be earlier at work in the morning. Great numbers live entirely during summer on board the barks and floats of timber, that come to St. Petersburg under their conduct.

23. The Russian mechanic, whose trade obliges him to a sedentary life, commonly lives in the cellar of some brick house. Almost all the houses having, according to the Italian fashion, a habitable range of cellars, these people find quarters even in the best parts of the town; and it often happens that the cellars are filled with lodgers while the workmen are still employed in erecting the first and second stories.

24. Few people are more contented with their situation than the Russians, and in no country is there a greater proportion of natural cheerfulness and resignation, and a greater participation in public festivities, than in Russia. No Russian, however poor, consumes all that he earns; frequently he continues his extremely parsimonious way

of life even after he has, by his diligence, secured himself from all danger of future want. The earnings of the lowest day-labourer are more than adequate to his wants.

25. A people so fond of social amusements as those of the city of St. Petersburg, are not apt to let slip any opportunity for feasting and junketing. Name-days and birth-days are particularly solemnized in Russian families with grand entertainments or balls, at which the friends and acquaintance customarily assemble without formal invitation. The birth of a child, the appointment to an office, the purchase of a house, in short, every fortunate occurrence furnishes an occasion for domestic festivity.

26. At these times the same ease and freedom prevail, that so agreeably heighten the character of the general manners of the people of this place. No custom is of such universal obligation as not to admit of an exception without impropriety; no where are fewer formalities, and no where is the neglect of them attended with fewer remarks and expostulations. Weddings, christenings, and funerals, are conducted in various ways; there being at St. Petersburg no rule of etiquette prescribing the pomp, nor any form to regulate the ceremonies.

27. Among the many conveniences introduced of late into Russia, that of travelling is remarkable. Nothing strikes a stranger more than the facility with which the Russians perform the longest and most uncomfortable journies. 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 internal parts of Russia, horses draw their sledges: and the sledge-way towards February becomes so well beaten, that they erect a kind of couch upon the sledges, on which they may lie at full length, and so travel night and day, wrapt up in good furs; thus they will sometimes perform a journey of four hundred miles in three days and nights.

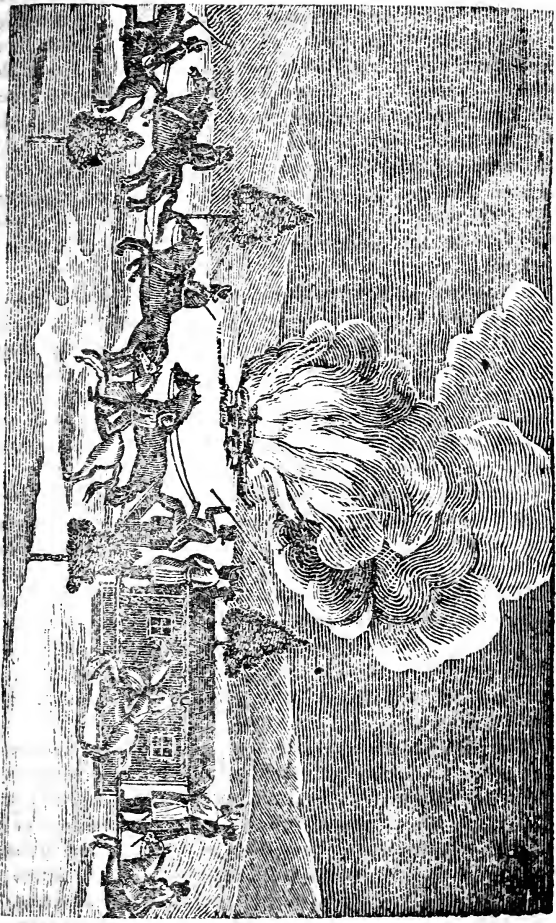
28. Instead of hackney coaches in the streets of St. Petersburg there are persons always plying at their stands, ready to drive where they are ordered, in summer with *drojekas*, and in winter with sledges. The *drojeka* consists of a bench with springs under it, and cushions upon it, on four wheels, at one end of which is the horse, and

just behind him sits the driver. In the best frequented parts of the town are handsome sledges with fine running horses. Driving at full speed is one of the favourite winter diversions of the Russians. In the long and broad streets are frequently seen abreast two, four, or six sledges. No one who has not been an eye witness, can form any idea of the rapidity with which they glide along the plains of frozen snow. The dexterity of the driver strikes every foreigner with astonishment. In the busiest streets, a prodigious number of sledges are running across each other in every direction, almost all of them driving very fast, and yet it is but seldom that an accident happens. Every driver wears a plate of tin at his back, on which is painted his number, and the quarter of the city to which he belongs.

29. When the emperor or any of the royal family make a long journey, a machine is used large enough to contain a bed, table, chairs, &c. so that four or six persons may lodge in it, and be furnished with all necessary accommodations. This machine is set on a sledge drawn by 24 horses, which are relieved at regular stages; and to illuminate the road by night, great piles of wood are placed at certain distances and set on fire.

30. Among the lower classes in Russia, the nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themselves. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never seen each other, the bride is examined by a number of females. On the 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 ceremonies.

31. The Russians entertain many fantastical notions with regard to the state of the dead. After the corpse is dressed, a priest is hired to pray for the soul, to purify it with incense, and sprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground. 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. This being put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpse, the company return to the deceased's house, where



The first part of the document is a letter from the Secretary of the Board of Education to the Board of Trustees of the University of the State of New York. The letter is dated October 10, 1900, and is addressed to the Board of Trustees of the University of the State of New York, Albany, New York.

The letter is a report on the progress of the Board of Education during the year ending June 30, 1900. It contains a detailed account of the work of the Board, including a list of the members of the Board and a list of the members of the various committees of the Board. The letter also contains a list of the resolutions passed by the Board during the year.

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they drown their sorrow in intoxication, which lasts with few intervals forty days. During that time a priest every day says prayers over the grave of the deceased; for though the Russians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be assisted by prayer, in his long journey to the place of his destination after this life.

32. The Russian on the whole, is a cheerful being. A happy volubility, and a thoughtlessness peculiar to himself, accompany him through life. The most penurious condition, and the most toilsome labour, leave him always some opportunities for the enjoyment of his existence. The former gives him no concern, as his circle of ideas seldom extends to the representation of a nobler and more refined state of being; and the latter he mitigates by singing his country ballads, and by taking a portion of brandy. The verge at which this excellent ground colour in the national character gradually fades away, is the line of partition between the populace and the citizen. The higher the classes of mankind, the less natural is their mirth.

33. The cheerful disposition of the common Russians being chiefly maintained by singing, that ought to be the first amusement to be mentioned. Every employment, even the most laborious, the Russian alleviates by singing, and every satisfaction, every pleasure, is by the same means heightened and improved. There is not a nation in Europe in which the propensity to this amusement is more prevalent than in Russia.

34. The national interest contained in the subjects of Russian ballads, their extremely simple but melodious tunes, the musical dispositions, and generally well-formed organs of the people, have a very agreeable and surprising effect, even on unmusical strangers and foreigners. It is therefore a customary recreation of the higher ranks of St. Petersburg to take with them in a boat, on their parties of pleasure on the water, a band of expert singers, to sing popular Russian ballads; a practice likewise often used at their tables at home.

35. When the Russian populace are disposed to be merry in company, the dance cannot be omitted. No popular dance can be more expressive and diverting than the national dance, commonly called the *Dove-dance*. It

is generally performed by one couple, who stand facing one another at some distance, seemingly making love, and with energetic pantomimical gestures, by turns, sue, reject, importune, disdain, and comply. As this dance is throughout a natural, strongly impressive pantomime, art can add little or nothing to its improvement. The music to which it is danced is extremely simple; often no instrument at all is used, but the by-standers sing in chorus some vulgar ballad to the tune.

36. Among the places of public resort for the lower classes, the bathing-houses must be included, which administer not only to necessity but to recreation. The common Russians frequent them at least once a week; and the day on which this is practised is a holiday. Vapour-baths are to be found in great numbers, which are thus constructed; the bath-room has a large vaulted oven, which is so strongly heated, that the stones which form the upper part of it become glowing hot. For augmenting the heat, water is sprinkled on these stones: by this process the room is immediately filled with vapour.

37. Round the walls are benches or scaffolds, affording every person the choice of an atmosphere more or less hot, as the bench is higher or lower from the ground. The bathers sit or lie in this hot vapour, which produces such a perspiration, as without actual experiment cannot be well conceived. To promote this still more, it is the common practice for the bathers to be gently beaten with dry bunches of leaf twigs of birch, and then rubbed down with woollen cloths. Almost all the hospitals and public institutions of every kind are provided with such baths; and even among the higher classes of the inhabitants of the city, the vapour bath is used as a necessary of life, as well as a luxury.

38. In all the streets, especially in winter, nothing is more common than to see men or boys wrestling or boxing. This is merely a diversion, being seldom or never the effect of anger or quarrels, but usually engaged in from a good-humoured challenge, perhaps, in winter, for the purpose of keeping themselves warm. No less general is the game of foot ball, particularly among the drivers of sledges and drojekas, plying at their stands for a fare. A large ball stuffed with feathers is kicked about; and he who succeeds in catching it or picking it up with

his hands, in spite of the kicks and cuffs of his playmates; carries off the prize of nuts or money. Chess and draughts are likewise very common with the Russian populace. In the large squares, or under the arcades of the shops, people of the lowest classes are every day seen amusing themselves at these games, and many of them in a masterly way.

39. The most common amusement is the swing, which every where, and at all times, is used as an amusement by persons of rank and condition; but at Easter it is the grand diversion of the holidays. The swings may be divided into three sorts: some have a vibrating motion, and these are the most common, well known in Germany and England; others are turned round in a perpendicular, and others again in a horizontal direction. The first of these latter species consists of two high posts, on the top of which rests an axle, having two pair of poles fixed in its centre. Each of these pair of poles has at its two extremities a seat suspended to a moveable axis. The proprietor, by turning the axis that rests on the two posts, makes all the eight seats go round in a perpendicular circle, so that they alternately almost touch the ground, and then are mounted aloft in the air. The last kind is composed of chairs, chariots, sledges, wooden horses, swans, goats, &c., fastened at the extremities of long poles, and forced rapidly round in a horizontal circle. In the Easter holidays all kinds of machines are set up in the public squares; and as the common people are remarkably fond of the diversion, it is a joyful season to the populace, who then devote themselves without restraint to their national propensity to mirth.

40. In the vicinity of the swings at the Russian fairs, booths are usually run up of boards, in which low comedies are performed. Each representation lasts about half an hour, and the price of admittance is very trifling: but as the confluence of people is extremely great, and the acting goes on the whole day, the profits are always considerable both to the managers and performers, who share the amount between them.

41. Ice-hills are exceedingly common, and afford a perpetual fund of amusement to the populace during the Russian carnival. Every ice-hill is constructed in the following manner: a scaffolding is raised upon the frozen

river, about 30 feet high, with a landing place at top, the ascent to which is by a ladder. From this summit a sloping plain of boards, about four yards broad and 30 long, descends to the surface of the river. Upon these boards are laid square masses of ice about four inches thick, which, being first smoothed with the axe, and laid close to each other, are then sprinkled with water; by which means they adhere to the board and to one another, and form an inclined plain of pure ice. From the bottom of this plain the snow is cleared away for the length of 200 yards, and the breadth of four, upon the level bed of the river; and the sides of this course, as well as the sides and top of the scaffolding, are ornamented with firs and pines.

42. Each person being provided with a sledge, something like a butcher's tray, mounts the ladder, and having attained the summit, he seats himself on his sledge, at the upper extremity of the inclined plain, down which he suffers it to glide with considerable rapidity; the velocity acquired in the descent, carries it more than one hundred yards upon the level ice of the river. At the end of the course there is usually another ice-hill similar to the former, which begins where the other ends; so that the person immediately mounts again, and in the same manner glides down the other plain of ice. The great difficulty consists in steering and poising the sledge as it is hurried down the inclined plain. Boys amuse themselves in skating down these hills: they glide chiefly upon one skate, being better able to preserve a proper balance upon one leg than upon two.

43. In the gardens of Oranienbaum, a few miles from St. Petersburg, is a very extraordinary building, denominated the Flying mountain: it is made of wood, supported upon brick walls, representing a mountain composed of three principal ascents, gradually diminishing in height, with an intermediate space to resemble valleys: from top to bottom is a floored way, in which three parallel grooves are formed. It is thus used: a small carriage, containing one person, being placed in the central groove upon the highest point, goes with great rapidity down one hill; the velocity which it acquires in its descent carries it up a second, and so on, till it arrives at the bottom of the area, when it is placed in one of the grooves, and drawn up by

means of a cord fixed to a windlass. At the top of the mountain are several apartments for the accommodation of the court and principal nobility, and there is room for many thousand spectators within the colonnade and upon its roof. Near the Flying mountain is a spacious amphitheatre, in which tournaments are usually exhibited.

44. Masquerades are held every year at Peterhoff, a place about twenty miles from St. Petersburg. The anniversary of this festival happens towards the end of June when every being susceptible of pleasure leaves town, in order to partake of an entertainment that may be considered as unique. The highway thither is so covered with equipages, horsemen and pedestrians, that it resembles one continued caravan. The whole district looks as if it were barricadoed : about the parks and gardens particular groups are distributed ; numerous parties take their dinners under the open sky ; and every hedge and avenue swarms with people. Towards evening an extraordinary and captivating scene presents itself to the eye : in a few minutes the whole gardens are illuminated : the branches of the trees, and the water of the fountains, seem to be converted into fire. The excellent situation of Peterhoff, and its variety of water-works, combine, with the effects of pyrotechnics, to fascinate the sight by a grand picture, produced as by magic, and which, if once beheld, can never be forgotten. The canal is covered with yachts, lighted up to their streamers ; on the shore is an enormous pyramid of fire, and behind it is the Black Sea, with a fleet of men of war, all illuminated. The streams and the cascades, rolling over various-coloured lamps, the leaves of the trees trembling in the glitter of millions of broken rays of light, and the very sand appear to imitate the blazing motion of the elements, with which it might seem to be impregnated.

45. Amidst these miracles of fairy art, thousands of persons are wandering about, and being in a black silk garb, look like spirits from the subterranean world. From the woods at various distances resounds the inexpressibly soft and majestic harmony of the Russian hunting music, the notes of which re-echo in the pure evening breeze.

46. In the apartments of the palace, the motley-coloured multitude of masks press round the well-furnished tables, or join hands in the mazy dance. Pomp and plenty,

the usual attendants on royal banquets, here unite in the most unconstrained conviviality. Solicited on all hands to enjoyment, the guests willingly resign themselves to the enchanting tumult, till the rising sun dispels the fascinating illusion, and the fiery sea of the preceding night is suddenly metamorphosed into a miserable show of smoky lamps.

47. At the conclusion of the long fast, which closes on the fourth of January, the Russians lay in their provisions for the remaining part of the winter: for which purpose an annual market, which lasts three days, is held upon the river near the fortress. A street, more than a mile in length, is lined on each side with an immense store of provisions, sufficient for the supply of the capital during the three following months. Many thousand raw carcasses of oxen, sheep, hogs, pigs, and poultry of all kinds, and every species of frozen food, are exposed to sale. The larger quadrupeds are grouped in various circles upright, their hind legs fixed in the snow, with their heads and fore legs turned towards each other. These occupy the hindermost row: next to them succeeds a regular series of animals, descending gradually to the smallest, intermixed with poultry and game hanging in festoons, and garnished with heaps of fish, butter, and eggs. It is observable, that many birds, as well as several animals in these northern regions, become white in winter; many hundred black cocks being changed to that colour; and some may at this season be seen, which have been taken before the *metamorphosis* is completed, exhibiting a variegated mixture of black and white plumage.

48. The most distant quarters contribute to supply this vast store of provisions; and the finest veal is sent by land-carriage as far as from Archangel, which is eight hundred miles from St. Petersburg, yet every species of food is exceedingly cheap; butcher's meat of every kind, from a penny to three half-pence per pound, geese at ten-pence each, large pigs at eight-pence, and other articles in proportion. In order to render frozen food fit for dressing, it must be first thawed in cold water.

49. The following account of the Don Cossacs is from Dr. Clarke. In Tscherkask, their capital, they live an amicable and pleasant life. Sometimes they have public amusements, such as balls and parties of pleasure. Once

they had a theatre, but it was prohibited. In some of their apartments we observed mahogany bookcases, with glass doors, containing a small library. They are, in every respect, entitled to praise for their cleanliness; whether of their persons or their houses. There is no nation (I will not even except my own) more cleanly in their apparel than the Cossacs.

50. The dress of their women is singular. It differs from all the costumes of Russia; and its magnificence is vested in the ornaments of a cap, somewhat resembling the mitre of a Greek bishop. The hair of married women is tucked under this cap, which is covered with pearls and gold, or adorned with flowers. The dress of a Cossac girl is elegant; a silk tunic, with trowsers fastened by a girdle of solid silver, yellow boots, and an Indian handkerchief round the head. A proof of their riches was afforded in the instance of the mistress of the house where we lodged. This woman walked about the apartments without shoes or stockings; and being asked for some needles to secure the insects we had collected, opened a box, in which she shewed us pearls to the value of ten thousand roubles. Her cupboard at the same time was filled with plate and costly porcelain.

51. The common dress of the men in Tscherkask, was a blue jacket, with a waistcoat and trowsers of white dimity; the latter so white and spotless, that they seemed always new. The tattered state of a traveller's wardrobe but ill fitted us to do credit to our country in this respect. I never saw a Cossac in a dirty suit of clothes. Their hands, moreover, are always clean, their hair free from vermin, their teeth white, and their skin has a healthy and cleanly appearance.

52. Polished in their manners, instructed in their minds, hospitable, generous, disinterested in their hearts, humane and tender to the poor, good husbands, good fathers, good wives, good mothers, virtuous daughters, valiant and dutiful sons; such are the natives of Tscherkask. In conversation the Cossac is a gentleman; for he is well informed, free from prejudice, open, sincere, and upright.

Note. Russia, partly in Europe and partly in Asia, is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean, on the south by the Black and Caspian Sea, Tartary and Persia, on the

west by Sweden, Poland and the gulf of Finland, and on the east by the North Pacific Ocean. It extends from 49° to 78° north latitude. Moscow, formerly the capital of the empire, is situated on the Moskva river, in 56° north latitude. St. Petersburg, the metropolis of the Russian Empire, is situated on the Neva, near the gulph of Finland in 60° north latitude. It was founded by Peter the Great since the commencement of the eighteenth century, and, in 1805, contained 271,137 inhabitants.

Questions.

What is the state of literature and civilization in Russia?

Of how many classes do the Russians consist?

What is the condition of the peasantry?

What is the religious character of the Russians?

In what do their devotional ceremonies principally consist?

What is the character of the Russian soldiery?

How do the Russians generally travel?

What is the character of the Cossacs?

How is Russia bounded?

Of what extent from north to south?

On what river is Moscow situated?

In what latitude?

Where is St. Petersburg the capital of Russia?

When and by whom was it founded?

LYCIDAS.—Milton.

YET once more, O ye Laurels, and once more,
 Ye Myrtles brown, with Ivy never sere,
 I come, to pluck your berries harsh and crude,
 And with forc'd fingers rude,
 Scatter your leaves before the mellowing year;
 Bitter constraint, and sad occasion dear,
 Compels me to disturb your season due;
 For Lycidas is dead, dead ere his prime,
 Young Lycidas, and hath not left his peer:
 Who would not sing for Lycidas? he knew
 Himself to sing, and build the lofty rhyme.

He must not float upon his wat'ry bier
 Unwept, and welter to the parching wind,
 Without the meed of some melodious tear.

Begin then, sisters of the sacred well,
 That from beneath the seat of Jove doth spring,
 Begin, and somewhat loudly sweep the string.
 Hence with denial vain, and coy excuse,
 So may some gentle muse
 With lucky words favour my destin'd urn ;
 And as she passes turn,
 And bid fair peace be to my sable shroud.

For we were nurst upon the self-same hill,
 Fed the same flock by fountain, shade, and rill.

Together both, ere the high lawns appear'd
 Under the opening eye-lids of the morn,
 We drove afield and both together heard
 What time the gray-fly winds her sultry horn,
 Batt'ning our flocks with the fresh dews of night,
 Oft till the star that rose at evening bright
 'Tow'rd heaven's descent had slop'd his westring
 wheel.

Meanwhile the rural ditties were not mute,
 Temper'd to the oaten flute ;
 Rough Satyrs danc'd, and Fauns with cloven heel
 From the glad sound would not be absent long,
 And old Damaetas lov'd to hear our song.

But, O the heavy change ! now thou art gone,
 Now thou art gone, and never must return !
 Thee, Shepherd, thee the woods, and desert caves
 With wild thyme and the gadding vine o'ergrown,
 And all their echoes, mourn.

The willow, and the hazel copses green,
 Shall now no more be seen,
 Fanning their joyous leaves to thy soft lays.
 As killing as the canker to the rose,
 Or taint-worm to the weaning herds that graze ;
 Or frost to flow'rs, that their gay wardrobe wear,
 When first the white-thorn blows ;
 Such, Lycidas, thy loss to shepherd's ear.

Where were ye, Nymphs, when the remorseless
 deep
 Clos'd o'er the head of your lov'd Lycidas ?
 For neither were he playing on the steep,

Where your old bards, the famous Druids, lie,
 Nor on the shaggy top of Mona high,
 Nor yet where Deva spreads her wizard stream :
 Ah me, I fondly dream !
 Had ye been there—for what could that have done ?
 What could the Muse herself that Orpheus bore,
 The Muse herself for her enchanting son,
 Whom universal nature did lament,
 When by the rout that made the hideous roar,
 His goary visage down the stream was sent,
 Down the swift Hebrus to the Lesbian shore ?

Alas ! what boots it with incessant care
 To tend the homely slighted shepherd's trade,
 And strictly meditate the thankless Muse ?
 Were it not better done, as others use,
 To sport with Amaryllis in the shade,
 Or with the tangles of Neaera's hair ?
 Fame is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise
 (That last infirmity of noble minds)
 To scorn delights, and live laborious days ;
 But the fair guerdon when we hope to find,
 And think to burst out into sudden blaze,
 Comes the blind fury with th' abhorred shears,
 And slits the thin-spun life. But not the praise,
 Phœbus replied, and touch'd my trembling ears,
 Fame is no plant that grows on mortal soil,
 Nor in the glist'ring foil
 Set off to th' world, nor in broad rumour lies,
 But lives and spreads aloft by those pure eyes,
 And perfect witness of all-judging Jove ;
 As he pronounces lastly on each deed,
 Of so much fame in heaven expect thy meed.

O fountain Arethuse, and thou honour'd flood,
 Smooth sliding Mincius, crown'd with vocal reeds ;
 That strain I heard was of a higher mood :
 But now my oar proceeds,
 And listens to the herald of the sea
 That came in Neptune's plea ;
 He ask'd the waves, and ask'd the felon winds,
 What hard mishap had doom'd this gentle swain ?
 And question'd ev'ry gust of rugged winds
 That blows from off each beaked promontory ;
 They knew not of his story,

And sage Hippodates their answer brings,
 That not a blast was from his dungeon stray'd ;
 The air was calm, and on the level brine
 Sleek Panope with all her sisters play'd.
 It was that fatal and perfidious bark
 Built in th' eclipse and rigg'd with curses dark
 That sunk so low that sacred head of thine.

Next Camus, reverend sire, went footing slow,
 His mantle hairy, and his bonnet sedge,
 Inwrought with figures dim, and on the edge
 Like to that sanguine flow'r inscrib'd with woe.
 Ah! who hath reft (quoth he) my dearest pledge?
 Last came, and last did go
 The pilot of the Galilcan lake;
 Two massy keys he bore of metals twain,
 (The golden opes, the iron shuts amain)
 He shook his mitred locks, and stern bespake,
 How well could I have spared for thee, young swain,
 Enow of such as for their bellies' sake
 Creep, and intrude, and climb into the fold!
 Of other care they little reck'ning make,
 Than how to scramble at the shearer's feast,
 And shove away the worthy bidden guest ;
 Blind mouths! that scarce themselves know how to
 hold

A sheep-hook, or have learn'd aught else the least
 That to the faithful herdman's art belongs!
 What recks it then? What need they? They are
 sped;

And, when they list, their lean and flashy songs,
 Grate on their scrannel pipes of wretched straw ;
 The hungry sheep look up, and are not fed,
 But swoln with wind, and the rank mist they draw,
 Rot inwardly, and foul contagion spread :
 Besides what the grim wolf with privy paw
 Daily devours apace, and nothing said,
 But that two-handed engine at the door
 Stands ready to smite once, and smites no more.

Return, Alpheus, the dread voice is past,
 That shrunk thy streams ; return, Sicilian Muse,
 And call the vales, and bid them hither cast
 Their bells, and flowrets of a thousand hues.
 Ye valleys low, where the mild whispers use

Of shades, and wanton winds, and gushing brooks,
 On whose fresh lap the sweet star sparely looks,
 Throw hither all your quaint enamell'd eyes,
 That on the green turf suck the honied show'rs
 And purple all the ground with vernal flow'rs
 Bring the rathe primrose that forsaken dies,
 The tufted crow-toe, and pale jessamine,
 The white-pink, and the pansy freak'd with jet,
 The glowing violet,
 The musk-rose, and the well-attir'd woodbine,
 With cowslips wan that hang the pensive head,
 And ev'ry flow'r that sad embroidery wears :
 Bid Aramantus all his beauty shed,
 And daffodillies fill their cups with tears,
 To strew the laureat hearse where Lycid lies,
 For so to interpose a little ease.
 Let our frail thoughts dally with false surmise.
 Ah me ! Whilst thee the shores, and sounding seas
 Wash far away, where'er thy bones are hurl'd,
 Whether beyond the stormy Hebrides,
 Where thou perhaps under the whelming tide
 Visit'st the bottom of the monstrous world ;
 Or whether thou, to our moist vows denied,
 Sleep'st by the fable of Bellerus old,
 Where the great vision of the guarded mount
 Looks tow'rd Namancos and Bayona's hold ;
 Look homeward Angel now, and melt with ruth :
 And, O ye Dolphins, waft the hapless youth.
 Weep no more, woful shepherds, weep no more,
 For Lycidas your sorrow is not dead ;
 Sunk though he be beneath the wat'ry floor ;
 So sinks the day-star in the ocean bed,
 And yet anon repairs his drooping head,
 And tricks his beams, and with new-spangled ore
 Flames in the forehead of the morning sky :
 So Lycidas sunk low, but mounted high,
 Thro' the dear might of him that walks the waves,
 Where other groves and other streams along,
 With nectar pure his oozy locks he laves,
 And hears the unexpressive nuptial song,
 In the blest kingdoms meek of joy and love.
 There entertain him all the saints above,
 In solemn troops and sweet societies,

That sing, and singing in their glory move,
 And wipe the tears forever from his eyes.
 Now, Lycidas, the shepherds weep no more ;
 Henceforth thou art the genius of the shore,
 In thy large recompence, and shalt be good
 To all that wander in that perilous flood.

Thus sang the uncouth swain to th' oaks and rills,
 While the still morn went out with sandals gray,
 He touch'd the tender stops of various quills,
 With eager thought warbling his Doric lay,
 And now the sun had stretch'd out all the hills,
 And now was dropp'd into the western bay ;
 At last he rose, and twitch'd his mantle blue :
 To-morrow to fresh woods, and pastures new.



THE RIVER AMAZON.

1. THIS prince of rivers, as it is emphatically styled by Ulloa, is likewise called the Marañon, and was first navigated by Francesco Orellana, shortly after the discovery of Peru, on which account it has occasionally received the name of Orellana. As it is the largest of all rivers, so it has its source among the Andes mountains, which, with the exception of a portion of the great Himalaya chain of Asiatic mountains recently discovered, have the greatest elevation of all mountains. It forms the northern boundary of Brazil, taking its rise at an inconsiderable distance from the Pacific Ocean and flowing in an eastern course more than twelve hundred leagues, in which progress it receives upwards of sixty considerable rivers.

2. In some parts it divides into several branches, encompassing a multitude of islands, and at length discharges itself into the Atlantic Ocean, directly under the equatorial line, by a channel one hundred and fifty miles in breadth. As, among the great number of roots by which nourishment is conveyed to a stately tree, it is difficult from the length of some, and the magnitude of others, to determine precisely that from which the product is derived : so has an equal perplexity occurred in discovering the spring of this transcendent river.

3. All the provinces of Peru may be said to emulate

each other in sending forth supplies for its increase ; and those, together with the many torrents which precipitate themselves from the Cordilleras or chain of the Andes, augmented by the snow and ice, join to form a kind of sea of what at first scarcely deserved the name of a river. The sources, by which this river is increased, are so numerous, that every one which issues from the eastern Cordillera, beginning with the government of Popayan, where the river Caqueta, or Upura, originates, to the province of Huanico, within thirty leagues of Lima, the capital, may be strictly reckoned among the number.

4. For, be it observed, all the streams which run westward from this immense chain of mountains, widening as they advance from their source by the conflux of others, form these mighty rivers which afterwards unite in the Amazon ; and, although some traverse a larger distance from their source, still, others which rise nearer, by receiving, in their short course, a great number of brooks, and by consequently discharging a proportionate quantity of water, may be considered as having an equal claim to be called the principal source.

5. The authors of the Peruvian Mercury, whose profound inquiries on this subject have been given in the work entitled "the present state of Peru," regard, however, the Ucayali as its real trunk, observing, among other cogent reasons, that it does not yield to this river in the quantity of its waters ; but, on the contrary, presents itself at the confluence with a greater breadth, and with a superiority which obliges it to change its course.

6. The Marañon, or river Amazon, issues from the lake of Lauricocha, near the city of Huanico, in the jurisdiction of Tarma in eleven degrees of south latitude, whence it takes a southern course almost to the twelfth degree, through the country belonging to that jurisdiction, and, forming insensibly a circuit, flows eastward through the country of Juaxa. After being precipitated from the eastern side of the Cordillera or chain, of the Andes, it proceeds northward, and leaving the jurisdictions of Mayabamba and Chaca poyas, continues its course to the city of Jaen, in latitude of five degrees and twenty one minutes.

7. Thence, by a second circuit, it flows towards the east in a continued direction, till at length it falls into

the ocean, where its mouth is of such an enormous breadth, that it reaches from the equinoctial to beyond the first degree of north latitude. Its distance from the lake of Lauricocha to Jaen, including its windings, is about two hundred leagues; and that city being thirty degrees to the west of its mouth, gives a further extent of six hundred leagues, which may, including its circuits and windings, be moderately computed at one thousand. Thus, the whole course of this transcendent river from Lauricocha to its influx into the ocean, is at least twelve hundred leagues.

Note. The Andes are a lofty and extensive range of mountains, stretching north and south, near the western coast, from the isthmus of Darien, through the whole continent of South America, to the straits of Magellan.

Questions.

Where is the source of the river Amazon?

What is its length?

Where does it discharge its waters?

How wide is the river at the mouth?

What river is supposed to be the real branch of the Amazon?

DESTRUCTION OF JERUSALEM.—*Josephus.*

1. WHILE Jerusalem was a prey to ferocious and devouring factions, every part of Judea was scourged and laid waste by bands of robbers and murderers, who plundered the towns, and, in case of resistance, slew the inhabitants, not sparing either women or children. Simon, son of Gioras, the commander of one of these bands, having entered Jerusalem at the head of forty thousand men, gave birth to a third faction, and the flame of civil discord blazed out again with still more destructive fury. The three factions, rendered frantic by drunkenness, rage, and desperation, trampling on heaps of slain, fought against each other with brutal savageness and madness:

2. Even such as brought sacrifices to the temple were murdered. The dead bodies of priests and worshippers, both natives and foreigners, were heaped together, and a lake of blood stagnated in the sacred courts. John of Gischala, who headed one of the factions, burnt storehouses full of provisions ; and Simon, his great antagonist, who headed another of them, soon afterwards followed his example. Thus they cut the very sinews of their own strength.

3. At this critical and alarming conjuncture, intelligence arrived that the Roman army was approaching the city. The Jews were petrified with astonishment and fear ; there was no time for counsel, no hope of pacification, no means of flight :—all was wild disorder and perplexity:—nothing was to be heard but “ *the confused noise of the warrior,*” —nothing to be seen but, “ *garments rolled in blood,*” nothing to be expected from the Romans but signal and exemplary vengeance.

4. A ceaseless cry of combatants was heard day and night, and the lamentations of mourners was still more dreadful. The consternation and terror which now prevailed, induced many of the inhabitants to desire that a foreign foe might come, and effect their deliverance. Such was the horrid condition of the place when Titus and his army presented themselves, and encamped before Jerusalem.

5. The day on which Titus encompassed Jerusalem was the feast of the passover ; and it is deserving the very particular attention of the reader, that this was the anniversary of that memorable period in which the Jews crucified their Messiah ! On the appearance of the Roman army, the factious Jews united, and, rushing furiously out of the city, repulsed the tenth legion, which was with difficulty preserved.

6. This event caused a short suspension of hostilities, and, by opening the gates, gave an opportunity to such as were disposed, to make their escape ; which, before this, they could not have attempted without interruption, from the suspicion that they wished to revolt to the Romans. This success inspired the Jews with confidence, and they resolved to defend their city to the very uttermost ; but it did not prevent the renewal of their civil broils.

7. The faction under Eleazor having dispersed, and arranged themselves under the two other leaders, John and Simon, there ensued a most dreadful scene of contention, plunder, and conflagration: the middle part of the city being burnt, and the wretched inhabitants made the prize of the contending parties. The Romans at length, gained possession of two of the three walls that surrounded the city, and fear once more united the factions.

8. This pause to their fury, had, however, scarcely begun, when famine made its ghastly appearance in the Jewish army. It had for some time been silently approaching, and many of the peaceful and the poor had already perished for want of necessaries. With this new calamity, strange to relate, the madness of the factions again returned, and the city presented a new picture of wretchedness. Impelled by the cravings of hunger, they snatched the staff of life out of each other's hands, and many devoured the grain unprepared.

9. Tortures were inflicted for the discovery of a handful of meal; women forced food from their husbands, and children from their fathers, and even mothers from their infants; and, while sucking children were wasting away in their arms, they scrupled not to take away the vital drops which sustained them! So justly did our Lord pronounce a woe on "*them who should give suck in those days.*"

10. This dreadful scourge, at length, drove multitudes of the Jews out of the city, into the enemies' camp, where the Romans crucified them in such numbers, that, as Josephus relates, space was wanted for the crosses, and crosses for the captives; and it having been discovered that some of them had swallowed gold, the Arabs and Syrians, who were incorporated in the Roman army, impelled by avarice, with unexampled cruelty, opened two thousand of the deserters in one night.

11. Titus, touched by these calamities, in person entreated the Jews to surrender, but they answered him with revilings. Exasperated by their obstinacy and insolence, he now resolved to surround the city by a circumvallation, which, with astonishing activity, was effected by the soldiers in three days. Thus was fulfilled another of our Lord's predictions, for he had said, when addressing

this devoted city, "*Thine enemies shall cast a trench about thee, and compass thee round about, and keep thee in on every side.*"

12. As no supplies whatever could now enter the walls, the famine rapidly extended itself, and increasing in horror, devoured whole families. The tops of houses, and the recesses of the city, were covered with the carcasses of women, children, and aged men. The young men appeared like spectres in the places of public resort, and fell down lifeless in the streets. The dead were too numerous to be interred, and many expired in the performance of this office.

13. The public calamity was too great for lamentation. Silence, and as it were, a black and deadly night, overspread the city. But even such a scene could not awe the robbers; they spoiled the tombs, and stripped the dead of their grave-clothes, with an unfeeling and wild laughter. They tried the edges of their swords on the dead bodies, and even on some that were yet breathing; while Simon Gioras chose this melancholy and awful period to manifest the deep malignity and cruelty of his nature, in the execution of the High Priest Matthias, and his three sons, whom he caused to be condemned as favourers of the Romans.

14. The father, in consideration of his having opened the city gates to Simon, begged that he might be executed previously to his children; but the unfeeling tyrant gave orders that he should be dispatched in the last place, and, in his expiring moments, insultingly asked him, whether the Romans could then relieve him. Meanwhile, the horrors of famine grew still more melancholy and afflictive.

15. The Jews, for want of food, were at length compelled to eat their belts, their sandals, the skins of their shields, dried grass, and even the ordure of oxen. In the depth of this horrible extremity, a Jewess of noble family, urged by the intolerable cravings of hunger, slew her infant child, and prepared it for a meal; and had actually eaten one half thereof, when the soldiers, allured by the smell of food, threatened her with instant death, if she refused to discover it.

16. Intimidated by this menace, she immediately produced the remains of her son, which petrified them with

horror. At the recital of this melancholy and affecting occurrence, the whole city stood aghast, and poured forth their congratulations on those whom death had hurried away from such heart-rending scenes. Indeed, humanity at once shudders and sickens at the narration; nor can any one, of the least sensibility, reflect upon the pitiable condition, to which the female part of the inhabitants of Jerusalem must at this time have been reduced, without experiencing the tenderest emotions of sympathy:

17. Or refrain from tears while he reads our Saviour's pathetic address to the women who "*bewailed him*" as he was led to Calvary, wherein he evidently refers to these very calamities: "*Daughters of Jerusalem, weep not for me, but for your children; for, behold, the days are coming, in which they shall say, 'Blessed are the barren, and the wombs that never bare, and the breasts that never gave suck.'*"

18. While famine continued thus to spread its destructive rage through the city, the Romans, after many ineffectual attempts, at length succeeded in demolishing part of the inner wall, possessed themselves of the great tower of Antonia, and advanced towards the temple, which Titus, in a council of war, had determined to preserve as an ornament to the empire, and as a monument of his success; but the Almighty had determined otherwise; for now in the revolution of ages, was arrived that fatal day, emphatically called a "*day of vengeance*," on which the temple had formerly been destroyed by the king of Babylon.

19. A Roman soldier, urged, as he declared, by a divine impulse, regardless of the command of Titus, climbed on the shoulders of another, and threw a flaming brand into the golden window of the temple, which instantly set the building on fire. The Jews, anxious, above all things, to save that sacred edifice, in which they superstitiously trusted for safety, with a dreadful outcry, rushed in to extinguish the flames.

20. Titus, also, being informed of the conflagration, hastened to the spot in his chariot, attended by his principal officers and legions; but in vain he waved his hand, and raised his voice, commanding his soldiers to extinguish the fire; so great was the uproar and confusion, that no attention was paid even unto him. The Romans,

wilfully deaf, instead of extinguishing the flames, spread them wider and wider.

21. Actuated by the fiercest impulses of rancour and revenge against the Jews, they rushed furiously upon them, slaying some with the sword, trampling others under their feet, or crushing them to death against the walls. Many, falling amongst the smoking ruins of the galleries and porches, were suffocated. The unarmed poor, and even sick persons, were slaughtered without mercy. Of these unhappy people, numbers were left weltering in their gore.

22. Multitudes of the dead and dying were heaped round about the altar, to which they had formerly fled for protection, while the steps which led from it into the outer court, were literally deluged with blood. Finding it impossible to restrain the impetuosity and cruelty of his soldiers, the commander in chief, proceeded, with some of his superior officers, to take a survey of those parts of the edifice which were still uninjured by the conflagration.

23. It had not at this time, reached the inner temple, which Titus entered, and viewed with silent admiration. Struck with the magnificence of its architecture, and the beauty of its decorations, which even surpassed the report of fame concerning them; and perceiving the sanctuary had not yet caught fire, he redoubled his efforts to stop the progress of the flames. He condescended even to entreat his soldiers to exert all their activity for this purpose, and appointed a centurion of the guards to punish them, if they again disregarded him; but all was in vain.

24. The delirious rage of the soldiery knew no bounds. Eager for plunder and for slaughter, they alike contemned the solicitations and menaces of their general. Even while he was thus intent upon the preservation of the sanctuary, one of the soldiers was actually employed in setting fire to one of the door posts, which caused the conflagration to become general. Titus, and his officers were now compelled to retire, and none remained to check the fury of the soldiers or the flames.

25. The Romans, exasperated to the highest pitch, against the Jews, seized every person whom they could find, and without the least regard to sex, age, or quality, first plundered, and then slew them. The old and the young, the common people and the priests, those who ser-

rendered and those who resisted, were equally involved in this horrible and indiscriminate slaughter. Meanwhile, the temple continued burning, until at length, vast as was its size, the flames completely enveloped the whole building; which, from the extent of the conflagration, impressed the distant spectator with an idea that the whole city was on fire.

26. The tumult and disorder which ensued upon this event, it is impossible, (says Josephus) for language to describe. The Roman legions made the most horrid outcries; the rebels finding themselves exposed to the fury of both fire and sword, screamed dreadfully; while the unhappy people who were pent up between the enemy and the flames, deplored their situation in the most pitiable complaints.

27. Those on the hill, and those in the city, seemed mutually to return the groans of each other. Such as were expiring through famine, were revived by this scene, and seemed to acquire new spirits to deplore their misfortunes. The lamentations from the city, were re-echoed from the adjacent mountains and places beyond Jordan. The flames which enveloped the temple were so violent and impetuous, that the lofty hill on which it stood, appeared even from its deep foundation, as one large fire.

28. The blood of the sufferers flowed in proportion to the rage of this destructive element; and the number of slain exceeded all calculation. The ground could not be seen for the dead bodies, over which the Romans trampled in pursuit of the fugitives; while the crackling noise of the devouring flames, mingled with the clangour of arms, the groans of the dying, and the shrieks of despair, augmented the tremendous horror of a scene, to which the pages of history can furnish no parallel.

29. The temple now presented little more than a heap of ruins; and the Roman army, as in triumph on the event, came and reared the ensigns against a fragment of the eastern gate, and, with thanksgiving, proclaimed the imperial majesty of Titus, with every possible demonstration of joy. Thus terminated the glory and the existence of this sacred and venerable edifice, which, from its stupendous size, its massy solidity, and astonishing strength, seemed formed to resist the most violent operations of human force, and to stand, like the pyramids, amid the

shocks of successive ages, until the final dissolution of the globe.

30. The leaders of the factions being now pressed on all sides, begged a conference with Titus, who offered to spare their lives, provided they would lay down their arms. With this reasonable condition, however, they refused to comply; upon which Titus, exasperated by their obstinacy, resolved that he would hereafter grant no pardon to the insurgents, and ordered a proclamation to be made to that effect. The Romans had now full licence to ravage and destroy.

31. Early the following morning, they set fire to the castle, the register office, the council chamber, and the palace of queen Helena: and then spread themselves throughout the city, slaughtering wherever they came, and burning the dead bodies which were scattered over every street, and on the floors of almost every house. In the royal palace, where immense treasures were deposited, the seditious Jews murdered eight thousand four hundred of their own nation, and afterwards plundered their property.

32. Prodigious numbers of deserters, also, who escaped from the tyrants, and fled into the enemies' camp, were slain. The soldiers, however, at length, weary of killing, and satiated with the blood they had spilt, laid down their swords, and sought to gratify their avarice. For this purpose, they took the Jews, together with their wives and families, and publicly sold them like cattle in a market, but at a very low price; for multitudes were exposed for sale, while the purchasers were few in number.

33. And now were fulfilled the words of Moses; "*And ye shall be sold for bond-men and bond-women, and no man shall buy you.*" The Romans having become masters of the lower city, set it on fire. The Jews now fled to the upper; from whence their pride and insolence, yet unabated, they continued to exasperate their enemies, and appeared to view the burning of the town below them with tokens of pleasure. In a short time the walls of the higher city were demolished by the Roman engines, and the Jews, lately so haughty and presumptuous, now, trembling and panic-struck, fell on their faces and deplored their infatuation.

34. Such as were in the towers deemed impregnable to

human force, beyond measure affrighted, strangely forsook them, and sought refuge in caverns and subterraneous passages; in which dismal retreats, no less than two thousand dead bodies were afterwards found. Thus, as our Lord had predicted, did these miserable creatures, in effect, say, "to the mountains, 'Fall on us:' and to the rocks, 'Cover us.'" The walls of the city being now completely in possession of the Romans, they hoisted their colours upon the towers, and burst forth into the most triumphant acclamations.

55. After this, all annoyance from the Jews being at an end, the soldiers gave an unbridled licence to their fury against the inhabitants. They first plundered and then set fire to the houses. They ranged through the streets with drawn swords in their hands, murdering every Jew whom they met without distinction: until at length the bodies of the dead choked up all the alleys and narrow passages, while their blood literally flowed down the channels of the city in streams.

56. As it drew towards evening, the soldiers exchanged the sword for the torch and amidst the darkness of this awful night set fire to the remaining divisions of the place. The vial of divine wrath which had been so long pouring out upon this devoted city, was now emptying, and Jerusalem, once "a praise in all the earth," and the subject of a thousand prophecies, deprived of the staff of life, wrapt in flames, and bleeding on every side, sunk into utter ruin and desolation.

57. Before their final demolition, however, Titus took a survey of the city and its fortifications; and while contemplating their impregnable strength, could not help ascribing his success to the peculiar interposition of the Almighty himself. "Had not God himself, (exclaimed he) aided our operations, and driven the Jews from their fortresses, it would have been absolutely impossible to have taken them; for what could men, and the force of engines, have done against such towers as these."

58. After this he commanded that the city should be razed to its foundations, excepting only the three lofty towers, Hippocos, Phasael, and Mariamne, which he suffered to remain as evidences of its strength, and as trophies of his victory. There was left standing, also, a

small part of the western wall, as a rampart for the garrison, to keep the surrounding country in subjection.

39. Titus now gave orders that those Jews only who resisted should be slain; but the soldiers, equally void of pity and remorse, slew even the sick and the aged. The robbers and seditious were all punished with death; the tallest and most beautiful youths, together with several of the Jewish nobles, were reserved by Titus, to grace his triumphal entry into Rome. After this selection, all above the age of seventeen, were sent in chains into Egypt, to be employed there as slaves, or distributed throughout the empire, to be sacrificed as gladiators in the amphitheatre; whilst those who were under this age, were exposed to sale.

40. During the time that these things were transacting, eleven thousand Jews, guarded by one of the generals, named Fronto, were literally starved to death. This melancholy occurrence happened partly through the scarcity of provisions, and partly through their own obstinacy, and the negligence of the Romans. Of the Jews destroyed during the siege, Josephus reckons not less than one million and one hundred thousand, to which must be added, above two hundred and thirty seven thousand who perished in other places, innumerable multitudes who were swept away by famine and pestilence, of which no calculation could be made.

41. Not less than two thousand laid violent hands upon themselves. Of the captives, the whole number was about ninety seven thousand. Of the two great leaders of the Jews, who had both been made prisoners, John was doomed to a dungeon for life; while Simon, after being led, together with John, in triumph at Rome, was scourged, and put to death as a malefactor.

42. In executing the commands of Titus, relative to the demolition of Jerusalem, the Roman soldiers not only threw down the buildings, but even dug up their foundations and so completely levelled the whole circuit of the city, that a stranger would scarcely have known that it had ever been inhabited by human beings. Thus was this great city, which, only five months before, had been crowded with nearly two millions of people, who gloried in its impregnable strength, entirely depopulated, and levelled with the ground!

43. And thus, also, was our Lord's prediction, that her enemies should, "*lay her even with the ground,*" and "*should not leave in her one stone upon another,*" most strikingly and fully accomplished!—This fact is confirmed by Eusebius, who asserts, that he himself saw the city in ruins; and Josephus introduces Eleazer as exclaiming, "Where is our great city, which, it was believed, God inhabited? It is altogether rooted and torn up from its foundations; and the only monument of it that remains, is the camp of its destroyers, pitched amidst its reliques!"

44. Concerning the temple, our Lord had foretold, particularly, that notwithstanding their wonderful dimensions, there should "*not be left one stone upon another that should not be thrown down;*" and accordingly, it is recorded in the Talmud, and by Maimonides, that Terentius Rufus, captain of the army of Titus, absolutely ploughed up the foundations of the temple with a ploughshare. Now, also, was literally fulfilled that prophecy of Micah,—"*Therefore shall Zion, for your sakes (i. e. for your wickedness) be ploughed as a field, and Jerusalem shall become heaps, and the mountain of the Lord's house as the high places of the forest.*"

Note. Jerusalem is at present inhabited by Turks, Arabs, Jews, and Christians. It stands on a high rock, with steep ascents on every side except the north. It lies 112 miles south west of Damascus, in 32 degrees north latitude. Jerusalem was destroyed by the Romans 70 years after the birth of Christ.—Titus was the son of Vespasian, and brother of Domitian.

Questions.

- Where is Jerusalem situated?
- On what is it founded?
- On which side is it most accessible?
- In what direction is it from Damascus?
- How far distant?
- In what year was it destroyed?
- By whom was it destroyed?
- Who was Titus?
- How many inhabitants did it contain?
- Were they principally destroyed?

What distracted the inhabitants and thereby enfeebled
the defence of the city ?
By whom is it at present inhabited ?

OTAHEITE.—*Goldsmith.*

1. THE inhabitants of Otaheite are a stout, well made, active, comely people. Their complexion is of a pale brown, their hair black, and finely frizzled ; they have black eyes, flat noses, large mouths, and fine white teeth ; the men wear their beards in many different cuts or fashions ; such, by the way, was the custom of our ancestors in the time of Shakespeare. The women are, in general, smaller ; their skin is delicately smooth and soft, they have no colour in their cheeks, their nose is somewhat flat, their eyes full of expression, and their teeth beautifully even and white.

2. The men of consequence, in the island, wear the nails of their fingers long, which is considered as a very honourable badge of distinction, since only such people as have no occasion to work can suffer them to grow to that length ; but the nail of the middle finger on the right hand is always kept short. Both sexes have a custom of staining their bodies, by which the hinder part of their loins are marked very thick with black lines in various forms.

3. These lines are made by striking the teeth of an instrument, somewhat like a comb, just through the skin, and rubbing into the punctures a kind of paste made of soot and oil, which leaves an indelible stain. Children under twelve years of age are not stained ; and some men whose legs were chequered by the same method, appeared to be persons of considerable rank and authority.

4. Mr. Banks, who saw the operation performed on a girl about thirteen years old, says, that the instrument used upon the occasion had thirty teeth ; and every stroke (of which at least an hundred were made in a minute) drew a small quantity of serum mixed with blood. The girl bore the pain with the most stoical resolution for about a quarter of an hour, but the agony of so many hundred punctures became then intolerable ; she burst

forth into tears and the most piteous lamentations, imploring the operator to desist.

5. He was however, inexorable; and when she began to struggle, was held down by two women, who sometimes soothed, and sometimes chid her; and now and then when she was most unruly, gave her a smart blow. This operation is not performed in less than three or four hours. Both men and women are not only decently but gracefully clothed in a kind of white cloth that is made of the bark of a shrub, and resembles coarse China paper.

6. Their dress consists of two pieces of this cloth; one of them having a hole made in the middle to put the head through, hangs from the shoulders to the middle of the legs before and behind; another piece, which is between four and five yards long, and about a yard broad, they wrap round the body in a very easy manner. This cloth is not woven, but made like paper, of the macerated fibres of the inner bark spread out and beaten together.

7. Their ornaments are feathers, flowers, pieces of shells, and pearls; the last are chiefly worn by the women. In bad weather they wear matting of different kinds, as their clothes will not bear wetting. The houses in Otakeite, are no other than sheds built in the woods between the sea and the mountains; they are erected in an oblong form, being about twice as long as they are wide, and consist of a roof about four feet from the ground, raised on three rows of pillars.

8. In these huts the whole family repose themselves at night, for they make no use of them but to sleep in, unless in rains, when they take their meals under cover. The size of the house is proportioned to the number that constitutes the family. The established order in these dormitories is, for the master and his wife to sleep in the middle; round them the married people; in the next circle the unmarried women; and in the next at the same distance, the unmarried men; the servants sleep at the extremity of the shed, but in fair weather they sleep in the open air.

9. Some few dwellings, constructed for greater privacy, are entirely enclosed with partitions of reeds, and resemble, in some degree, large bird cages lined; in these houses a hole is left for the entrance, which may be easily closed with a board. They eat alone, since it would

be a disgrace for the men and women to sit down together to a meal. The shade of a spreading tree serves them for a parlour, broad leaves answer the purpose of a table cloth.

10. A person of rank is attended by a number of servants who seat themselves around him: before he begins his meal he washes his mouth and hands very clean, and repeats the ablution several times while he is eating. The quantity of food which these people eat at a time is prodigious. Men of rank are constantly fed by the women; and one of the chiefs, who dined on board a British ship, shewed such reluctance to feed himself, that one of the servants was obliged to undertake the task to prevent his returning without a meal.

11. The Otaheiteans are an industrious friendly people, but fickle and violent in their passions. The manner of singling out a man here for a chosen friend, is by taking off a part of your clothing, and putting it on him. Their usual manner of expressing respect, to strangers, or to superiors at a first meeting, is by uncovering themselves to the middle.

12. Their propensity to theft is very great. Both men and women are very cleanly both in their clothes and persons, constantly washing their bodies three times a day in running streams. By being used to the water from their infancy, they become good swimmers; even children of five or six years old will dive to almost any depth in the sea, for the sake of a bead or other bauble. These people have a remarkable sagacity in foretelling the weather, particularly the quarter whence the wind will blow.

13. In their distant voyages they steer by the sun in the day, and in the night by the stars, which they distinguish by separate names. They reckon their time by *moons*, thirteen of which make a year. The day they divide into six parts, and the night into an equal number. In arithmetical computation they can go no farther than two hundred; this is performed by the fingers and toes which they reckon ten times over.

14. The government of the Otaheiteans resembles the early state of the European nations under the feudal system. There are two kings in the island, one for each part, who are treated with great respect by all ranks of

people. The barons are lords of the several districts into which the island is divided. The vassals superintend the cultivation of the ground; and the villeins, or lowest class perform all the laborious work.

15. In this country a child succeeds to his father's titles and authority as soon as he is born; thus the king no sooner has a son, than his sovereignty ceases, retaining only the regency till his son comes of age. The child of the baron also succeeds to his father's dignities; so that a baron that was yesterday approached with the ceremony of lowering their garments, is to day, by the birth of a child reduced to the rank of a private man.

16. The Otaheiteans believe in a Supreme Deity, whom they suppose to be possessed of one son named Tane, besides a great number of female descendants. To the son they direct their worship, they do not seem to think that future happiness depends upon their good or bad conduct, but every individual will enjoy felicity in the next world, in proportion to the rank he holds in this. They have no idea of future punishment. The priesthood is hereditary. The priests are the men of science, and to them is committed the care of the sick, the cure of whom they attempt by means of ridiculous ceremonies and enchantments.

17. No one can perform the office of staining, but the priests. Among the religious customs of the Otaheiteans, that of offering to their deities human sacrifices is most remarkable. From a variety of inquiries made by Captain Cook on this subject, he was able to ascertain that men, for certain crimes, were condemned to be first beaten to death, and then sacrificed to the gods, provided they do not possess property sufficient for their redemption.

18. The following brief account of what took place during one of these ceremonies, is taken from Captain Cook's voyages. Captain Cook and others approaching the temple, were desired to pull off their hats, after which they proceeded, attended by numbers of men and boys. Four priests, with their attendants, were waiting them. The dead body was in a canoe that lay on the beach fronting the temple. One of the priest's attendants brought a young plantain tree, and laid it before the king.

19. Another approached him with a tuft of feathers. A long prayer was now commenced by one of the priests, which being over, the priests with their assistants were to

the beach and sat by the dead body, which was taken out of the canoe, renewing their prayers at the same time. Some of the hair was now plucked from the head of the intended sacrifice, and the left eye taken out. The corpse was then carried and laid under a tree, near which were fixed three pieces of wood variously carved. Here the priests engaged again in prayers for, and expostulated with the dead man.

20. The body was now carried to the most conspicuous part of the temple, the drums beating slowly ; and while the priests were again engaged in their prayers, some assistants dug a hole about two feet deep, into which they threw the victim, and covered it with stones and earth. A dog was then sacrificed, and afterwards a pig, to the entrails of which they seemed to pay great attention, as hoping to derive from them much knowledge of the future. On the next day the ceremonies were renewed, more pigs sacrificed, and more prayers offered, with which the solemnity was concluded.

21. Mild Otaheite ! in thy woodland isle,
 What balmy fragrance wantons in the breeze !
 What vernal hopes, and vernal fancies live !
 What balmy forests, crown thy rising hills !
 Romantically wild ! Majestic floods,
 Fling their hoar foam into thy tranquil seas ;
 Down thy tall cliffs, where dauntless danger haunts.
 What grateful fruits alleviate burning thirst !
 Along thy nectar'd borders, and green banks,
 Fair flowers spring forth, spotless as virgin truth !

22. Thy sun-burnt race, with nature's bounty blest,
 Beneath the covert of the spreading palm,
 Sweet rural peace enjoy : on them, wan grief,
 Or fretful disappointment rarely frowns.
 For them, unfailing fountains copious burst
 In limpid lapse adown each sunny vale,
 Or, ceaseless gushing from the gelid rock,
 The potent stream refreshes pallid lips !
 While the coy virgin on the pebbled strand,
 E'en hazards life to wear the pow'ful chain
 That cruel beauty here demands ;

23. The maid
 Her cheek uplifts to meet the tort'ring stain,
 Willing slave to arbitrary priests :

Submissively she chains the stagnant tear,
Through the pierc'd veins burst forth their crimson
tide.

Meantime relentless superstition claims
The bloody sacrifice: her bearded priests
Condemn the convict to incessant blows,
Till his vex'd spirit mingles with the gale!
The drums sound mournful, mournful moves the
train

To hide the criminal in silent earth.
'Tis done! the blood of murder'd beasts now flows,
Staining the verdant ground: again with pray'rs
And hopes, they ceremoniously inspect
The quiv'ring entrails, and enquire their fate.

Note. Otaheite is in the South Pacific Ocean, in 18° south latitude. It was discovered by Captain Wallis in 1767. It consists of two peninsulas principally covered with woods, and among others are the bread-fruit, palm, and cocoa nut trees, and bananas, sugar cane, &c.

Recent exertions to introduce the gospel among the Otaheiteans, and to instruct them in agriculture and the various mechanic arts, have been highly successful, and it is hoped that they will soon become a civilized and christian people.

Questions.

Where is Otaheite situated?

In what latitude?

When was it discovered?

By whom?

What is the general character of the inhabitants?

How do they reckon time?

What are their views of religion?

**EXTRACT FROM THE EPISODE OF NISUS AND
EURYALUS.—Byron.**

Nisus and Euryalus were sent by the Trojans to Pallanteum, to visit Æneas. The commencement of the following extract represents their arrival in the Rutulian camp.

THE trench is past, and favour'd by the night,
Through sleeping foes they wheel their wary flight ;
When shall the sleep of many a foe be o'er ?
Alas ! some slumber who shall wake no more !
Chariots and bridles, mix'd with arms are seen,
And flowing flasks, and scatter'd troops between ;
Bacchus and Mars, to rule the camp, combine,
A mingled chaos, this, of war and wine.
Now cries the first, " for deeds of blood prepare,
" With me the conquest and the labour share ;
" Here lies our path, lest any hand arise,
" Watch thou, while many a dreaming chieftain dies ;
" I'll carve our passage through the heedless foe,
" And clear thy road with many a deadly blow."'
His whispering accents then the youth repress,
And pierc'd proud Rhamnes thro' his panting breast,
Stretch'd at his ease, th' incautious king repos'd,
Debauch, and not fatigue his eyes had clos'd ;
To Turnus dear, a prophet and a prince,
His omens more than augur's skill evince :
But he, who thus foretold the fate of all,
Could not avert his own untimely fall,
Next Remus' armour bearer, hapless, fell,
And three unhappy slaves the carnage swell ;
The charioteer, along his courser's sides,
Expires, the steel his severed neck divides ;
And, last, his lord is number'd with the dead,
Bounding convulsive, flies the gasping head ;
From the swoln veins the blackening torrents pour,
Stain'd is the couch and earth with clotting gore.
Young Lamyrus and Lamus next expire,
And gay Serranus, fill'd with youthful fire ;
Half the long night in childish games was past,
Lull'd by the potent grape he slept at last ;

Ah! happier far, had he that morn survey'd,
And, 'till Aurora's dawn, his skill displayed.

In slaughter'd folds, the keepers lost in sleep,
His hungry fangs a lion thus may steep;
'Mid the sad flock, at dead of night he prowls,
With murder glutted, and in carnage rolls;
Insatiate still, through teeming herds he roams,
In seas of gore the lordly tyrant foams.

Nor less the other's deadly vengeance came,
But falls on feeble crowds without a name;
His wound, unconscious Fadas scarce can feel,
Yet wakeful Rhaesus sees the threat'ning steel;
His coward breast behind a jar he hides,
And, vainly, in the weak defence confides;
Full in his heart, the falchion search'd his veins,
'The reeking weapon bears alternate stains
'Thro' wine and blood, commingling as they flow,
'The feeble spirit seeks the shades below.

Now, where Messapus slept, they bend their way,
Whose fires emit a faint and trembling ray;
'There, unconfi'd, behold each grazing steed,
Unwatch'd, unheeded, on the herbage feed;
Brave Nisus here arrests his comrade's arm,
Too flush'd with carnage, and with conquest warm.
"Hence let us haste, the dangerous path is past,
"Full foes enough, to-night, have breath'd their last;
"Soon will the day those eastern clouds adorn,
"Now let us speed, nor tempt the rising morn."

What silver arms, with various art emboss'd;
What bowls and mantles, in confusion toss'd
'They leave regardless! yet, one glittering prize,
Attracts the younger hero's wand'ring eyes;
'The gilded harness Rhamnes' coursers felt,
'The gems which stud the monarch's golden belt;
'This from the pallid corse was quickly torn,
Once by a line of former chieftains worn,
'Th' exulting boy, the studded girdle wears,
Messapus' helm his head, in triumph, bears;
'Then from the tents their cautious steps they bend
'To seek the vale where safer paths extend.

Just at this hour, a band of Latian horse,
 To Turnus' camp pursue their destin'd course ;
 While the slow foot their tardy march delay,
 The knights, impatient, spur along the way ;
 Three hundred mail-clad men by Volscens led,
 To Turnus, with their master's promise sped :
 Now, they approach the trench, and view the walls,
 When on the left, a light reflection falls,
 The plunder'd helmet, through the waning night,
 Sheds forth a silver radiance, glancing bright ;
 Volscens, with question loud, the pair alarms,
 " Stand, stragglers ! stand ! why early thus in arms,
 " From whence, to whom ?" he meets with no reply,
 Trusting the covert of the night, they fly ;
 The thicket's depth, with hurried pace, they tread,
 While round the wood the hostile squadron spread.

With brakes entangled, scarce a path between,
 Dreary and dark appears the sylvan scene ;
 Euryalus, his heavy spoils impede,
 The boughs and winding turns his steps mislead ;
 But Nisus scours along the forest's maze,
 To where Latinus' steeds in safety graze,
 Then backward o'er the plain his eyes extend,
 On every side they seek his absent friend.
 " O God, my boy," he cries, " of me bereft,
 " In what impending perils art thou left !"
 Listening he runs—above the waving trees,
 Tumultuous voices swell the passing breeze ;
 The war cry rises, thundering hoofs around
 Wake the dark echoes of the trembling ground:
 Again he turns—of footsteps hears the noise,
 The sound elates—the sight his hope destroys ;
 The hapless boy a ruffian train surround,
 While length'ning shades his weary way confound ;
 Him, with loud shouts, the furious knights pursue,
 Struggling in vain, a captive to the crew.
 What can his friend 'gainst thronging numbers dare !
 Ah ! must he rush, his comrade's fate to share !
 What force, what aid, what stratagem essay,
 Back to redeem the Latian spoiler's prey !
 His life a votive ransom nobly give,
 Or die with him, for whom he wish'd to live !

Poising with strength his lifted lance on high,
 On Luna's orb he cast his frenzied eye :
 " Goddess serene, transcending every star !
 " Queen of the sky ! whose beams are seen afar ;
 " By night, heaven owns thy sway, by day, the
 grove ;
 " When, as chaste Dian, here thou deign'st to rove ;
 " If e'er myself, or sire, have sought to grace
 " Thine altars, with the produce of the chase ;
 " Speed, speed, my dart, to pierce yon vaunting
 crowd,
 " To free my friend, and scatter far the proud."

Thus having said, the hissing dart he flung ;
 Through parted shades the hurtling weapon sung ;
 The thirsty point in Salmio's entrails lay,
 Transfix'd his heart, and stretch'd him on the clay :
 He sobs, he dies,—the troop in wild amaze,
 Unconscious whence the death, with horror gaze ;
 While pale they stare, through Tagus' temples riven,
 A second shaft with equal force is driven ;
 Fierce Volscens rolls around his lowering eyes,
 Veil'd by the night, secure the Trojan lies.

Burning with wrath, he view'd his soldier's fall,
 " Thou youth accurst, thy life shall pay for all."

Quick from the sheath the flaming glaive he drew,
 And, raging, on the boy defenceless flew.
 Nisus no more the blackening shade conceals,
 Forth, forth, he starts, and all his love reveals !
 Aghast, confus'd, his fears to madness rise ;
 And pours these accents, shrieking as he flies :
 " Me, me, your vengeance hurl on me alone,
 " Here sheath the steel, my blood is all your own.
 " Ye starry spheres ! thou conscious heaven attest !
 " He could not,—durst not,—lo ! the guile confest !
 " All, all, was mine,—his early fate suspend,
 " He only lov'd too well his hapless friend ;
 " Spare, spare, ye chiefs ! from him your rage
 remove,
 " His fault was friendship, all his crime was love."

He pray'd in vain, the dark assassin's sword
 Pierc'd the fair side, the snowy bosom gor'd ;
 Lowly to earth inclines his plume clad crest,
 And sanguine torrents mantle o'er his breast :

As some young rose, whose blossom scents the air,
Languid in death, expires beneath the share ;
Or crimson poppy, sinking with the shower,
Declining gently, falls a faded flower ;
Thus sweetly drooping, bends his lovely head,
And lingering beauty hovers round the dead.

But fiery Nisus stems the battle's tide,
Revenge his leader, and Despair his guide ;
Volscens he seeks amidst the gathering host,
Volscens must soon appease his comrade's ghost :
Steel flashing, pours on steel, foe crowds on foe,
Rage nerves his arm, fate gleams in every blow ;
In vain, beneath an hundred wounds he bleeds,
Nor wounds, nor death, distracted Nisus heeds ;
In viewless circles wheel'd his falchion flies,
Nor quits the hero's grasp, till Volscens dies,
Deep in his throat, its end the weapon found,
The tyrant's soul fled groaning through the wound,
Thus Nisus all his fond affection prov'd,
Dying, reveng'd the fate of him he lov'd ;
Then on his bosom sought his wonted place,
And death was heavenly in his friend's embrace.

Celestial pair ! if aught my verse can claim,
Wafted on Time's broad pinion, yours is fame !
Ages on ages shall your fate admire,
No future days shall see your names expire ;
While stands the Capitol, immortal dome !
And vanquish'd millions hail their empress, Rome.

A BRIEF SKETCH OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.—*Hill.*

1. **ALTHOUGH** the American Colonies had long contributed to the great extension of the power of Great Britain, they were regarded as mere instruments in her hands, and various oppressive measures were adopted which served to enkindle a spirit of independence in the new world. In 1765, under the auspices of the minister, George Grenville, the obnoxious stamp act passed in the

British parliament; by which the instruments of writing in daily use were to be null and void, unless executed on paper or parchment stamped with a specific duty.

2. Law documents, leases, deeds and indentures, newspapers and advertisements, almanacks and pamphlets, executed and printed in America—all must contribute to the British treasury. The bill did not pass without the decided opposition of patriots in the British legislature, who foretold the result, and who declared that the colonies being planted by British oppression, and having assisted the mother country, that the mother had no claim on the child to derive from it a revenue. The bill did not take effect until seven months after its passage; thus giving the colonists an opportunity of leisurely examining and viewing the subject on every side.

3. They were struck with silent consternation; but the voice of opposition was first heard in Virginia. Patrick Henry, on the 20th of May brought into the house of burgesses in that colony, a number of resolutions, which were adopted, and which concluded with declaring, "That every individual, who, by speaking or acting, should assert or maintain, that any person or body of men, except the general assembly of the province, had any right to impose taxation there, should be deemed an enemy to his majesty's colonies."

4. These resolutions were immediately disseminated through the other provinces; the tongues and the pens of well-informed men laboured in the holy cause,—the fire of liberty blazed forth from the press. The assembly of Massachusetts passed a resolution in favour of a continental congress, and fixed a day for its meeting at New-York, in October. The other colonies with the exception of four, accepted this invitation, and assembled at the appointed place.

5. Here they agreed on a declaration of their rights. There was, however, a considerable degree of timidity evinced in this congress. The boldest and most impressive arguments were offered by James Otis of Massachusetts. The time arrived for the act to take effect; and the aversion to it was expressed in still stronger terms throughout the colonies.

6. By a common consent, its provisions were disregarded, and business was conducted, in defiance of the parliament, as if no stamp act was in existence: associations were formed against importing British manufactures until the law should be repealed; and lawyers were prohibited from instituting any action for money due to any inhabitant of England. The spirited conduct of the colonists, affecting the interests of the British merchants, had the desired effect.

7. Warm discussions took place in the British parliament; and the ablest speakers in both houses denied the justice of taxing the colonies. The opposition could not be withstood; and in March, 1766, the law was repealed. Simultaneously, however, with repealing this act, the British parliament passed another, declaring that the British parliament had a right to make laws binding the colonies in all cases whatever; and soon after another bill was passed, imposing in the colonies duties on glass, paper, painters' colours, and tea.

8. The fire of opposition was now rekindled with additional ardour, by the same principle, exhibited in its new form. The best talents throughout the colonies were engaged, in the public prints and in pamphlets, to work up the public feeling against the arbitrary measures of the British parliament. New associations were formed to suspend the importation of British manufactures.

9. The Massachusetts assembly, having passed resolutions to this effect, drew forth the marked displeasure of the crown; and, on their refusal to cancel their resolutions, were dissolved. In 1768, Mr. Hancock's sloop Liberty was seized at Boston, for not entering all the wines she had brought from Madeira: this inflamed the populace to a high degree of resentment.

10. Soon afterwards, two British regiments, and some armed vessels, were sent to Boston, to assist the revenue officers. The parliament, encouraged by the expectation of quelling the refractory by their arms, continued to dissolve the opposing assemblies; but the colonies remained firm in their purposes. Lord North succeeded the duke of Grafton, as British premier, in 1770; and the act was repealed imposing a duty on glass, paper, and painters' colours, but that on tea was retained.

11. But on the second of March an affray took place in Boston, between a private soldier and an inhabitant. This was succeeded, in a few days afterwards, by a mob meeting a party of British soldiers under arms, who were dared to fire, and who at length did fire, and killed five persons. The captain who commanded, and the troops who fired, were afterwards tried for murder and acquitted.

12. Things continued in this mode of partial irritation until 1773, when the British East India company were authorised to export their tea to all places free of duty. As this would enable to sell that article cheaper in America, with the government exactions, than they had before sold it without them, it was confidently calculated that teas might be extensively disposed of in the colonies. Large consignments of tea were sent to various parts, and agents appointed for its disposal.

13. The consignees, in several places, were compelled to relinquish their appointments. Popular vengeance prevented the landing at New York or Philadelphia. In Boston it was otherwise. The tea for the supply of that port was consigned to the sons and particular friends of governor Hutchinson. The tea was landed by the strenuous exertions of the governor and consignees. But soon a party of men, dressed as Indians, boarded the tea ships, broke open the cargoes, and threw the contents into the sea.

14. Enraged against the people of Boston, the parliament resolved to take legislative vengeance on that devoted town. Disregarding the forms of the British constitution, by which none are to be punished without trial, they passed a bill closing, in a commercial sense, its port. Its custom house and trade were soon after removed to Salem. The charter of the colony was new modelled, so that the whole executive government was taken from the people, and the nomination of all important offices vested in the crown; and it was enacted, that if any person was indicted for any capital offence committed in aiding the magistrates, he might be sent to Great Britain or any other colony for trial.

15. Property, liberty, and life, were thus subject to ministerial caprice. The parliament went still farther, and passed an act extending the boundaries of Canada, southward, to the Ohio, westward, to the Mississippi, and

northward, to the borders of the Hudson's bay company, assimilating its laws with the French, which dispensed with the trial by jury, and rendering the inhabitants passive agents in the hands of power.

16. The flame was now kindled in every breast; and associations were formed, and committees of correspondence established, which produced a unity of thought and action throughout the colonies. General Gage, the British commander-in-chief, arrived in Boston, in 1774, with more troops, with the avowed intention of dragooning the refractory Bostonians into compliance. A general sympathy was excited for the suffering inhabitants of Boston.

17. Addresses poured in from all quarters; Marblehead offered to the Boston merchants the use of her wharves, and Salem refused to adopt the trade, the offer of which had been proffered as a temptation to her cupidity. Affairs approached rapidly to a crisis. The preparations for offence and defence, induced General Gage to fortify Boston, and to seize on the powder lodged in the arsenal at Charlestown. In September, deputies from most of the colonies met in congress at Philadelphia.

18. These delegates approved of the conduct of the people of Massachusetts; wrote a letter to General Gage; published a declaration of rights; formed an association not to import or use British goods; sent a petition to the king of Great Britain; an address to the inhabitants of that kingdom; another to the inhabitants of Canada; and another to the inhabitants of the colonies. In the beginning of the next year (1775) was passed the *fishery bill*, by which the northern colonies were forbidden to fish on the banks of Newfoundland for a certain time.

19. This bore hard upon the commerce of these colonies, which was in a great measure supported by the fisheries. Soon after, another bill was passed, which restrained the trade of the middle and southern colonies to Great Britain, Ireland, and the West Indies, except under certain conditions. These repeated acts of oppression on the part of Great Britain, alienated the affections of America from her parent and sovereign, and produced a combined opposition to the whole system of taxation.

20. Preparations began to be made to oppose by force the execution of these acts of parliament. The militia of the country were trained to the use of arms—great

encouragement was given to the manufacture of gunpowder, and measures were taken to obtain all kinds of military stores. In February Colonel Leslie was sent with a detachment of troops from Boston, to take possession of some cannon at Salem. But the people had intelligence of the design—took up the draw bridge in that town and prevented the troops from passing, until the cannon were secured, so that the expedition failed.

21. In April, Colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn were sent with a body of troops, to destroy the military stores which had been collected at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston. At Lexington the militia were collected on a green, to oppose the incursion of the British forces. These were fired upon by the British troops, and eight men killed on the spot. The militia were dispersed, and the troops proceeded to Concord; where they destroyed a few stores.

22. But on their return they were incessantly harrassed by the Americans, who, inflamed with just resentment, fired upon them from houses and fences, and pursued them to Boston. Here was spilt the *first blood* in the war which severed America from the British empire. *Lexington* opened the first scene of the great drama, which, in its progress, exhibited the most illustrious characters and events, and closed with a revolution, equally glorious for the actors, and important in its consequences to the human race.

23. This battle roused all America. The militia collected from all quarters, and Boston was in a few days besieged by twenty thousand men. A stop was put to all intercourse between the town and country, and the inhabitants were reduced to great want of provisions. General Gage promised to let the people depart, if they would deliver up their arms. The people complied; but when the general had obtained their arms, the perfidious wretch refused to let the people go.

24. In the mean time, a small number of men, under the command of Colonel Allen and Colonel Easton, without any public orders, surprised and took the British garrison at Ticonderoga, without the loss of a man. In June following, our troops attempted to fortify Bunker's hill, which lies in Charlestown, and but a mile and a half from Boston. They had, during the night, thrown up a small

breastwork, which sheltered them from the fire of the British cannon.

25. But the next morning, the British were sent to drive them from the hill; and landing under cover of their cannon, they set fire to Charlestown, which was consumed, and marched to attack our troops in their entrenchments. A severe engagement ensued, in which the British suffered a great loss, both of officers and privates. They were repulsed at first, and thrown into disorder; but they finally carried the fortifications with the point of the bayonet.

26. The Americans suffered a small loss compared with the British; but the death of the brave general Warren, who fell in the action, a martyr to the cause of his country, was severely felt and universally lamented. About this time, the continental congress appointed George Washington, Esq. to the chief command of the continental army. This gentleman had been a distinguished officer in the preceding war, and he seemed destined by Heaven to be the saviour of his country. He accepted the appointment with a diffidence which was a proof of his prudence and his greatness.

27. He refused any pay for eight years' laborious and arduous service; and by his matchless skill, fortitude, and perseverance, conducted America, through indescribable difficulties, to independence and peace. While true merit is esteemed, or virtue honoured, mankind will never cease to revere the memory of this hero; and while gratitude remains in the human breast, the praises of WASHINGTON shall dwell on every American tongue.

28. General Washington, with other officers appointed by congress, arrived at Cambridge, and took the command of the American army in July. From this time, the affairs of America began to assume the appearance of a regular and general opposition to the forces of Great Britain. In autumn, a body of troops, under the command of general Montgomery, besieged and took the garrison at St. Johns which commands the entrance into Canada. The prisoners amounted to about seven hundred.

29. General Montgomery pursued his success, and took Montreal, and designed to push his victories to Quebec. A body of troops, commanded by Arnold, was or-

dered to march to Canada, by the river Kennebec, and through the wilderness. After suffering every hardship, and the most distressing hunger, they arrived in Canada, and were joined by general Montgomery, before Quebec. This city, which was commanded by governor Carleton, was immediately besieged. But there being little hope of taking the town by a siege, it was determined to storm it.

30. The attack was made on the last day of December, but proved unsuccessful, and fatal to the brave general, who, with his aid, was killed in attempting to scale the walls. Of the three divisions which attacked the town, one only entered, and that was compelled to surrender to superior force. After this defeat, Arnold, who now commanded the troops, continued some months before Quebec, although his troops suffered incredibly by cold and sickness. But the next spring the Americans were obliged to retreat from Canada.

31. About this time the large and flourishing town of Norfolk, in Virginia, was wantonly burnt by order of lord Dunmore, the royal governor. General Gage went to England in September, and was succeeded in command by general Howe. Falmouth, a considerable town in the province of Maine, in Massachusetts, shared the fate of Norfolk; being laid in ashes by order of the British admiral. The British King entered into treaties with some of the German princes for about seventeen thousand men, who were to be sent to America the next year, to assist in subduing the colonies.

32. The British parliament also passed an act, forbidding all intercourse with America; and while they repealed the Boston port and fishery bills, they declared all American property on the high seas forfeited to the captors. This act induced congress to change the mode of carrying on the war; and measures were taken to annoy the enemy in Boston. For this purpose, batteries were opened on several hills, from whence shot and bombs were thrown into the town, which obliged General Howe to abandon it.

33. In March, 1776, the British troops embarked for Halifax, and general Washington entered the town in triumph. In the ensuing summer, a small squadron of ships, under the command of Sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops under the generals Clinton and Cornwallis,

attempted to take Charleston, the capital of South Carolina. The ships made a violent attack upon the fort on Sullivan's island, but were repulsed with great loss, and the expedition was abandoned.

34. In July, congress published their declaration of independence, which forever separated America from Great Britain. This great event took place two hundred and eighty four years after the first discovery of America by Columbus—one hundred and seventy from the first effectual settlements in Virginia—and one hundred and fifty-six from the first settlement of Plymouth in Massachusetts, which were the earliest English settlements in America.

35. Just after this declaration, General Howe, with a powerful force, arrived near New York, and landed the troops upon Staten Island. General Washington was in New York, with about thirteen thousand men, encamped either in the city, or in the neighbouring fortifications. The operations of the British began by the action on Long Island, in the month of August. The Americans were defeated, and general Sullivan and lord Sterling with a large body of men, were made prisoners.

36. The night after the engagement, a retreat was ordered, and executed with such silence, that the Americans left the island without alarming their enemies, and without much loss. In September, the city of New York was abandoned by the American army, and taken by the British. In November, fort Washington, on York Island, was taken, and more than two thousand men made prisoners. Fort Lee, opposite to Fort Washington, on the Jersey shore, was soon after taken but the garrison escaped.

37. About the same time, General Clinton was sent, with a body of troops, to take possession of Rhode Island, and succeeded. In addition to all these losses and defeats, the American army suffered by desertion, and more by sickness, which was epidemic, and very mortal. The northern army, at Ticonderoga, was in a disagreeable situation, particularly after the battle on lake Champlain, in which the American force, consisting of a few light vessels, under the command of Arnold and General Waterbury, was totally dispersed.

38. But general Carleton instead of pursuing his victory, landed at Crown Point, reconnoitred our posts at Ticonderoga, and Mount Independence, and returned into winter quarters in Canada. At the close of this year the American army was dwindled to a handful of men; and general Lee was taken prisoner in New Jersey. Far from being discouraged at these losses, congress took measures to raise and establish an army. In this critical situation, general Washington surprised and took a large body of Hessians, who were cantoned at Trenton; and soon after, another body of the British troops at Princeton.

39. The address in planning and executing these enterprises, reflected the highest honour on the commander, and the success revived the desponding hopes of America. The loss of general Mercer, a gallant officer, at Princeton, was the principal circumstance that allayed the joys of victory. The following year, (1777) was distinguished by very memorable events in favour of America. On the opening of the campaign, governor Tryon was sent, with a body of troops, to destroy the stores at Danbury, in Connecticut.

40. This plan was executed, and the town mostly burnt. The enemy suffered in their retreat, and the Americans lost general Wooster, a brave and experienced officer. General Prescott was taken from his quarters on Rhode Island, by the address and enterprise of Colonel Barton, and conveyed prisoner to the continent. General Burgoyne, who commanded the northern British army, took possession of Ticonderoga, which had been abandoned by the Americans.

41. He pushed his successes, crossed lake George, and encamped upon the banks of the Hudson, near Saratoga. His progress was however checked by the defeat of Colonel Baum, near Bennington, in which the undisciplined militia of Vermont, under general Stark, displayed unexampled bravery, and captured almost the whole detachment. The militia assembled from all parts of New England, to stop the progress of general Burgoyne.

42. These, with the regular troops, formed a respectable army, commanded by general Gates. After two severe actions, in which the generals Lincoln and Arnold, behaved with uncommon gallantry, and were wounded,

general Burgoyne found himself surrounded by brave troops, and was forced to surrender his whole army, amounting to ten thousand men, into the hands of the Americans. This happened in October. This event diffused a universal joy over America, and laid a foundation for the treaty with France.

43. But before these transactions, the main body of the British forces, had embarked at New York, sailed up the Chesapeake, and landed at the head of Elk river. The army soon began their march for Philadelphia. General Washington had determined to oppose them, and for this purpose made a stand upon the heights near Brandywine creek. Here the armies engaged, and the Americans were overpowered and suffered great loss. The enemy soon pursued their march, and took possession of Philadelphia towards the last of September.

44. Not long after, the two armies were again engaged at Germantown, and in the beginning of the action the Americans had the advantage; but by some unlucky accident the fortune of the day was turned in favour of the British. Both sides suffered considerable loss; on the side of the Americans was general Nash. In an attack upon the forts at Mud Island and Red Bank, the Hessians were unsuccessful, and their commander, Colonel Donop, killed. The British also lost the Augusta, a ship of the line.

45. But the forts were afterwards taken, and the navigation of the Delaware opened. General Washington was reinforced with part of the troops which had composed the northern army, under general Gates; and both armies retired into winter quarters. In October, the same month that general Burgoyne was taken at Saratoga, general Vaughan, with a small fleet, sailed up Hudson's river, and wantonly burnt Kingston, a beautiful Dutch settlement on the west side of the river.

46. The beginning of the next year (1778) was distinguished by a treaty of alliance between France and America; by which we obtained a powerful and generous ally. When the British ministry were informed that this treaty was on foot, they dispatched commissioners to America, to attempt a reconciliation. But America would not now accept their offers. Early in the spring,

count de Estaing, with a fleet of fifteen sail of the line was sent by the court of France to assist America.

47. General Howe left the army, and returned to England; the command then devolved upon Sir Henry Clinton. In June, the British army left Philadelphia and marched for New York. On their march they were much annoyed by the Americans, and at Monmouth a very regular action took place between part of the armies; the enemy were repulsed with great loss; and had general Lee obeyed his orders, a signal victory must have been obtained. General Lee for his ill conduct that day, was suspended, and was never afterwards permitted to join the army.

48. In August, General Sullivan, with a large body of troops, attempted to take possession of Rhode Island, but did not succeed. Soon after, the stores and shipping at Bedford, in Massachusetts, were burnt by a party of British troops. The same year, Savannah, the capital of Georgia, was taken by the British, under the command of Colonel Campbell. In the following year (1779) general Lincoln was appointed to the command of the southern army. Governor Tryon and Sir George Collier made an incursion into Connecticut, and burnt, with wanton barbarity, the towns of Fairfield and Norwalk.

49. But the American arms were crowned with success in a bold attack upon Stoney Point, which was surprised and taken by General Wayne, in the night of the fifteenth of July. Five hundred men were made prisoners, with a small loss on either side. A party of British forces attempted, this summer to build a fort on Penobscot river, for the purpose of cutting timber in the neighbouring forests. A plan was laid, by Massachusetts, to dislodge them, and a considerable fleet collected for the purpose.

50. But the plan failed of success, and the whole marine force fell into the hands of the British, except some vessels, which were burnt by the Americans themselves. In October, General Lincoln and count de Estaing made an assault upon Savannah; but they were repulsed with considerable loss. In this action, the celebrated Polish count Polaski, who had acquired the reputation of a brave soldier, was mortally wounded. In this summer, general Sullivan marched, with a body of troops,

into the Indian country, and burnt and destroyed all their provisions and settlements that came in his way.

51. On the opening of the campaign the next year (1780) the British troops left Rhode Island. An expedition under general Clinton and lord Cornwallis, was undertaken against Charleston, South Carolina, where general Lincoln commanded. This town, after a close siege of six weeks was surrendered to the British commander; and general Lincoln, and the whole American garrison, were made prisoners. General Gates was appointed to the command in the southern department, and another army collected.

52. In August, lord Cornwallis attacked the American troops at Camden, in South Carolina, and routed them with considerable loss. He afterwards marched into the southern states, and supposed them entirely subdued. The same summer, the British troops made frequent incursions from New York into the Jerseys; ravaging and plundering the country. In some of these descents, the Rev. Mr. Caldwell, a respectable clergyman and warm patriot, and his lady, were inhumanly murdered by the savage soldiery.

53. In July, a French fleet, under Monsieur de Ternay, with a body of land forces, commanded by count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Island, to the great joy of the Americans. This year was also distinguished by the infamous treason of Arnold. General Washington having some business to transact at Wethersfield, in Connecticut, left Arnold to command the important post of West Point, which guards a pass in Hudson's river, about sixty miles from New York.

54. Arnold's conduct in the city of Philadelphia, the preceding winter, had been censured, and the treatment he received in consequence had given him offence. He determined to have revenge; and for this purpose he entered into a negociation with Sir Henry Clinton, to deliver West Point and the army into the hands of the British. While general Washington was absent, he dismounted the cannon in some of the forts, and took other steps to render the taking of the post easy for the enemy.

55. But by a providential discovery, the whole plan was defeated. Major Andre, aid to general Clinton, a brave officer, who had been up the river as a spy, to con-

cert the plan of operations with Arnold, was taken, condemned by a court martial, and executed. Arnold made his escape by getting on board the Vulture, a British vessel which lay in the river. His conduct has stamped him with infamy, and, like all traitors, he is despised by all mankind. General Washington arrived in camp just after Arnold had made his escape, and restored order in the garrison.

56. After the defeat of general Gates, in Carolina, general Green was appointed to the command in the southern department. From this period, things in this quarter wore a more favourable aspect. Colonel Tarleton, the active commander of the British legion, was defeated by general Morgan, the intrepid commander of the riflemen. After a variety of movements, the two armies met at Guilford, in North Carolina.

57. Here was one of the best fought actions during the war. General Greene and lord Cornwallis exerted themselves, at the head of their respective armies, and, although the Americans were obliged to retire from the field of battle, yet the British army suffered an immense loss, and could not pursue the victory. This action happened on the 15th of March, 1781. In the spring, Arnold, who was made a brigadier-general in the British service, with a small number of troops, sailed for Virginia, and plundered the country.

58. This called the attention of the French fleet to that quarter, and a naval engagement took place, between the English and French, in which some of the English ships were much damaged, and one entirely disabled. After the battle at Guilford, general Green moved towards South Carolina, to drive the British from their posts in that state. Here Lord Rawdon obtained an inconsiderable advantage over the Americans, near Camden.

59. But general Greene more than recovered this disadvantage, by the brilliant and successful action at the Eutaw springs; where general Marion distinguished himself, and the brave Colonel Washington was wounded and taken prisoner. Lord Cornwallis finding general Greene successful in Carolina, marched to Virginia, collected his forces, and fortified himself in Yorktown. In the mean time Arnold made an incursion into Connecti-

cut, burnt a part of New London, took fort Griswold by storm, and put the garrison to the sword.

60. The garrison consisted chiefly of men suddenly collected from the little town of Groton, which, by the savage cruelty of the British officer who commanded the attack, lost, in one hour, almost all its heads of families. The brave Colonel Ledyard, who commanded the fort, was slain with his own sword, after he had surrendered. The marquis de la Fayette, the brave and generous nobleman, whose services command the gratitude of every American, had been dispatched from the main army to watch the motions of lord Cornwallis, in Virginia.

61. About the last of August, count de Grasse arrived with a large fleet in the Chesapeake, and blocked up the British troops at Yorktown. Admiral Greaves, with a British fleet, appeared off the Capes, and an action succeeded, but it was not decisive. General Washington had, before this time, moved the main body of his army, together with the French troops, to the southward; and, as soon as he heard of the arrival of the French fleet in the Chesapeake, he made rapid marches to the head of the Elk, where embarking, the troops soon arrived at Yorktown.

62. A close siege immediately commenced, and was carried on with such vigour by the combined forces of America and France, that lord Cornwallis was obliged to surrender. This glorious event, which took place on the 19th of October 1781, decided the contest in favour of America, and laid the foundation of a general peace. A few months after the surrender of Cornwallis, the British evacuated all their posts in South Carolina and Georgia, and retired to the main army in New York.

63. The next spring (1782) sir Guy Carleton arrived at New York, and took command of the British army in America. Immediately after his arrival, he acquainted general Washington and congress, that negotiations for a peace had been commenced at Paris. On the 30th of November, 1782, the provisional articles of peace were signed at Paris, by which Great Britain acknowledged the independence and sovereignty of the United States of America.

64. Thus ended a long and arduous conflict, in which Great Britain expended near an hundred millions of mo-

ney, with an hundred thousand lives, and won nothing. America endured every cruelty and distress from her enemies ; lost many lives, and much treasure—but delivered herself from a foreign dominion, and gained a rank among the nations of the earth.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF CICERO.—*Kingston.*

1. CICERO, born at Arpinum, was son of a Roman Knight, and lineally descended from the ancient kings of the Sabines. His mother's name was Helvia. After displaying many promising abilities at school, he was taught philosophy by Piso, and law by Mutius Scaevola. He acquired and perfected, a taste for military knowledge under Sylla, in the Marsian war, and retired from Rome, which was divided into factions, to indulge his philosophic propensities.

2. He was naturally of a weak and delicate constitution, and he visited Greece on account of his health ; though, perhaps, the true cause of his absence from Rome might be attributed to his fear of Sylla. His friends, who were well acquainted with his superior abilities, were anxious for his return ; and when at last he obeyed their solicitations, he applied himself with uncommon diligence to oratory, and was soon distinguished above all the speakers of his age in the Roman forum.

3. When he went to Sicily as quaestor, he behaved with great justice and moderation ; and the Sicilians remembered, with gratitude, the eloquence of Cicero, their common patron, who had delivered them from the tyranny and avarice of Verres. After he had passed through the offices of edile and praetor, he stood a candidate for the consulship, and the patricians and the plebians were equally anxious to raise him to that dignity, against the efforts and bribery of Cataline.

4. His new situation was critical and required circumspection. Cataline, with many dissolute and desperate Romans, had conspired against their country, and combined to murder Cicero himself. In this dilemma, Cicero, in full senate, accused Cataline of treason against the state ; but as his evidence was not clear, his efforts were

unavailing. He, however, stood upon his guard, and by the information of his friends, and the discovery of Fulvia, his life was saved from the dagger of Marcius and Cethegus, whom Cataline had sent to assassinate him.

5. After this, Cicero commanded Cataline, in the senate, to leave the city; and this desperate conspirator marched out in triumph to meet the 20,000 men who were assembled to support his cause. The lieutenant of Anthony, the other consul, defeated them in Gaul; and, Cicero, at Rome, punished the rest of the conspirators with death. This capital punishment, though inveighed against by Caesar as too severe, was supported by the opinion of Lutatius Catalus, and Cato, and confirmed by the whole senate.

6. After this memorable deliverance, Cicero received the thanks of all the people, and was styled, *the father of his country and a second founder of Rome*. The vehemence with which he had attacked Clodius, proved injurious to him; and when his enemy was made tribune, Cicero was banished from Rome, though 20,000 young men were supporters of his innocence. He was not, however, deserted in banishment. Wherever he went he was received with the highest marks of approbation and reverence; and when the faction had subsided at Rome, the whole senate and people were unanimous for his return.

7. After sixteen months' absence, he entered Rome with universal satisfaction; and when he was sent, with the power of proconsul, to Cilicia, his integrity and prudence made him successful against the enemy, and at his return he was honoured with a triumph which the factions prevented him to enjoy. After much hesitation during the civil commotions between Caesar and Pompey, he joined himself to the latter, and followed him to Greece.

8. When victory had declared in favour of Caesar, at the battle of Pharsalia, Cicero went to Brundisium, and was reconciled to the conqueror, who treated him with great humanity. From this time Cicero retired into the country, and seldom visited Rome. When Caesar had been stabbed in the senate, Cicero recommended a general amnesty, and was the most earnest to decree the provinces to Brutus and Cassius. But when he saw the interest of

Caesar's murderers decrease, and Anthony come into power he retired to Athens.

9. He soon after returned, but lived in perpetual fear of assassination. Augustus courted the approbation of Cicero, and expressed his wish to be his colleague in the consulship. But his wish was not sincere; he soon forgot his former professions of friendship; and, when the two consuls had been killed at Mutina, Augustus joined his interest to that of Anthony, and the triumvirate was soon after formed. The great enmity which Cicero bore to Anthony was fatal to him; and Augustus, Anthony, and Lepidus, the triumvirs to destroy all cause of quarrel, and each to dispatch his enemies, produced their list of proscription.

10. About two hundred were doomed to death, and Cicero was among the number upon the list of Anthony. Augustus yielded a man to whom he partly owed his greatness, and Cicero was pursued by the emissaries of Anthony, among whom was Popilius, whom he had defended upon an accusation of parricide. He had fled in a litter towards the sea of Caieta; and when the assassins came up to him, he put his head out of the litter, and it was severed from the body by Herennius.

11. This memorable event happened in December, 43 years before Christ; after the enjoyment of life for 63 years 11 months and five days. The head and right hand of the orator were carried to Rome, and hung up in the Roman forum; and so inveterate was Anthony's hatred against the unfortunate man, that even Fulvia the triumvir's wife, wreaked her vengeance upon his head, and drew the tongue out of the mouth, and bored it through repeatedly with a gold bodkin, verifying in this act of inhumanity, what Cicero had once observed, that *no animal is more revengeful than a woman*.

12. Cicero has acquired more real fame by his literary compositions, than by his spirited exertions as a senator. The learning and the abilities which he possessed, have been the admiration of every age and country, and his style has always been accounted as the pure standard of pure latinity. He once formed a design to write the history of his country but he was disappointed. He translated many of the Greek writers, poets, as well as historians, for his own improvement.

13. When he travelled into Asia, he was attended by most of the learned men of his age; and his stay at Rhodes, in the school of the famous Molo, conduced not a little to perfect his judgment. Like his countrymen, he was not destitute of ambition, and the arrogant expectations with which he returned from his quaestorship in Sicily are well known. He was of a timid disposition; and he, who shone as the father of Roman eloquence, never ascended the pulpit to harangue, without feeling a secret emotion of dread.

14. His conduct, during the civil wars, was far from that of a patriot; and when we view him, dubious, and irresolute, sorry not to follow Pompey, and yet afraid to oppose Caesar, the judgment would almost brand him with the name of coward. In his private character, however, Cicero was of an amiable disposition; and though he was too elated with prosperity, and debased with adversity, the affability of the friend conciliated the good graces of all. He married Terentia, whom he afterwards divorced, and by whom he had a son and a daughter. He afterwards married a young woman, to whom he was guardian; and because she seemed elated at the death of his daughter, Fullia, he repudiated her.

Note. Verres was a Roman prætor, accused by Cicero, and condemned for bribery.—Caesar, the first Roman emperor, was slain by Brutus in the senate house.



HYMN TO THE SUN.—*Thompson.*

LOOK, yonder comes the powerful King of day,
 Rejoicing in the east. The lessening cloud,
 The kindling azure, and the mountain's brow
 Illum'd with fluid gold, his near approach
 Betoken glad. Lo, now, apparent all,
 Aslant the dew-bright earth, and colour'd air,
 He looks in boundless majesty abroad,
 And sheds the shining day, that burnish'd plays,
 On rocks, and hills, and towers, and wandering
 streams,
 High gleaming from afar. Prime cheerer, Light

Of all material beings first, and best !
 Efflux divine ! Nature's resplendent robe !
 Without whose vesting beauty all were wrapt
 In unessential gloom ; and thou, O Sun !
 Soul of surrounding worlds ! in whom best seen
 Shines out thy Maker ! may I sing to thee ?

'Tis by thy secret, strong, attractive force,
 As with a chain indissoluble bound,
 Thy system rolls entire ; from the far bourne
 Of utmost Saturn, wheeling wide his round
 Of thirty years ; to Mercury, whose disk
 Can scarce be caught by philosophic eye,
 Lost in the near effulgence of thy blaze.

Informer of the planetary train ! [orbs
 Without whose quick'ning glance their cumb'rous
 Were brute unlovely mass, inert and dead,
 And not, as now, the green abodes of life !
 How many forms of being wait on thee !
 Inhaling spirit ! from the unfetter'd mind,
 By thee sublim'd, down to the daily race,
 The mixing myriads of thy setting beam.

The vegetable world is also thine,
 Parent of Seasons ! who the pomp precede
 That waits thy throne, as through thy vast domain,
 Annual, alone the bright ecliptic road,
 In world-rejoicing state, it moves sublime.
 Meantime th' expecting nations circling gay
 With all the various tribes of foodful earth,
 Implore thy bounty. or send grateful up
 A common hymn ; while round thy beaming car,
 High-seen the Seasons lead, in sprightly dance,
 Harmonious knit, the rosy finger'd hours,
 The zephyrs floating loose, the timely rains ;
 Of bloom ethereal, the light-footed dews,
 And soften'd into joy, the surly storms.
 These, in successive turn, with lavish hand,
 Shower every beauty, every fragrance shower,
 Herbs, flowers, and fruits ; till kindling at thy touch
 From land to land is flush'd the vernal year.

Nor to the surface of enliven'd earth,
 Graceful with hills, and dales, and leafy woods,
 Her liberal tresses, is thy force confin'd ;
 But to the bowel'd cavern darting deep,

The mineral kinds confess thy mighty power.
 Effulgent hence the veiny marble shines ;
 Hence Labour draws his tools ; hence burnish'd war
 Gleams on the day ; the nobler works of Peace
 Hence bless mankind, and gen'rous Commerce binds
 The round of nations in a golden chain.

Th' unfruitful rock itself, impregn'd by thee,
 In dark retirement forms the lucid stone,
 The lively diamond drinks thy purest rays ;
 Collected light compact ; that, polish'd bright,
 And all its native lustre let abroad,
 Dares, as it sparkles on the fair one's breast
 With vain ambition emulate her eyes.
 At thee the ruby lights its deep'ning glow,
 And with a waving radiance inward flames.
 From thee the sapphire, solid æther, takes
 Its hue cerulean ; and, of evening tinct,
 The purple streaming amethyst is thine.
 With thy own smile the yellow topaz burns :
 Nor deeper verdure dies the robe of spring,
 When first she gives it to the southern gale,
 Than the green em'rald shows. But, all combin'd,
 Thick through the whitening opal play thy beams ;
 Or, flying several from its surface, form
 A trembling variance of revolving hues,
 As the sight varies in the gazer's hand.

The very dead creation, from thy touch,
 Assumes a mimic life. By thee refin'd,
 In brighter mazes the reluctant stream
 Plays o'er the mead. The precipice abrupt,
 Projecting horror on the blacken'd flood,
 Softens at thy return. The desert joys
 Wildly through all his melancholy bounds.
 Rude ruins glitter ; and the briny deep,
 Seen from some pointed promontory's top,
 Far to the blue horizon's utmost verge,
 Restless reflects a floating gleam. But this,
 And all the much-transported Muse can sing,
 Are to thy beauty, dignity, and use,
 Unequal far ; great delegated source,
 Of light, and life, and grace, and joy below !

DESCRIPTION OF THE WHITE HILLS IN NEW HAMPSHIRE.—*Dwight.*

1. THE White Hills are a range of mountains, in the north part of New Hampshire, eighteen or twenty miles long and eight or ten broad, in $44\frac{1}{4}^{\circ}$ north latitude. These mountains have been ascended by different routs. The course which is usually considered as attended with the least difficulties, is that which commences at the plain of Conway, and follows the course of Ellis river, a northern branch of the Saco, having its origin high in the mountains.

2. The view from the summit is rendered wonderfully grand and picturesque, by the magnitude of the elevation, the extent and variety of the surrounding scenery, by the huge and desolate pile of rocks, extending to a great distance in every direction. These mountains are covered with snow nine or ten months in the year, and derive their name from their white appearance. They are seen many miles off at sea, and a person, when on their summit has a distinct view of the Atlantic Ocean, the nearest part of which is 65 miles distant in a direct line.

3. The limit of forest trees is at the height of 4,428 feet. The sides are composed of micaceous schistos, and the summit of gneiss. These mountains, the highest in the United States, except, perhaps, the Rocky Mountains which divide the waters that flow east into Mississippi, from those that flow west into the Pacific Ocean, are beginning to attract the attention of travellers, and measures are about being taken to open a road to Mount Washington, which has an elevation of 7000 feet from the level of the sea. This is surrounded by five lower peaks from 4000 to 5000 feet in height, bearing the names of Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, and Pleasant.

4. The Notch of the White Mountains is a phrase, appropriated to a very narrow defile extending two miles in length, between two huge cliffs, apparently rent asunder by some vast convulsion of nature. This convulsion, was unquestionably that of the deluge. There are here, and throughout New England, no eminent proofs of volcanic violence; nor any strong exhibitions of the power of earthquakes. Nor has history recorded any earth-

quake, or volcano, in other countries, of sufficient efficacy to produce the phenomena of this place.

5. The objects rent asunder are too great, the ruin is too vast, and too complete, to have been accomplished by these agents. The change appears to have been effectuated, when the surface of the earth extensively subsided; when countries, and continents, assumed a new face; and a general commotion of the elements produced the disruption of some mountains, and merged others beneath the common level of desolation. Nothing less than this, will account for the sundering of a long range of great rocks; or rather, of vast mountains; or for the existing evidences of the immense force, by which the rupture was effected.

6. The entrance of the chasm is formed by two rocks, standing perpendicularly at the distance of twenty-two feet from each other: one about twenty feet in height, the other about twelve. Half of the space is occupied by the brook, mentioned as the head stream of the Sacó; the other half by the road. The stream is lost, and invisible, beneath a mass of fragments, partly blown out of the road, and partly thrown down by some great convulsion.

7. When we entered the Notch we were struck with the wild and solemn appearance of every thing before us. The scale, on which all the objects in view were formed, was the scale of grandeur only. The rocks, rude and ragged in a manner rarely paralleled, were fashioned, and piled on each other, by a hand, operating only in the boldest and most irregular manner. As we advanced, these appearances increased rapidly.

8. Huge masses of granite, of every abrupt form and hoary with a moss which seemed the product of ages, recalling to mind the "*Saxum vetustum*" of Virgil, speedily rose to a mountainous height. Before us, the view widened fast to the South East. Behind us, it closed almost instantaneously; and presented nothing to the eye, but an impassable barrier of mountains. About half a mile from the entrance of the chasm, we saw in full view the most beautiful cascade, perhaps in the world.

9. It issued from a mountain on the right, about eight hundred feet above the subjacent valley, and at the distance of about two miles from us. The stream ran over a series of rocks, almost perpendicular, with a course so

little broken, as to preserve the appearance of an uniform current, and yet so far disturbed, as to be perfectly white. The sun shone with its clearest splendour from a station in the heavens, the most advantageous to our prospect; and the cascade glittered down the vast steep, like a stream of burnished silver.

10. At the distance of three quarters of a mile from the entrance, we passed a brook, known in this region by the name of the *Flume*; from the strong resemblance to that object, exhibited by the channel, which it has worn for a considerable length in a bed of rocks: the sides being perpendicular to the bottom. This elegant piece of water, we determined to examine further; and, alighting from our horses, walked up the acclivity, perhaps a furlong.

11. The stream fell from a height of 240 or 250 feet over three precipices: the second receding a little distance from the front of the first, and the third from that of the second. Down the first and second, it fell in a single current; and down the third in three, which united their streams at the bottom in a fine basin, formed by the hand of nature in the rocks, immediately beneath us.

12. It is impossible for a brook of this size to be modelled into more diversified, or more delightful forms; or for a cascade to descend over precipices, more happily fitted to finish its beauty. The cliffs together with a level at their foot, furnished a considerable opening, surrounded by the forest. The sun-beams, penetrating through the trees, painted here a great variety of fine images of light, and edged an equally numerous, and diversified, collection of shadows; both dancing on the waters, and alternately silvering and obscuring their course.

13. Purer water was never seen. Exclusively of its murmurs, the world around us was solemn and silent. Every thing assumed the character of enchantment; and, had I been educated in the Grecian mythology, I should scarcely have been surprised to find an assemblage of Dryads, Naiads, and Oreades, sporting on the little plain below our feet. The purity of this water was discernible, not only by its limpid appearance, and its taste, but from several other circumstances.

14. Its course is wholly over hard granite: and the rocks and stones in its bed, and at its side, instead of being covered with adventitious substances, were washed

perfectly clean ; and by their neat appearance added not a little to the beauty of the scenery. From this spot the mountain speedily began to open with increased majesty ; and in several instances rose to a perpendicular height, little less than a mile.

Questions.

Where are the White Hills situated ?

In what latitude ?

What is their length ?

“ “ their breadth ?

Which is the highest peak of these mountains ?

What is the elevation of Mount Washington ?

What other eminences surround Mount Washington ?

How many months in the year are these covered with snow ?

Are there any forest trees on the summit ?

What is the length of the *Notch* in the White Hills ?

What is the width at the entrance ?

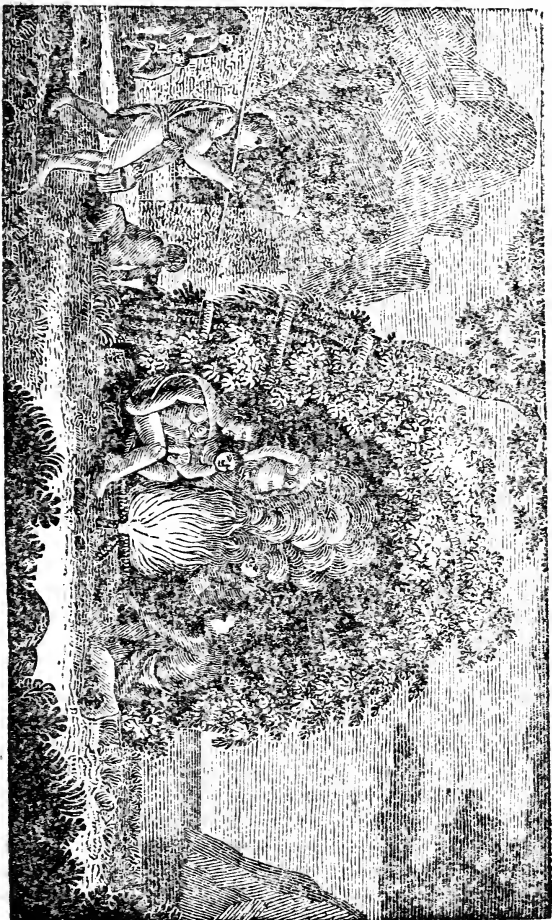
In what manner was this chasm probably effected ?

What is the greatest perpendicular height of the mountain from the road which passes through the *Notch* ?

TERRA DEL FUEGO.—*Goldsmith.*

1. THE islands of Terra del Fuego, on the south of Patagonia, received their name from the fire and smoke which were perceived on them by their first discoverers, occasioned by a volcano. The land is in general extremely mountainous and rough, and covered with almost perpetual snows ; which circumstance renders the climate almost destitute of animals of every kind ; here, however, human nature finds subsistence.

2. The simple and hardy inhabitants are low in stature, have only the skins of seals wrapped round their bodies, and subsist principally on shell fish. These islands were thought to form a part of the continent, till Magellan discovered and sailed through the intervening strait. North-east of the straits of Magellan lie the Falkland islands, belonging to the English. As these islands lie in a simi-



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far latitude to that of the south of England, they might naturally enough be supposed to enjoy nearly the same climate.

3. But it is a well known geographical truth, that the southern hemisphere is much more inclement than the northern, and countries only in 55° south, are more frozen than Lapland in 70° north. Falkland islands, which are divided from each other only by a strait four or five miles in breadth, are both dreary and desolate spots, affording neither timber nor vegetables in any considerable quantities: the coasts, however, are frequented by innumerable herds of seals, and vast flights of fowls, particularly penguins, and albatrasses.

4. The island of Juan Fernandes lies to the west of South America, about three hundred miles from the coast of Chili. This romantic isle, diversified with woods and water, with craggy hills and fertile spots, is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It appears that Alexander Selkirk, a seaman, and a native of Scotland, was put ashore, and left in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, and was discovered by Woodes Rodgers in 1709.

5. When taken on board, he had through disuse so forgot his native language, that he could with difficulty be understood; he was clothed with the skins of goats, would drink nothing but water, and could not for a considerable time relish the ship's provisions. During his residence on this island he had killed five hundred goats, which he caught by running down; and many more he caught he marked on their ears, and set again at liberty. Commodore Anson's crew caught some of these goats thirty years after, which discovered in their countenances and beards strong marks of age.

6. The island of Terra del Fuego, although never visited by European navigators, but in the summer months, is described as among the most dreary and desolate spots of the habitable earth, and the few inhabitants upon it, as the most miserable and destitute of the human race. The sufferings which Sir Joseph Banks, Dr. Solander, and their company, endured, when embarked with Captain Cook, on this coast, near Strait le Maire, in the height of summer in that hemisphere, prove the changeableness of the weather and severity of the cold.

7. Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander, were desirous of availing themselves of a fine day, which in that climate is very rare, even at that time of year, to explore a country which had never been visited by any botanist. For this purpose, they went on shore early in the morning, being twelve in company. They presently found great and unexpected impediments in their progress, by deep swamps and thick underwood, so that they were till three o'clock in the afternoon employed in ascending a mountain.

8. Suddenly the air, which had been till then serene and mild, became cold and piercing, and snow began to fall; notwithstanding which they proceeded, in expectation of reaching the rocky part of the hill, which lay before them at a small distance. This perseverance was rewarded by finding a great variety of plants entirely unknown to botanists; the day, however, was now so far spent, that it was impossible to return to the ship that night.

9. The cold had by this become very intense, and large quantities of snow had fallen, so that the most dreary prospect presented itself. Whilst they were proceeding in search of the nearest valley, Dr. Solander, who was well acquainted with the effects of intense cold, having passed over the mountains that divide Sweden and Norway, represented to the company the necessity they were under of continuing in motion, however they might feel themselves attacked by lassitude and sluggishness; he assured them that whoever sat down would sleep, and whoever slept would wake no more.

10. They had not proceeded far before the effects apprehended began to be felt, and he who had thus cautioned others, was the first to declare himself unable to observe his own precept; at length, overcome by a stupor, he threw himself on the ground, although it was covered with snow. A black servant of Mr. Banks, named Richmond, next yielded to this fatal propensity.

11. In this distress, five of the company were sent forward to make a fire at the first convenient place they could find, while the rest continued with the doctor, making use of every means to keep him awake. The poor negro was so overcome with fatigue, that being told he must keep in motion or be frozen to death, replied, that he desired only to lay down and die. At length all the

endeavours of the company were ineffectual ; their whole strength was not sufficient to carry their two exhausted companions, so that they were suffered to sit down, and in a short time fell into a sound sleep.

12. In a few minutes after news was brought that a fire was kindled at the distance of about a quarter of a mile. Dr. Solander was then waked with great difficulty ; but during his short sleep, his muscles were so contracted that his shoes fell from his feet, and he had almost lost the use of his limbs ; but all attempts to wake the servant were ineffectual ; two men, who had suffered the least by the cold, were left to look after him, and in a short time two others were sent to their relief ; one of the former rejoined the company, but the other was quite insensible ; their companions therefore made them a bed of boughs, and spread the same covering over them to a considerable height, and in this situation left them.

13. The company passed the remainder of the night in a dreadful situation round the fire, supposing themselves at a great distance from the ship, their way lying through a trackless wood, and they unprovided with refreshments, their only provisions being a vulture which they had shot in their journey. Nor did the dawn of day remove their apprehensions ; for at the approach of day nothing presented itself to view but a dreary expanse of snow.

14. It was not till six o'clock in the morning that they could discover the place of the sun through the clouds, which then began somewhat to disperse. With foreboding apprehensions they went in search of poor Richmond and the other man whom they found quite dead ; a dog which belonged to one of them was found alive standing close by his master's corpse, which he unwillingly left to follow the company.

15. The hardy nature of this animal enabled him to brave the severity of the weather, and he was some years ago alive in England. About eight o'clock the snow began to melt, and the company determined upon setting forward. Their hunger by this time was become outrageous ; having therefore skinned their vulture, they divided it into ten parts, every man dressing his own share for himself.

16. This scanty meal, which only furnished each per-

son with a few mouthfuls, being finished, they quitted their fireside about ten o'clock, and no less unexpectedly than joyfully reached the beach, where the ship lay, in about three hours; for upon tracing their advances towards the hill the day before, they found that instead of ascending it in a direct line, they had gone almost round it.

Note. Patagonia in South America, comprehends the whole extent from Chili and Paraguay to the extreme south of the continent.

Questions.

Where are the islands of Terra del Fuego situated?

Why were they so named?

What is the climate?

Do they abound in animals?

On what do the inhabitants principally subsist?

How are they clothed?

Where is Juan Fernandes?

Where is Patagonia?

Of what extent?

ANECDOTES OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

1. A PRINCE, who is his own minister, and the only depository of his secrets, commonly leaves an arduous task for the labour of his successor. This difficulty presented itself to Alexander, upon his ascending the throne of Macedonia; nor was this the only circumstance which rendered his situation arduous. Other competitors arose to share with him the government of the kingdom; but having crushed these dangerous enemies, he hastened into Greece to reap the fruits of his father's labours.

2. During his stay at Corinth, curiosity led him to visit Diogenes, the cynic. He found him basking in the sun, and having revealed himself to the philosopher, as the master of Macedon and Greece, inquired if he could do any thing to oblige him. "Yes" replied the philosopher, "by standing from between me and the sun." Upon which the king observed to his attendants, that if he were not

Alexander, he would choose to be Diogenes. The cynic, however, found in his tub that independence of mind; which the monarch, amidst all his gratifications, could never attain.

3. Before leaving Caira, where his impatient activity had been so long detained, he committed the administration of that district to Ada, its ancient governess. The Persian monarch had unjustly deposed her from her authority; when, therefore, Alexander appeared in that province, Ada requested his assistance; and the king having given her command of the whole district left three thousand foot and two hundred horse to support her authority.

4. It is said that Ada would have sent to Alexander meats dressed in the most exquisite manner, and the most excellent cooks; but the king told the queen, on this occasion that he had much better cooks himself, whom his governor Leonidas procured him; one of them prepared him a good dinner, and the other an excellent supper, and these were Temperance and Exercise. On the third day of the voyage down the Indus to the Ocean, he received information, that the Oxydracians and Mallians were raising forces to oppose him.

5. He therefore landed, and marched his forces through a desert country against the latter people. The barbarians were driven from the plain; their cities were successively besieged and taken; but at the storm of their capital, a scene was transacted which indicated the temerity and folly of this celebrated general. The enemy having obtained possession of the streets of the city, the Mallians were compelled to betake themselves to the citadel.

6. The fortress was defended by a thick wall, which was extremely lofty without, but towards the inner circumference of an inconsiderable height. The king immediately gave orders to scale the walls, and the soldiers began to execute his commands; but Alexander, impatient of delay, seized a ladder, and placing it against the battlement, mounted himself. The Macedonians, alarmed by the danger of their king followed in such numbers, that the ladder broke as Alexander reached the summit.

7. Several other ladders were also broken. The king by these accidents was left for some moments to contend singly with the enemy. He killed several with his sword,

and pushed others over the walls ; but the Indians from the adjacent towers galled him with their arrows. Perceiving that only three Macedonians had followed him, he threw himself, therefore, into the citadel ; and Peucestas, Leonatus, and Abreas followed his example.

8. Immediately they were attacked by the enemy : the king was shot in the breast with an arrow, and at length fell senseless upon his shield. The Macedonians had now burst through the gates of the place, and their first care was to carry off the king. They then prepared to revenge his death, for they had every reason to believe that the wound he had received was mortal. The weapon is said to have been extracted by Perdicas, one of Alexander's life guards, who by the command of his master, opened the wound with his sword.

9. The king's immediate dissolution was threatened by the great effusion of blood that followed. A swooning, however, retarded the circulation of the fluids, stopped the discharge of blood and saved his life. As soon as his health would permit, the king shewed himself to his soldiers, who testified immoderate joy at his recovery. Some of the principal officers of the army, however, ventured to remonstrate with him on the imprudence of his conduct ; but Alexander could no longer endure truth.

Note. Macedonia was a province of Turkey in Europe, bounded on the north by Servia, east by Romania, and the Archipelago, south by Livadia and west by Albania. Salonichi, in 40° north latitude, is the capital.—Corinth, now called Gorame, was a celebrated city in the Morea, at present much decayed. It is 40 miles north west of Athens, in 38° north latitude.—The Indus is a great river of Hindoostan, which descends from the Tartarian mountains and falls into the Arabian Sea, north west of the gulf of Cutch.

Questions.

Where was Macedonia ?

In what latitude ?

What is the capital ?

Where is Corinth or Gorame ?

What is the present state of Corinth ?

Where is the river Indus?
 What is its extent?
 Into what sea does it discharge its waters?



THE COBBLER.—*Anonymous.*

YOUR sage and moralist can shew,
 Many misfortunes here below,
 A truth which no one ever miss'd
 Tho' neither sage nor moralist;
 Yet, all the troubles, notwithstanding,
 Which fate or fortitude has hand in,
 Fools to themselves will more create,
 In spite of fortune or of fate.
 Thus oft are dreaming wretches seen
 Tortured with vapours, and with spleen,
 Transformed (at least in their own eyes)
 To glass, or china, or goose pies.
 Others will to themselves appear
 Stone dead as WILL the conqueror,
 And all the world in vain might strive,
 To face them down that they're alive.
 Imaginary evils flow,
 Merely for want of real woe;
 And when prevailing whimsies rise,
 As monstrous wild absurdities,
 Are every hour and every minute
 Found without bedlam, as within it;
 Which if you further would have shown,
 And leisure have to read—read on.
 There lived a gentleman, possess'd
 Of all that mortals reckon best;
 A seat well chose in wholesome air,
 With gardens and with prospects fair;
 His land from debt and jointure free,
 His money never in South Sea;
 His health of body firm and good,
 Tho' pass'd the heyday of his blood;
 His consort fair, and good, and kind;
 His children rising to his mind;
 His friends ingenuous and sincere;

His honour, nay his conscience clear.
 He wanted nought of human bliss,
 But power to taste his happiness.

Too near alas! this great man's hall,
 A merry cobbler had a stall ;
 An arch old wag as e'er you knew,
 With breeches red, and jerkin blue ;
 Cheerful at working, as at play,
 He sung and whistled life away ;
 When rising morning glads the sky,
 Clear as the merry lark, and high ;
 When evening shades the landscape veil,
 Late warbling as the nightingale,
 Tho' pence came slow and trade was ill,
 Yet still he sung and whistled still ;
 Tho' patch'd his garb and coarse his fare,
 He laughed and cast away old care.

The rich man viewed with discontent,
 His tatter'd neighbour's merriment.
 With envy grudg'd, and pin'd to see
 A beggar pleasanter than he :
 And, by degrees, to hate began
 Th' intolerable happy man,
 Who haunted him, like any spright,
 From morn to eve, both day and night.
 It chanc'd when once in bed he lay,
 When dreams are true, at break of day,
 He heard the cobbler at his sport,
 Amidst his music stopping short :
 Whether his morning draught he took,
 Or warming whiff of wonted smoke,
 The 'squire suspected, being shrewd,
 This silence boded him no good ;
 And 'cause he nothing saw nor heard,
 A Machiavilian plot he fear'd.
 Straight circumstances crowded plain
 To vex and plague his jealous brain ;
 Trembling in panic dread he lies,
 With gaping mouth and straining eyes ;
 And straining wishful both his ears, }
 He soon persuades himself he hears }
 One skip and caper up the stairs, }
 Sees the door open quick, and knew

His dreaded foe in red and blue.
 Who with a running jump, he thought,
 Leap'd plum directly down his throat,
 Laden with tackle of his stall,
 Last, end, and hammer, strap and awl :
 No sooner down than with a jerk,
 He fell to music and to work.
 If much he griev'd our Don before,
 When but o' th' outside of his door,
 How sorely must he now molest
 When got o' th' inside of his breast :
 The waking dreamer groans and swells
 And pangs imaginary feels ;
 He feels him when he draws his breath,
 Or tug the leather with his teeth,
 Or beat the sole, or else extend,
 His arms to th' utmost of his end :
 Enough to crack when stretch'd so wide
 The ribs of any mortal side.
 Is there no method then to fly
 This vile intestine enemy ?
 What can be done in this condition,
 But sending for a good physician ?
 The doctor, having heard the case,
 Burst into laughter in his face ;
 'Told him he need no more than rise,
 Open his windows, and his eyes,
 Whistling and stitching there to see,
 'The cobbler as he us'd to be.
 Sir,—quoth the patient, your pretences
 Shall ne'er persuade me from my senses :
 How should I rise ? the heavy brute
 Will hardly let me wag a foot :
 Though seeing for belief may go,
 Yet feeling is the truth you know :
 I feel him in my sides, you fop :
 Had you a cobbler in your crop,
 You scarce would flee, as now you do,
 I think your sides would grumble too :
 Still do you laugh ? I tell you, Sir,
 I'd kick you soundly could I stir ;
 Thou Quack, thou never hadst degree
 In either University ;

Thou mere licentiate, without knowledge,
 The shame and scandal of the college;
 I'll call my servants, if you stay;
 So, doctor, scamper while you may.
 One thus dispatch'd, a second came,
 Of equal skill and greater fame;
 Who deem'd him mad as a March hare,
 (For doctors will their thoughts declare.)
 To drive such whimsies from his pate,
 He dragg'd him to the window straight.
 But jilting fortune can devise
 To baffle and outwit the wise;
 The Cobbler e'er expos'd to view,
 Had just pull'd off his jerkin blue,
 Not dreaming 'twould his neighbour hurt,
 To sit in *Fresco* in his shirt,
 Ah! quoth the patient, with a sigh,
 You know him not so well as I;
 The man who down my throat has run,
 Has got a true blue jerkin on.
 In vain the doctor rav'd and tore,
 Argued and fretted, stamp'd the floor;
 Told him he might believe as well
 The giant of Pantagruel
 Did as oft break his fast or sup,
 For poach'd eggs swallow windmills up;
 Or that a man could drink the ocean,
 As quick as patients take a potion.
 The vapor'd dotard grave and sly,
 Mistook for truth each monstrous lie,
 And drew conclusions such as these.
 Resistless from the premises.

I hope, my friends, you'll grant me all,
 A windmill's bigger than a stall;
 And since a man did drink the sea up,
 As easily as maids sip tea up,
 Why should you then still doubt my story,
 With all these stubborn facts before you.
 Thus ev'ry thing his friends could say,
 The more confirm'd him in his way;
 Further convinc'd by what they tell,
 'Twas certain though impossible.

Now worse and worse his piteous state

Was grown, and almost desperate ;
 Yet still the utmost bent to try,
 Without more help he would not die.
 An old physician sly and shrewd,
 With management of face endued,
 Heard all his tale ; and ask'd with care,
 How long the cobbler had been there ?
 Noted distinctly what he said,
 Rais'd up his eyes and shook his head,
 And grave accosts him, on this fashion,
 After mature deliberation,
 With serious and important face,
 Sir, yours is an uncommon case ;
 Tho' I've read Galen's Latin o'er,
 I never met with it before ;
 Nor have I found the like disease
 In stories of Hippocrates.
 Then, after a convenient stay—
 —Sir, if prescription you'll obey,
 My life for yours, I'll set you free
 From this same two legg'd tympany.
 'Tis true, you're gone beyond the cure
 Of fam'd worm powder of John Moore ;
 But then you know your throat is wide,
 And scarcely clos'd since it was tried ;
 The same way he got in, 'tis plain,
 There's room to bring him back again ;
 I'll bring the forked worm away
 Without a Dysenteria ;
 Emetics strong will do the feat
 If taken *quantum sufficit* ;
 I'll see myself the proper dose,
 And then narcotics to compose.
 The wretch, though languishing and weak,
 Reviv'd already by the Greek,
 Cries, what so learn'd a man as you
 Prescribes, dear doctor, that I'll do.
 The vomit speedily was got,
 The cobbler sent for to the spot,
 And taught to manage the deceit
 And not his doublet to forget.

But first the operator wise,
 Over the sight a bandage ties,
 For vomits always strain the eyes. }
 Courage ! I'll make you disenbogue,
 Spite of his teeth, th' unlucky rogue ;
 I'll drench the rascal, never fear,
 And bring him up or drown him there.
 Warm water down he makes him pour,
 Till his stretch'd sides could hold no more ;
 Which doubly swoln as you may think,
 Both with the cobbler and the drink,
 What they receiv'd against the grain,
 Was paid with int'rest back again.
 Here come his tools, he can't be long,
 Without his hammer and his thong.
 The cobbler humour'd what was spoke,
 And gravely carried on the joke :
 As he heard nam'd each single matter,
 He chuck'd it souse into the water :
 And then not to be seen as yet,
 Behind the door made his retreat.
 'The sick man now takes breath a while,
 Strength to recruit for further toil :
 Unblinded, he with joyful eyes,
 'The tackle floating there espies,
 Fully convinc'd within his mind
 'The cobbler could not stay behind,
 Who to the alehouse still would go,
 Whene'er he wanted work to do :
 Nor could he like his present place,
 He ne'er lov'd water in his days.
 At length he takes another bout,
 Enough to turn him inside out ;
 With vehemence so sore he strains,
 As would have split another's brains,
 Ah ! here he comes with bristled hair ;
 And truth it was, for he was there,
 And, like a rude, ill manner'd clown,
 Kick'd with his foot the vomit down.
 'The patient now grown wond'rous light
 Whipp'd off the napkin from his sight,
 Briskly rais'd up his head, and knew
 'The Breeches red, the Jerkin blue ;

And smil'd to hear him grumbling say,
 As down the stairs he run his way,
 He'd ne'er set foot within his door,
 And jump down open throats no more ;
 No ; while he liv'd he'd ne'er again
 Run, like a fox, down the red lane.

Our patient thus, his inmate gone,
 Cur'd of the crotchets in his crown,
 Joyful his gratitude expresses,
 With thousand thanks, and hundred pieces ;
 And thus with much of pain and cost,
 Regain'd the health he never lost.

BATTLE OF PHARSALIA AND DEATH OF POMPEY.

1. POMPEY'S officers, being much elated with their late victory, were continually soliciting their general to bring them to battle ; they presumed to tax the purity of their leader's motives for procrastination. Confident of victory, they divided all the places in government among each other, and portioned out the lands of those whom, in imagination, they had already vanquished.

2. Nor did revenge less employ their thoughts, than avarice and ambition. The proscription was actually drawn up, not for the condemnation of individuals, but of whole ranks of the enemy ; it was even proposed, that all the senators in Pompey's army should be appointed judges over such as had either actually opposed, or, by neutrality, had failed to assist their party.

3. Pompey, thus assailed by men of weak heads and eager expectations, and incessantly teased with importunities to engage, found himself too irresolute to oppose their solicitations ; and, therefore, renouncing his own judgment, in compliance with those about him, he gave up all schemes of prudence for those dictated by avarice and passion. Advancing into Thessaly, he encamped upon the plains of Pharsalia, where he was joined by Scipio, his lieutenant, with the troops under his command.

4. There he awaited the coming up of his rival, resolved upon deciding the fate of the empire without further

delay. Caesar had for some time been sounding the inclinations of his legions, and providing for their safety in case of miscarriage; but at length, finding them resolute and unanimous, he led them towards the plains of Pharsalia, where Pompey was encamped. The approach of these two great armies, composed of the best and bravest troops in the world, together with the greatness of the prize for which they contended, filled all minds with anxiety, though with different expectations.

5. Pompey's army turned all their thoughts to the enjoyment of the victory; Caesar's, with more judgment, considered only the means of obtaining it: Pompey's army depended upon their numbers, and their different generals; Caesar's, upon their own discipline, and the conduct of their single commander; Pompey's partisans hoped much from the justice of their cause; Caesar's, alleged the frequent and unavailing proposals which they had made for peace.

6. Thus the views, hopes, and motives of both seemed different, but their animosity and ambition were the same. Caesar, who was generally foremost in offering battle, led out his army in array to meet the enemy; but Pompey, either suspecting his troops, or dreading the event, still kept his advantageous situation. Caesar, being unwilling to make an attack at a disadvantage, resolved to decamp the next day, in expectation, that as his enemy would not fail of following him, he might find some happier opportunity of coming to an engagement.

7. Accordingly, the order for march was given, and the tents struck, when intelligence was brought him that Pompey's army had quitted their entrenchments, and had advanced farther into the plain than usual. This was the juncture that Caesar had long wished for in vain, and tried to hasten: whereupon causing his troops, that were upon the march, to halt, with a countenance of joy he informed them, that the happy time was at last come, which was to crown their glory, and terminate their fatigues.

8. He then drew up his men in order, and advanced towards the place of battle. His forces, however, were much inferior to those of Pompey, whose army amounted to 45,000 foot, and 7,000 horse. This disproportion, particularly in cavalry, had filled the latter with some degree of apprehension; wherefore, he had some time before

picked out the strongest and ablest of his soldiers, and accustomed them to fight between the ranks of his cavalry, in order to supply the deficiency of their numbers.

9. Pompey on the other hand, was too confident of success; he boasted in council, that he could put Caesar's legions to flight, without striking a single blow, presuming, that as soon as the armies formed, his cavalry, on whom he chiefly relied, would out flank and surround the enemy. Labienus commended this scheme of Pompey; and to increase the confidence of the army still more, he took an oath, in which the rest followed him, never to return to the camp but with victory.

10. In this disposition, and under these advantageous impressions, the troops were led to battle. Pompey drew up his men with skill and judgment; in the centre, and on the flanks, he placed all his veterans and distributed his new raised troops between the wings and the main body. The Syrian legions were placed in the centre, under the command of Scipio; the Spaniards, on whom he greatly relied, were on the right, under Domitius Aenobarbus; and on the left, were stationed the two legions, which Caesar had restored in the beginning of the war, led on by Pompey himself; because from thence he intended to make the principal attack; and for the same reason he had assembled there all his horse, slingers and archers, of whom his right wing, being covered by the river Enipeus, stood in no need.

11. Caesar likewise divided his army into three bodies, under three commanders; Domitius Calvinus being placed in the centre, and Mark Anthony on the left, while he led on the right wing, which was to oppose the left commanded by Pompey. As he observed the enemy's numerous cavalry all drawn to one spot, he guessed at Pompey's intention; to obviate which, he made a draft of six cohorts from his rear line, and formed them into a separate body.

12. They were then concealed behind his right wing, with instructions not to throw their javelins at a distance, but to keep them in their hands, and to push them directly into the faces and eyes of the horsemen, who being composed of the younger part of the Roman nobility, valued themselves upon their beauty, and dreaded a scar in the face more than a wound in the body.

13. He, lastly, placed his small body of cavalry so as to cover the right of his favourite tenth legion, ordering his right line not to march till they had received the signal from him. And now, the fate of the empire of Rome was to be decided by the greatest generals, the bravest officers, and the most expert troops, that the world had ever seen. Almost every private man in both armies, was capable of performing the duty of a commander, and each seemed inspired with a resolution to conquer or die.

14. As the armies approached, the two generals went from rank to rank encouraging their men, raising their hopes, and obviating their doubts. Pompey represented to his men, that the glorious occasion which they had earnestly solicited him to grant, was now before them; "and indeed," cried he, "what advantage can you wish over an enemy, that you are not now possessed of?"

15. "Your numbers, your vigour, a late victory. all assure a speedy and easy conquest over those harrassed and broken troops, composed of men worn out with age, and imprest with the terrors of a recent defeat; but there is still a stronger bulwark for our protection than the superiority of our strength—the justice of our cause. You are engaged in the defence of liberty and of your country:

16. "You are supported by its laws and followed by its magistrates: You have the world, spectators of your conduct, and wishing you success: on the contrary, he whom you oppose, is a robber and a traitor to his country, and almost already sunk with the consciousness of his crimes, as well as the bad success of his arms. Show, then, on this occasion, all that ardour and detestation of tyranny that should animate Romans, and do justice to mankind."

17. Caesar, for his part, exhibited to his men that steady serenity for which he was so much admired in the midst of danger. He insisted on nothing so strongly to his soldiers, as his frequent and unsuccessful endeavours for peace. He talked with horror of the blood he was about to shed, and plead only the necessity that urged him to the deed. He deplored the many brave men that were to fall on both sides, and the wounds of his country, whoever should prove victorious.

18. His soldiers answered his speech with looks of ardour and impatience, on observing which, he gave the signal to charge. The word on Pompey's side was, "Hercu-

les the invincible ;" that on Caesar's, " Venus the victorious." Pompey ordered his men to receive the first shock without moving out of their places, expecting the enemy's ranks would be thrown into confusion by their motion. Caesar's soldiers were now rushing on with their usual impetuosity, when, perceiving the enemy motionless, they stopped short, as if by general consent, and halted in midst of their career.

19. A terrible pause ensued, in which both armies continued to gaze on each other with mutual terror and dreadful serenity ; at length, Caesar's men, having taken breath, ran furiously on the enemy, first discharging their javelins, and then drawing their swords. The same method was observed by Pompey's troops, who as firmly resisted the attack. His cavalry, also, were ordered to charge at the very outset, which, with the multitude of archers and slingers, soon obliged Caesar's men to give ground, and throw themselves, as he had foreseen, upon the flank of his army.

20. Caesar immediately ordered the six cohorts, that were placed as a reinforcement, to advance ; and repeated his orders, to strike at the enemy's faces. This had the desired effect ; the cavalry, who thought themselves sure of victory, received an immediate check ; the unusual method of fighting pursued by the cohorts, their aiming entirely at the visages of the assailants, contributed to intimidate the enemy so much, that instead of defending their persons, their only endeavour was to save their faces.

21. A total rout ensued of their whole body, which flew, in great disorder to the neighbouring mountains, while the archers and slingers, who were thus abandoned, were cut to pieces. Caesar now commanded the cohorts to pursue their success, and advancing, charged Pompey's troops upon the flank ; this charge the enemy withstood for some time with great bravery, till he brought up this third line, which had not yet engaged. Pompey's infantry being thus doubly attacked in front by fresh troops, and in the rear by the victorious cohorts, could no longer resist but fled to their camps.

22. The flight began among the auxiliaries, though Pompey's right wing still valiantly maintained their ground. Caesar, however, being now certain of victory,

with his usual clemency, cried out to pursue the strangers, but to spare the Romans ; upon which they all laid down their arms and received quarter. The battle had now lasted from break of day till noon, the weather being extremely hot ; nevertheless, the conquerors did not remit their ardour, being encouraged by the example of their general, who thought his victory not complete till he was master of his opponent's camp.

23. Accordingly, marching on foot at the head of his troops, he called upon them to follow, and strike the decisive blow. The cohorts, which were left to defend the camp, for some time made a formidable resistance ; particularly a great number of Thracians and of other barbarous nations, who were appointed for its defence ; but nothing could resist the ardour of Caesar's victorious army ; the camp and trenches were at last evacuated, and the survivors escaped to the mountains.

24. Caesar, seeing the field and camp strewed with his fallen countrymen, was deeply affected at so melancholy a spectacle, and exclaimed, as if by way of justification, " They would have it so." Upon entering the enemy's camp, every object presented fresh instances of the blind presumption and madness of his adversaries ; on all sides were to be seen tents covered with ivy and branches of myrtle, couches covered with purple, and side-boards loaded with plate.

25. Every thing, in short, evinced the most refined luxury, and seemed rather preparative for a banquet, or the rejoicing for a victory, than the dispositions for a battle. Such a rich assemblage of plunder might have been able to engage the attention of any troops but Caesar's ; he, however, would not permit them to pursue any other objects than their enemies, till they were entirely subdued.

26. A considerable body of Pompey's army having rallied on the adjacent mountains, Caesar began to enclose them by a circumvallation : but they quickly abandoned a post which was not tenable for want of water, and endeavoured to reach the city of Larissa. Caesar, however, leading a part of his army by a shorter way, intercepted their retreat, and obliged these unhappy fugitives once more to seek protection from a mountain washed by a rivulet which supplied them with water.

27. The victor's troops were almost spent, and ready to faint with incessant toil since morning, yet he prevailed on them again to renew their labours, and to cut off the rivulet that supplied the fugitives; who, thus deprived of all hopes of success or subsistence, sent deputies with an offer of surrendering at discretion. During this interval of negotiation, a few senators, who were among them, took the advantage of the night to escape; and the rest, next morning, gave up their arms, and experienced the conqueror's clemency.

28. Thus Caesar, by his conduct, gained the most complete victory in the annals of history, and by his clemency after the battle, in some measure seems to have deserved it. His loss amounted only to 200 men; that of Pompey to 15000, as well Romans as Auxiliaries; 24000 men surrendered themselves prisoners of war, and the greatest part of which entered into Caesar's army.

29. As to the senators and Roman Knights who fell into his hands, he generously gave them liberty to retire wherever they pleased; and the letters which he had received from several persons who wished to become neutral, he committed to the flames without reading them, as Pompey had done on a former occasion. Thus having performed all the duties of a general and statesman, he sent for the legions which had passed the night in the camp, in order to relieve those who had followed him in the pursuit; and being determined to follow Pompey, began his march and arrived the same day at Larissa.

30. The courage and conduct for which Pompey had been so long and justly celebrated, seems wholly to have forsaken him in this trying crisis. When he saw his cavalry routed, on which he had placed his principal dependence, he appeared bereft of reason. Instead of thinking how to remedy this disorder, by rallying his flying troops, or by opposing fresh men to oppose the progress of the enemy, he returned to the camp, and in his tent awaited the issue of an event, which it was his duty to direct, not to follow.

31. There he remained for some moments without speaking, till being told the camp was attacked, "What," said he, "are we pursued to our very entrenchments?" and immediately quitting his armour for a habit more

suited to his circumstances, he fled on horseback to Larissa; from whence, perceiving he was not pursued, he slackened his pace, giving way to all the agonising reflections which the melancholy reverse of his fortune must naturally suggest.

32. In this forlorn condition he passed along the vale of Tempe, and pursuing the course of the river Peneus, at last arrived at a fisherman's hut, in which he passed the night. From thence he went on board a little bark, and keeping along the sea shore, he descried a ship of some burthen preparing to sail, in which he embarked, and landed at Amphipolis; where finding his affairs desperate, he steered to Lesbos, to take in his wife Cornelia, whom he had left there at a distance from the theatre of war.

33. She, who had long flattered herself with the hopes of victory, felt the reverse of her fortune in an agony of distress.—Being desired by the messenger, whose tears, more than words, proclaimed the greatness of her misfortunes, to hasten, if she expected to see Pompey, with but one ship, and even that not his own; her grief which before was violent, became insupportable: she fainted away, and lay a considerable time without any signs of life. At length recovering herself, and reflecting it was now no time for vain lamentations, she ran quite through the city to the sea-side.

34. Pompey received her without speaking a word, and for some time supported her in his arms in silent anguish. When they found words for their distress, Cornelia imputed to herself a part of the miseries that were come upon them, and instanced many former misfortunes of her life. Pompey endeavoured to comfort her, by representing the uncertainty of human affairs and from his present unexpected wretchedness, teaching her to hope for as unexpected a turn of good fortune.

35. In the mean time, the people of the island, who had great obligations to Pompey, gathered around, inviting them into their city. Pompey, however, declined their invitation, and even advised them to submit to the conqueror. "Be under no apprehensions," cried he, "Caesar may be my enemy, but still let me acknowledge his moderation and humanity." Cratippus, the Greek philosopher, also

came to pay his respects. Pompey, as is too frequent with the unfortunate, complained to him of Providence.

36. Cratippus wisely declined entering deeply into the argument, rather satisfied with supplying new motives to hope than combating the present impiety of his despair. Having taken in Cornelia, he continued his course, steering to the south east; and after touching a few ports in his way, came to Rhodes, where he met with an inhospitable reception; from thence he proceeded to Atillia, where he was joined by some soldiers and ships of war.

37. However, these were nothing against the power of his rival, from the activity of whose pursuit he was in continual apprehension. His only hopes, therefore, lay in the assistance of the kings who were in his alliance, and from these only he could expect security and protection. He was himself inclined to claim the assistance of the Parthians; others proposed Juba, king of Numidia; but he was at last prevailed upon to apply to Ptolemy, king of Egypt, to whose father Pompey had been a considerable benefactor.

38. Accordingly, leaving Cilicia, he steered for the kingdom of Egypt, and when in view of the coast of that country, he sent to implore protection and safety. Ptolemy was a minor, and both he and his kingdom were under the direction of Photinius, an eunuch, and Theodotus, a master of rhetoric. Before these wretches, Pompey's request was argued;—before such mean and mercenary persons, was to be determined the fate of him, who but a few days before, had given law to kingdoms.

39. The opinions of the council were divided; gratitude and pity inclined some to receive him; while others more obdurate or timorous, were for denying him entrance into the kingdom. At length, Theodotus, with a cruel policy, maintained that both proposals were equally dangerous; that to admit him, was to make Pompey their master, which would draw on them Caesar's resentment; and that, by not receiving him, they offended the one, without obliging the other.

40. In his opinion, the only expedient left was to permit him to land, and then to kill him; this would at once oblige Caesar, and rid them of all apprehensions from Pompey's resentment; "for" concluded he, with a vulgar and malicious joke, "dead dogs can never bite." This

advice prevailing, Achilles, commander of the forces and Septimius, by birth a Roman, and who had formerly been a centurion in Pompey's army, were appointed to carry it into execution.

41. Accordingly, being attended by three or four more, they went into a little bark, and rowed towards Pompey's ship, which lay about a mile from the shore. When Pompey and his friends saw the boat moving from the shore, they began to wonder at the meanness of the preparations to receive them, and some even ventured to suspect the intentions of the Egyptian court. But before any thing could be determined, Achilles had reached the ship's side, and in the Greek language welcomed him to Egypt.

42. He then invited him into the boat, alleging, that the shallows prevented larger vessels from coming to receive him. Pompey, after having taken an affectionate leave of Cornelia, repeating two verses of Sophocles, which import, "that he who trusts his freedom to a tyrant, from that moment becomes a slave," gave his hand to Achilles, and stepped into the bark, with only two attendants of his own.

43. They had now rowed from the ship a considerable distance, and as during that time they all kept a profound silence, Pompey, willing to begin the discourse, accosted Septimius, whose face he recollected. "Methinks, friend," said he, "that you and I were once fellow soldiers together." Septimius gave only a nod with his head, without uttering a word, or instancing the least civility. Pompey, therefore, took out a paper, on which he had minuted a speech he intended to make to the king, and began reading it.

44. In this manner they approached the shore; and Cornelia, whose concern had not suffered her to lose sight of her husband, began to conceive hope, when she perceived the people on the strand crowding down along the coasts, as if anxious to receive him. But her hopes were soon destroyed; for that instant, as Pompey rose, supporting himself upon his freedman's arm, Septimius stabbed him in the back, and was instantly seconded by Achilles.

45. Pompey, perceiving his death inevitable, disposed himself to meet it with decency, and, covering his face

with his robe, in silence resigned himself to his fate. At this horrid sight, Cornelia shrieked so loud as to be heard on shore; but the danger she was in did not allow the mariners time to look on; they immediately set sail, and the wind proving favourable, they fortunately escaped the pursuit of the Egyptian galleys.

46. Pompey's murderers having cut off his head caused it to be embalmed, the better to preserve its features, designing it for a present to Caesar. The body was thrown naked on the strand, and abandoned to every insult. However, his faithful freedman Philip, watched it with a fond attachment, and when the crowd was dispersed, he washed it in the sea, and perceiving the wreck of a fishing boat, he composed a pile to burn it.

47. While thus piously employed, he was accosted by an old Roman soldier, who had served under Pompey in his youth; "Who art thou," said he, that art making these humble preparations for Pompey's funeral?" Philip having answered that he was one of his freedmen, "Alas," replied the soldier, "permit me to share in this honour: among all the miseries of my exile, it will be my last sad comfort, that I have been able to assist at the funeral of my old commander, and touch the body of the bravest general that ever Rome produced."

48. They now joined in giving the corpse the last rites, and collecting the ashes, buried them under a little rising earth, scraped together with their hands, over which was afterwards placed the following inscription: "He, whose merits deserve a temple, can now scarce find a tomb."

49. *Note.* Thessaly, now called Janna or Janno, is a territory of Macedonia, in European Turkey.—Syria, or Suristan, is a province of Turkey in Asia; its capital is Damascus.—Numidia, an ancient kingdom of Africa, is on the south coast of the Mediterranean, opposite the island of Sardinia, in a medium latitude of 36° north.

50. Caesar was descended (if we may credit the account of the ancient writers) from Julius, the son of Æneas. When he reached his 15th year, he lost his father, and the year after he was made a priest of Jupiter. Sylla was aware of his ambition, and endeavoured to remove him; but Caesar understood his intentions, and to avoid discovery, changed every day his lodgings. He

was received into Sylla's friendship some time after ; and the dictator told those who solicited the advancement of young Caesar, that they were warm in the interest of a man, who would prove, some day or other, the ruin of their country and of their liberty.

51. When Caesar went to finish his studies at Rhodes, under Apollonius Molo, he was seized by pirates, who offered him his liberty for thirty talents. He gave them forty, and threatened to revenge their insults ; and he was no sooner out of their power, than he armed a ship, pursued them, and crucified them all. His eloquence procured him friends at Rome ; and the generous manner in which he lived, equally served to promote his interest.

52. He obtained the office of high priest at the death of Metellus ; and after he had passed through the inferior employments of the state, he was appointed over Spain, where he signalized himself by his valour and intrigues. At his return to Rome, he was made consul, and soon after he effected a reconciliation between Crassus and Pompey. He was appointed for the space of five years over the Gauls, by the interest of Pompey, to whom he had given his daughter Julia in marriage.

53. Here he enlarged the boundaries of the Roman empire by conquest, and invaded Britain, which was then unknown to the Roman people. He checked the Germans, and soon after had his government over Gaul prolonged to five other years, by means of his friends at Rome. The death of Julia and of Crassus, the corrupted state of the Roman senate, and the ambition of Caesar and Pompey, soon became the causes of a civil war.

54. Neither of these celebrated Romans would suffer a superior, and the smallest matters were sufficient ground for unsheathing the sword. Caesar's petitions were received with coldness or indifference by the senate ; and by the influence of Pompey, a decree was passed to strip him of his power. Anthony who approved it as tribune, fled to Caesar's camp with the news ; and the ambitious general no sooner heard this, than he made it a plea of resistance.

55. On pretence of avenging the violence which had been offered to the sacred office of tribune in the person of Anthony, he crossed the Rubicon, which was the boundary of his province. The passage of the Rubicon was a

declaration of war, and Caesar entered Italy, sword in hand. Upon this Pompey, and all the friends of liberty, left Rome, and retired to Dyrrachium; and Caesar after he had subdued all Italy in 60 days, entered Rome, and provided himself with money from the public treasury.

56. He went to Spain, where he conquered the partizans of Pompey, under Africanus and Varro; and, on his return to Rome, was declared dictator, and soon after consul. He engaged and totally defeated the army of Pompey, 48 years before Christ; four years after which, in the fifty sixth year of his age, he was assassinated in the senate house.

Questions.

Where is Thessaly, or Janna?

Where is Syria, or Suristan?

What is its capital?

Where is Numidea?

In what latitude?

What island lies opposite Numidea?



BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH OF HANNIBAL.

—Kingston.

1. HANNIBAL, a celebrated Carthaginian general, was son of Amilcar. He was educated in his father's camp, and inured from his early years to the labours of the field. He passed into Spain when nine years old, and, at the request of his father, took a solemn oath he never would be at peace with the Romans.

2. After his father's death he was appointed over the cavalry in Spain; and some time after upon the death of Asdrubal, he was invested with the command of all the armies of Carthage, though yet in the 24th year of his age. In three years of continual success, he subdued all the nations of Spain which opposed the Carthaginian power, and took Saguntum after a siege of eight months.

3. The city was in alliance with the Romans, and its fall was the cause of the second Punic war, which Hannibal prepared to support with all the courage and pru-

dence of a consummate general. He levied three large armies, one of which he sent to Africa, he left another in Spain, and marched at the head of the third towards Italy. The number of his army has been variously stated; undoubtedly it was very large.

4. He came to the Alps which were deemed almost inaccessible and had never been passed over before him except by Hercules, and after much trouble gained the top in nine days. He conquered the uncivilized inhabitants that opposed his passage, and after the amazing loss of 30,000 men, made his way so easy by softening the rocks with fire and vinegar, that even his armed elephants descended the mountains without danger or difficulty, where a man disencumbered of his arms could not walk before in safety.

5. He was opposed by the Romans as soon as he entered Italy; and after he had defeated Scipio and Sempronius, near the Rhone, the Po, and the Trebia, he crossed the Appenines and invaded Etruria. He defeated the army of the consul Flaminius, and soon after met the two consuls Terentius and Aemilius at Cannæ. His army consisted of 40,000 foot and 10,000 horse, when he engaged the Romans at the celebrated battle of Cannæ.

6. The slaughter was so great, that no less than 40,000 Romans were killed, and the conqueror made a bridge of the dead bodies; and as a sign of his victory, he sent to Carthage three bushels of gold rings which had been taken from 5630 Roman knights slain in the battle. Had Hannibal, immediately after the battle, marched his army to the gates of Rome, it must have yielded amidst the general consternation, if we believe the opinions of some writers; but his delay gave the enemy spirit and boldness.

7. When at last he approached the walls, he was informed that the piece of ground on which his army then stood, was selling at a high price in the Roman forum. After hovering for some time round the city he retired to Capua, where the Carthaginian soldiers soon forgot to conquer, in the pleasures and riots of this city. From that circumstance it has been said, and with propriety, that Capua was a Cannæ to Hannibal.

8. After the battle of Cannæ, the Romans became

more cautious, and when the dictator Fabius Maximus had defied the artifice as well as the valour of Hannibal, they began to look for better times. Marcellus, who succeeded Fabius in the field, first taught the Romans that Hannibal was not invincible. After many important debates in the senate, it was decreed that war should be carried into Africa, to remove Hannibal from the gates of Rome; and Scipio who was the first proposer of the plan, was empowered to put it into execution.

9. When Carthage saw the enemy on her coasts, she recalled Hannibal from Italy; and that great general is said to have left with tears in his eyes, a country, which during sixteen years he had kept under continual alarms, and which he could almost call his own. He and Scipio met near Carthage, and after a parley, in which neither could give the preference to his enemy, they determined to come to a general engagement.

10. The battle was fought near Zama; Scipio made a great slaughter of the enemy; 20,000 were killed, and the same number made prisoners. Hannibal, after he had lost the day, fled to Adrumetum. Soon after this decisive battle the Romans granted peace to Carthage, on hard conditions; and afterwards Hannibal, who was jealous and apprehensive of the Roman power, fled to Syria to king Antiochus, whom he advised to make war against Rome, and lead an army into the heart of Italy.

11. Antiochus distrusted the fidelity of Hannibal, and was captured by the Romans, who granted him peace on condition of his delivering their mortal enemy into their hands. Hannibal, who was apprised of this, left the court of Antiochus, and fled to Prusias, king of Bythia. He encouraged him to declare war against Rome, and even assisted him in weakening the power of Eumenes, king of Pergamus, who was in alliance with the Romans.

12. The senate received intelligence that Hannibal was in Bythia, and immediately sent ambassadors, among whom was Flaminius, to demand him of Prusias. The king was unwilling to betray Hannibal, and violate the laws of hospitality, but at the same time he dreaded the power of Rome. Hannibal extricated him from his embarrassment, and when he heard that his house was besieged on every side, and all means of escape fruitless,

he took a dose of poison, which he always carried with him in a ring on his finger; which caused his death, 182 years before Christ, in the 70th year of his age.

Note. Scipio was a renowned Roman general eminent for his purity of character and generous behaviour to prisoners.—Carthage was a famous city of antiquity; the ruins of which are to be seen on the coast of the Mediterranean, ten miles north east of Tunis, in 37° north latitude.

Questions.

For what was Scipio eminent?

Where was ancient Carthage?

In what direction from Tunis?

In what latitude?

When was Carthage destroyed? } See siege of Carthage.

By whom?

ON THE ETERNITY OF THE SUPREME BEING.

—*Smart.*

HAIL, wondrous Being, who in power supreme
 Exists from everlasting! whose great name
 Deep in the human heart, and every atom
 The earth, or air, or azure main contains,
 In undecypher'd characters is wrote—
Incomprehensible!—O what can words,
 The weak interpreters of mortal thoughts
 Or what can thoughts (though void of wing they rove
 Through the vast concave of the etherial round)
 If to the Heav'n of Heav'ns they wing their way
 Advent'rous, like the birds of night they're lost,
 And deluged in the flood of dazzling day.

May then the youthful, uninspired bard
 Presume to hymn th' Eternal? may he soar
 Where Seraph and where Cherubim on high
 Resound the unceasing plaudits, and with them
 In the grand chorus mix his feeble voice?

He may—if thou, who from the witless babe

Ordainest honour, glory, strength, and praise,
Uplift the unpinioned muse, and deign'st to assist,
Great Poet of the universe! his song.

Before this earthly planet wound her course
Round light's perennial fountain; before light
Herself 'gan shine, and at the inspiring word
Shot to existence in a blaze of day;
Before "the Morning Stars together sang,"
And hailed Thee, Architect of countless worlds
Thou art—All glorious, All beneficent,
All wisdom and omnipotence Thou art.

But is the era of creation fix'd
At when these worlds began? could aught retard
Goodness, that knows no bounds from blessing ever
Or keep th' immense Artificer in sloth?
Avaunt the dust-directed, crawling thought,
That Puissance immeasurably vast,
And bounty inconceivable, could rest
Content, exhausted with one week of action!
No—in th' exertion of thy righteous power,
Ten thousand times more active than the sun,
Thou reign'd, and with a mighty hand compos'd
Systems innumerable, matchless all,
All stamped with thine uncounterfeited seal
But yet (if still to more stupendous heights
The muse unblamed her aching sense may strain)
Perhaps wrapt up in contemplation deep,
The best of Beings on the noblest theme
Might ruminat at leisure, scope immense!
Th' Eternal Power and Godhead to explore,
And with itself th' omniscient mind replete.
This were enough to fill the boundless All.
This were a Sabbath worthy the Supreme!
Perhaps enthron'd amidst a choicer few,
Of spirits inferior, he might greatly plan
The two prime Pillars of the Universe,
Creation and Redemption—and awhile
Pause—with the grand presentiments of glory,
Perhaps—but all's conjecture here below,
All ignorance, and self-plum'd vanity—
O Thou, whose ways to wonder at's distrust,
Whom to describe 's presumption (all we can,
And all we may,) be glorified, be prais'd.

A day shall come, when all this earth shall perish,
 Nor leave behind e'en Chaos ; it shall come,
 When all the armies of the elements
 Shall war against themselves, and mutual rage,
 To make perdition triumph ; it shall come,
 When the capacious atmosphere above
 Shall in sulphureous thunders groan and die ;
 And vanish into void ; the earth beneath
 Shall fever to the centre, and devour
 The enormous blaze of the destructive flames.
 Ye rocks that mock the raving of the floods,
 And proudly frown upon th' impatient deep,
 Where is your grandeur now ? Ye foaming waves,
 That all along th' immense Atlantic roar,
 In vain ye swell ; will a few drops suffice
 To quench the inextinguishable fire ?
 Ye mountains, on whose cloud-crown'd top the cedars
 Are lessened into shrubs, magnific piles,
 That prop the painted chambers of the heavens,
 And fix the earth continual ; Athos, where ?
 Where, Teneriffe 's thy stateliness to-day ?
 What, Ætna, are thy flames to these ? No more
 Than the poor glow-worm to the golden sun.

Nor shall the verdant vallies then remain
 Safe in their meek submission ; they the debt
 Of nature and of justice too must pay.
 Yet I must weep for you, ye rival fair,
 Arno and Andalusia ; but for thee
 More largely, and with filial tears must weep,
 O Albion ! O my country ! Thou must join,
 In vain dissever'd from the rest, must join
 The terrors of th' inevitable ruin.

Nor thou, illustrious monarch of the day ;
 Nor thou, fair queen of night ; nor you, ye stars,
 Tho' million leagues, and million still remote,
 Shall yet survive that day ; ye must submit,
 Sharers, not bright spectators of the scene.

But tho' the earth shall to the centre perish,
 Nor leave behind even Chaos ; tho' the air,
 With all the elements must pass away,
 Vain as an idiot's dream ; tho' the huge rocks,
 That brandish the tall cedars on their tops
 With humbler vales must to perdition yield,

Tho' the gilt Sun, and silver-tressed Moon,
 With all her bright retinue must be lost,
 Yet thou, Great Father of the world, surviv'st
 Eternal, as thou wert; yet still survives
 The soul of man immortal, perfect now,
 And candidate for unexpiring joys.

He comes! He comes! the awful trump I hear;
 The flaming sword's intolerable blaze
 I see! He comes! th' Archangel from above.

"Arise, ye tenants of the silent grave,

"Awake incorruptible, and arise:

"From east to west, from the Antarctic pole,

"To regions Hyperborean, all ye sons,

"Ye sons of Adam, and ye heirs of heaven—

"Arise, ye tenants of the silent grave,

"Awake incorruptible, and arise."

'Tis then, nor sooner, that the restless mind

Shall find itself at home! and like the ark,

Fix'd on the mountain top, shall look aloft

O'er the vague passage of precarious life;

And winds and waves, and rocks and tempests, past,

Enjoy the everlasting calm of heaven:

'Tis then, nor sooner, that the deathless soul

Shall justly know its nature and its rise:

'Tis then the human tongue, new tun'd, shall give

Praises more worthy the Eternal ear.

Yet what we can, we ought;—and therefore Thou,

Purge Thou my heart, Omnipotent and Good!

Purge Thou my heart, with hyssop, lest, like Cain,

I offer fruitless sacrifice, and with gifts

Offend, and not propitiate the Ador'd.

Tho' Gratitude were blest with all the powers

Her bursting heart could long for; tho' the swift,

The fiery-wing'd Imagination soar'd

Beyond Ambition's wish—yet all were vain,

To speak him as he is, who is ineffable.

Yet still let Reason, thro' the eye of Faith,

View him with fearful love; let Truth pronounce,

And Adoration on her bended knee,

With heaven-directed hands, confess his reign,

And let the angelic, archangelic band,

With all the hosts of Heaven, cherubic forms,

And forms seraphic, with their silver trump

And golden lyres attend :—" For thou art holy.
 " For Thou art one, th' Eternal, who alone
 " Exerts all goodness, and transcends all praise !"



OF MINES.

Sect. 1. Diamond mines.

1. THE high value attached to diamonds does not depend so much on their beauty and hardness, as on their great scarcity, and the labour and expense necessary in procuring them. Hitherto they have been observed in the torrid zone alone ; and Brazil is the only part of the Americas in which they have been found. The historical account of their discovery in that country is as follows. Near the capital of the territory of Serro do Frio flows the river Milho Verde, where it was the custom to dig for gold, or rather to extract it from the alluvial soil.

2. The Miners, during their search for gold, found several diamonds, which they were induced to lay aside in consequence of their particular shape and great beauty, although they were ignorant of their intrinsic value. The diamond works on the river Jigitonhonha are described by Mr. Mawe as the most important in the Brazilian territory. The river, in depth from three to nine feet, is intersected by a canal, beneath the head of which, it is stopped by an embankment of several thousand bogs of sand, its deeper parts being laid dry by chain-pumps.

3. The mud is now washed away, and the earth which contains the diamonds, dug up, and removed to a convenient place for washing. The process is as follows. A shed, consisting of upright posts, which support a thatched roof, is erected in the form of a parallelogram, in length about ninety feet, and in width forty-five. Down the middle of its area, a current of water is conveyed through a canal covered with strong planks, on which the earth is laid to the thickness of two or three feet.

4. On the other side of the area, is a flooring of planks, from twelve to fifteen feet in length, imbedded in clay, extending the whole length of the shed, and having a gentle slope from the canal. This flooring is divided into about twenty compartments, or troughs, each about three

feet wide, by means of planks placed on their edges ; and the upper end of these troughs communicate with the canal, being so formed, that water is admitted into them between two planks about an inch separate from each other.

5. Through this opening, the current falls about six inches into the trough, and may be directed to any part of it, or stopped at pleasure, by means of a small quantity of clay. Along the lower ends of the troughs, a small channel is dug, to carry off the water. On the heap of earth, at equal distances, three high chairs are placed for the overseers, who are no sooner seated, than the negroes enter the troughs, each provided with a rake of a peculiar form, and having a short handle, with which he rakes into the trough from fifty to eighty pounds weight of the earth.

6. The water being then allowed to pass in by degrees, the earth is spread abroad, and continually raked up to the head of the trough, so as to be kept in constant motion. This operation is continued for a quarter of an hour, when the water begins to run clearer : and, the earthy particles having been washed away, the gravel-like matter is raked up to the end of the trough. At length, the current flowing quite clear, the largest stones are thrown out, and afterwards those of an inferior size : the whole is then examined with great care for diamonds.

7. When a negro finds one, he immediately stands upright, and clasps his hands : he then extends them, holding the gem between the fore finger and the thumb. An overseer receives it from him, and deposits it in a bowl, suspended from the centre of the structure, and half filled with water. In this vessel, all the diamonds found in the course of the day are deposited, and at the close of the work are taken out and delivered to the principal overseer, who, after they have been weighed, registers the particulars in a book kept for that purpose.

8. When a negro is so fortunate as to find a diamond of the weight of seventeen carats and a half, the following ceremony takes place : he is crowned with a wreath of flowers, and carried in procession to the administrator, who gives him his freedom by paying his owner for it. He also receives a present of new clothes, and is permitted to work on his own account. For small stones, proportionate premiums are given : while many precautions are taken to prevent the negroes from stealing the dia-

monds, with which view they are frequently changed by the overseers, lest these precious gems should be concealed in the corners of the troughs. When a negro is suspected of swallowing a diamond, he is confined in a solitary apartment, and means taken to bring the gem to light.

9. In the East-Indies, the kingdom of Golconda, extending two hundred and sixty miles along the bay of Bengal, and having a breadth of two hundred miles from east to west, abounds in diamond mines. They are chiefly in the vicinity of the rocky hills and mountains which intersect the country, and in the whole of which, diamonds are supposed to be contained. In several of the mines, they are found scattered in the earth, within two or three fathoms of the surface, and in others, are met with in a mineral substance in the body of the rocks, forty or fifty fathoms deep.

10. The labourers having dug five or six feet into the rock, soften the stone by fire, and proceed till they find the vein, which often runs two or three furlongs under the rock. The earth being brought out, and carefully searched, affords stones of various shapes, and of a good water. This earth is of a yellowish, and sometimes of a reddish colour, frequently adhering to the diamond with so strong a crust, that the separation becomes difficult.

11. To find the diamonds, the workmen form a cistern of a kind of clay, with a small vent on one side, a little above the bottom; in this vent, they place a plug, and throwing into the cistern the earth they have dug, pour in water to dissolve it. They then break the clods, and stir the wet earth in the cistern, allowing the lighter part to be carried off in the form of mud, when the vent hole is opened to let out the water.

12. They thus continue washing until what remains in the cistern is pretty clean; and then, in the middle of the day, when the sun shines bright, carefully look over all the sand, at which practice they are so expert, that the smallest stone cannot escape them. The brightness of the sun being reflected by the diamonds, aids them in their research, which would be foiled if a cloud were to intervene.

13. The specific gravity of the diamond is to that of water, in the proportion of somewhat more than three and a half to one. It is the hardest of all precious stones, and

can only be cut and ground *by itself and its own substance*. To bring it to the perfection by which its price is so greatly augmented, the lapidary begins by rubbing several of these stones against each other, while rough, having first glued them to the ends of two wooden blocks, thick enough to be held in the hand. The powder thus rubbed off the stones, and received in a small box for the purpose, serves to grind and polish them.

14. The greatest known diamond was found in Brazil and belongs to the King of Portugal. It weighs 1680 carats; and although uncut, is estimated by Rome de l'isle at the enormous sum of two hundred and twenty-four millions sterling, which gives an estimate of nearly eighty pounds sterling for each carat, the multiplicand of the square of its whole weight being taken. The one next in magnitude and value is that purchased in 1772 by the late Empress of Russia: it weighs seven hundred and seventy-nine carats, and has been estimated at nearly five millions sterling.

15. It ought, however, to be observed, that these estimates, founded on the magnitude and brilliancy of the gems, are very different from the prices which the most princely fortunes can afford to pay for them. The diamond in question, cost about one hundred and thirty-five thousand pounds sterling; and the one called the Pitt or Regent, although it weighed one hundred and thirty-six carats only, was, on account of its greater brilliancy, purchased of a Greek merchant for one hundred thousand pounds sterling. Several other large diamonds are preserved in the cabinets of the Sovereigns and Princes of Europe.

16. The reader will not fail to be gratified by some curious particulars relative to these and the other precious gems, drawn from the valuable treatise of Mr. Mawe, on this interesting subject. In the history of the human race, there are few things which at first sight appear so remarkable, as the prodigious value which, by common consent, in all ages, and in all civilized countries, has been attached to the diamond. That a house with a large estate, the means of living, not only at ease but in splendour, should be set in competition with, and even be deemed inadequate to the purchase of a transparent crystalized stone

not half the size of a hen's egg, seems almost a kind of insanity.

17. It would, indeed, truly deserve this name, if the purchaser were to part with what the seller would acquire by such a transfer. If, for the consciousness of possessing a diamond of nearly three-quarters of an ounce weight, a country gentleman were to pay ninety thousand pounds in ready money, and an annuity of four thousand pounds besides, he would very deservedly incur some risk of a statute of lunacy; yet, not only the above sum was given, but a patent of nobility into the bargain, by the Empress Catherine of Russia, for the famous diamond of Nadir Shah.

18. In this case, however, although the seller acquired much, the purchaser did not undergo any personal privation; and, in reality, notwithstanding the costliness and high estimation of diamonds, they are not put in competition with the substantial comforts and conveniences of life. Among ornaments and luxuries, they, however, unquestionably occupy, and have ever occupied, the highest rank. Even fashion, proverbially capricious as she is, has remained steady in this, one of her earliest attachments, during, probably, three or four thousand years.

19. There must be, therefore, in the nature of things, some adequate reason for this universal consent, which becomes a curious object of inquiry. The utility of the diamond, great as it is in some respects, enters for little or nothing into the calculation of its price; at least all that portion of its value which constitutes the difference between the cost of an entire diamond and an equal weight of diamond powder, must be attributed to other causes.

20. The beauty of this gem, depending on its unrivalled lustre, is, no doubt, the circumstance which originally brought it into notice, and still continues to uphold it in the public estimation; and certainly, notwithstanding the smallness of its bulk, there is not any substance, natural or artificial, which can sustain any comparison with it in this respect.

21. The vivid and various refractions of the opal, the refreshing tints of the emerald, the singular and beautiful light which streams from the six-rayed star of the girasol, the various colours combined with high lustre, which distinguish the ruby, the sapphire, and the topaz, beauti-

ful as they are on a near inspection, are almost entirely lost to a distant beholder; whereas, the diamond, without any essential colour of its own, imbibes the pure solar ray, and then reflects it, either with undiminished intensity, too white and too vivid to be sustained for more than an instant by the most insensible eye, or decomposed by refraction into those prismatic colours which paint the rainbow, and the morning and evening clouds, combined with a brilliancy which yields, and hardly yields, to that of the meridian sun.

22. Other gems, inserted into rings and bracelets, are best seen by the wearer; and, if they attract the notice of the bystanders, divide their attention, and withdraw those regards which ought to be concentrated on the person, to the merely accessory ornaments. The diamond, on the contrary, whether blazing on the crown of state, or diffusing its starry radiance from the breast of titled merit, or "in courts of feasts and high solemnities," wreathing itself with the hair, illustrating the shape and colour of the neck, and entering ambitiously into contest with the lively lustre of those eyes that "rain influence" on all beholders, blends harmoniously with the general effect, and proclaims to the most distant ring of the surrounding crowd, the person of the monarch, of the knight, or of the beauty.

23. Another circumstance tending to enhance the value of the diamond is, that although small stones are sufficiently abundant to be within the reach of moderate expenditure, and therefore afford, to all those who are in easy circumstances, an opportunity to acquire a taste for diamonds, yet those of a larger size are, and ever have been, rather rare; and of those which are celebrated for their size and beauty, the whole number, at least in Europe, scarcely amounts to half a dozen, all of them being in the possession of sovereign princes.

24. Hence the acquisition even of a moderately large diamond, is what mere money cannot always command; and many are the favours, both political and of other kinds, for which a diamond of a large size, or of uncommon beauty, may be offered as a compensation, where its commercial price, in money, neither can be tendered, nor would be received.

25. In many circumstances also, it is a matter of no

small importance for a person to have a considerable part of his property in the most portable form possible; and in this respect, what is there that can be compared to diamonds, which possess the portability, without the risk of bills of exchange? It may further be remarked, in favour of this species of property, that it is but little liable to fluctuation, and has gone on pretty regularly increasing in value, insomuch that the price of stones of good quality is considerably higher than it was some years ago.

26. The art of cutting and polishing diamonds has a two-fold object; first to divide the natural surface of the stone in a symmetrical manner, by means of highly polished polygonal planes, and thus to bring out, to the best advantage, the wonderful refulgence of this beautiful gem; and, secondly, by cutting out such flaws as may happen to be near the surface, to remove those blemishes which materially detract from its beauty, and consequently from its value.

27. The removal of flaws is a matter of great importance, for, owing to the form in which the diamond is cut, and its high degree of refrangibility, the smallest fault is magnified, and becomes obtrusively visible in every face. For this reason also, it is by no means an easy matter, at all times, to ascertain whether a flaw is, or is not superficial; and a person with a correct and well practised eye, may often purchase to great advantage, stones which appear to be flawed quite through, but are, in fact, only superficially blemished.

28. The most esteemed, and, at the same time, nearest to the colour of the oriental ruby, is pure carmine, or blood red, of considerable intensity, forming, when well polished, a blaze of the most exquisite and unrivalled tint. It is, however, more or less pale, and mixed with blue in various proportions: hence it occurs, rose-red and reddish-white, crimson, peach blossom-red, and lilac-blue, the latter variety being named oriental amethyst.

29. It is a native of Pegu, and is said to be found in the sand of certain streams near the town of Sirian, the capital of that country: it also occurs, with sapphire, in the sands of the rivers of Ceylon. A ruby, perfect both in colour and transparency, is much less common than a good diamond, and when of the weight of three or four carats, is even more valuable than that gem. The king

of Pegu, and the monarchs of Ava and Siam, monopolize the finest rubies, in the same way as the sovereigns of India make a monopoly of diamonds. The finest ruby in the world is in possession of the first of these kings; its purity has passed into a proverb, and its worth, when compared with gold, is inestimable.

30. The Subah of the Decan, also, is in possession of a prodigiously fine one, a full inch in diameter. The princes of Europe cannot boast of any of a first rate magnitude. The oriental sapphire ranks next in value to the ruby: when perfect, its colour is a clear and bright Prussian blue, united to a high degree of transparency. The asterias, or star-stone, is a remarkable variety of this beautiful gem: it is semi transparent, with a reddish purple tinge.

Note. Brazil, a country of South America, lies between the equinoctial line and the tropic of Capricorn, being 2300 miles in length and 1500 in breadth. The air of this country, although within the torrid zone, is temperate and wholesome, and the soil is fertile.—Golconda is a country of the Decan of Hindoostan, between the lower parts of the courses of Kistna and Godavery rivers.

Bengal is a country of Hindoostan, 700 miles long and 300 broad. It consists of one vast plain of the most fertile soil, which annually renders two, and in some parts, three crops. In the latter part of July, all the lower parts of Bengal contiguous to the Ganges and Burrampooter are overflowed and present a surface of water 100 miles wide. Since 1765, Bengal has been subject to the English East India Company.

Portugal, the most western part of Europe, 310 miles in length and 150 in breadth, is bounded on the north east by Spain, and on the west and south by the Atlantic. It produces vines, oranges, lemons, almonds, figs, &c. in great plenty; and salt is made in the bay of St. Ubes and exported to various parts of the world.—Ceylon is a large island in the Indian Ocean, at the entrance of the bay of Bengal, between 6° and 10° north latitude. Its greatest length is 280 miles, and its breadth 150. Ceylon was taken from the Dutch, by the French in 1796.

Questions.

- What is the situation of Brazil ?
 Of what length and breadth ?
 Is the soil productive ?
 Where is Bengal ?
 Of what length and breadth ?
 By what rivers is Bengal enriched ?
 What is the situation and extent of Portugal ?
 What are the productions of Portugal ?
 Where is Ceylon ?
 In what latitude ?
 What is its length and breadth ?

Sect. 2. Gold and Silver Mines.

1. The mines of La Plata, so denominated on account of the abundance of silver they contain, are chiefly situated in the provinces which were strictly considered as Peruvian, before the new partition of territory in 1778; Charcas, Tucuman, and even Buenos Ayres, being then considered as dependencies of Peru. With the exception of New Spain, the upper part of the viceroyalty of La Plata is the richest country in silver which has yet been discovered, and contains innumerable mines both of that metal and of gold.

2. All its northern provinces teem with mineral opulence; and those of Laricaja and Carabaya are distinguished by the production of the latter, and still nobler metal, in its virgin state. The mountain of Potosi alone produces weekly about five thousand marks of silver, that is, from thirty to forty thousand dollars—a surprising produce, when it is considered that it has been wrought since 1545, at which time it was accidentally discovered by an Indian.

3. At the commencement, it was still more abundant, and the metal was dug up in a purer state; but it is still considered as the most sure and permanent mine. The silver is often found in shoots imbedded in the earth. Six thousand Indians are sent every eighteen months, from the provinces of the viceroyalty, to work this mine. The expedition is called *mita*; and these Indians, having been

enrolled and formed into parties, are distributed by the governour of Potosi, and receive a small daily stipend, (equal to about eighteen pence English.) until the period of their labour is completed.

4. They are thus condemned to a forced service, which is nothing less than slavery, so long as it lasts, and which the Spaniards endeavour to justify by the plea that labourers could not otherwise be procured. The mita having thus, according to them, been rendered indispensable, they observe that it is conducted with all possible humanity; which those may believe, who have never heard of the cruelties they have exercised, it may be said habitually, on the wretched-Indians, since the conquest.

5. Lumps of pure gold and silver, called *papas*, from their resemblance to the potatoe, are often found in the sands. The poor likewise occupy themselves in washing the sands of the rivers and rivulets, in order to find particles of the precious metals. To compensate for the mines which are rendered useless by the irruption of water, or other accidents, rich and new ones are daily discovered.

6. They are all found in the chains of mountains, commonly in dry and barren spots, and sometimes in the sides of the breaks in the ridges. However certain this rule may be in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, it is contradicted in that of Lima, where, at three leagues distance from the Pacific Ocean, not far from Tagna, in the province of Africa, there was discovered, not many years ago, the famous mine of Huantajaya, in a sandy plain at a distance from the mountains, of such exuberant wealth, that the pure metal was cut out with a chisel.

7. From this mine a large specimen of virgin silver is preserved in the royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid. It attracted a considerable population, although neither water nor the common conveniences for labour could be found on the spot, nor was there any pasturage for the cattle. In the mint of Potosi, about six millions of dollars are annually coined; and the mines of the viceroyalty of La Plata, taken collectively, are reckoned to yield about sixteen millions. The new viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres contains thirty gold mines, twenty-seven silver mines, and sixteen of other metals.

8. The mines of Mexico, or New Spain, have been

more celebrated for their riches than those of La Plata, notwithstanding which, they are remarkable for the poverty of the mineral they contain. A quintal, or one thousand six hundred ounces of silver ore, affords, at a medium, not more than three or four ounces of pure silver, about one third of what is yielded by the same quantity of mineral in Saxony. It is not, therefore, owing to the richness of the ore, but to its abundance, and the facility of working it, that the mines of New Spain are so much superior to those of Europe.

9. The fact of the small number of persons employed in working them, is not less contrary to the commonly received opinion on this subject. The mines of Guanaxato, infinitely richer than those of Potosi ever were, afforded from 1796 to 1803, nearly forty millions of dollars in gold and silver, or very nearly five millions of dollars annually, being somewhat less than one fourth of the whole quantity of gold and silver from New Spain; notwithstanding which, these mines, productive as they were, did not employ more than five thousand workmen of every description.

10. In Mexico, the labour of the mines is perfectly free, and better paid than any other kind of industry, a miner earning from five to five dollars and a half weekly, while the wages of the common labourer do not exceed a dollar and a half. The persons who carry the ore on their backs, from the spot where it is dug out of the mine, to that where it is collected in heaps, receive a sum equal to five English shillings for a day's work of six hours. Neither slaves, criminals, nor forced labourers, are employed in the Mexican Mines.

11. In consequence of the clumsy, imperfect, and expensive mode of clearing them from water, several of the richest of these mines have been overflowed and abandoned; while the want of method in the arrangement of the galleries, and the absence of lateral communications, add to the uncertainty, and greatly increase the expense of working them. Labour is not, as in the working of the European mines, abridged, nor the transport of materials facilitated.

12. When new works are undertaken, a due consideration is not bestowed on the preliminary arrangements; and they are always conducted on too large and expensive

a scale. More than three-fourths of the silver obtained from America is extricated from the ore by the means of quicksilver, the loss of which, in the process of amalgamation, is immense. The quantity consumed annually in New Spain alone, is about sixteen thousand quintals; and, in the whole of America, about twenty-five thousand quintals are annually expended, the cost of which, in the colonies, has been estimated at one fourth of a million sterling.

13. The greater part of this quicksilver has been lately furnished by the mine of Almaden in Spain, and that of Istria in Carniola, the celebrated quicksilver mine of Huancavelica, in Peru, having greatly fallen off in its produce since the sixteenth century, when it was highly flourishing. The prosperity of the silver mines, both in Mexico and Peru, therefore, greatly depends on the supplies of quicksilver from Spain, Germany, and Italy; for such is the abundance of the ore in those kingdoms, that the only limit to the quantity of silver obtained there, is the want of mercury for amalgamation.

14. In taking a general view of the riches of the other provinces of America, Mr. Humboldt, who has supplied these details, remarks, that in Peru, silver ore exists in as great abundance as in Mexico, the mines of Lauricocha being capable of yielding as great a produce as those of Guanaxato; but that the art of mining, and the methods of separating the silver from its ore, are still more defective than in New Spain.

15. Notwithstanding this imperfect system, the total amount of the precious metals annually furnished by America, is estimated at upwards of nine millions and a half sterling—the gold being in proportion to the silver as one to forty-six. From 1492 to 1803, the quantity of gold and silver extracted from the American mines has been equal in value to 5,706,700,000 dollars; of which immense sum, the portion brought into Europe, including the booty made by the conquerors of America, is estimated at 5,445,000,000, giving an average of seventeen million and a half of dollars yearly.

16. The annual importation being divided into six periods, appears to have been constantly augmenting, and in the following progressive ratio. From 1492 to 1500, it did not exceed 250,000 dollars. From 1500 to 1545, it

amounted to three millions of dollars. From 1545 to 1600, to eleven millions. From 1600 to 1700, to sixteen millions. From 1700 to 1750, to twenty two millions and a half. And, lastly, from 1750 to 1803, to the prodigious sum of thirty-five millions three hundred thousand dollars, nearly eight millions sterling.

17. The first period was that of exchange with the natives, or of mere rapine. The second was distinguished by the conquest and plunder of Mexico, Peru and New Granada, and by the opening of the first mines. The third began with the discovery of the rich mines of Potosi; and in the course of it, the conquest of Chili was completed, and various mines opened in New Spain. At the commencement of the fourth period the mines of Potosi began to be exhausted; but those of Lauricocha were discovered, and the produce of New Spain rose from two millions to five millions of dollars annually.

18. The fifth period began with the discovery of gold in Brazil; and the sixth is distinguished by the prodigious increase of the mines of New Spain, while those of every other part of America, with the exception of the Brazils, have been constantly improving.

19. The gold mines of Brazil are very productive. Those called general, are distant about seventy-five leagues from Rio Janeiro, which is the staple and principal outlet of the riches of the Brazilian territory. They yield to the king, annually, for his right of fifths, at least one hundred and twelve arrobas. (weighing twenty-five pounds each,) of gold. Their yearly produce may, therefore, be estimated at upwards of eight hundred thousand pounds sterling; and that of the more distant mines, at about one third the sum.

20. The gold drawn from them cannot be carried to Rio Janeiro, without being first brought to the smelting houses established in each district, where the right of the crown is received. What belongs to private persons is remitted in bars, with their weight, number, and an impression of the royal arms. The gold is then assayed, and its standard imprinted on each bar. When these bars are carried to the mint, their value is paid to the possessor in coin, commonly in half doubloons, each worth eight Spanish dollars.

21. Upon each of these half doubloons the king gains a dollar, by the alloy and right of coinage. The mint of Rio Janeiro is one of the most beautiful in existence, and is furnished with every convenience for working with the greatest celerity. As the gold arrives from the mines at the same time that the fleets arrive from Portugal, it is necessary to accelerate the operations of the mint, and the coinage proceeds with surprising quickness.

22. In Africa, the kingdom of Mozambic abounds in gold, which is washed down by the rivers, and forms a chief part of the commerce of the country. The kingdoms of Monomotapa and Sofala likewise furnish considerable quantities of gold; and the Portuguese who reside in the latter territory, report that it yields annually two millions of *metigals*, equal to somewhat more than a million sterling.

23. The merchants export from Mecca, and other parts, about the same quantity of gold. The soldiers are paid in gold dust, in the state in which it is collected; and this is so pure, and of so fine a yellow, as not to be exceeded, when wrought, by any other gold besides that of Japan. Gold is likewise found on the island of Madagascar. The gold coast is so denominated from the abundance of gold found among the sands: it is not, however, so productive as has been generally supposed, owing to the intense heats, which, in a great measure, prevent the natives from prosecuting their researches.

24. In Asia, the island of Japan is most productive of gold, which is found in several of its provinces, and is, in by far the greater proportion, melted from its ore. It is likewise procured by washing the sands, and a small quantity is likewise found in the ore of copper. The emperor claims a supreme jurisdiction, not only over the gold mines but over all the mines of the empire, which are not allowed to be worked without a license from him.

25. Two thirds of their produce belong to him, and the other third is left to the governor of the province in which the mines are situated. But the richest gold ore, and that which yields the finest gold, is dug in one of the northern provinces of the island of Nippon, a dependency of Japan, where the gold mines have been highly productive until latterly, though they have much fallen off.

26. In the Japanese province of Tschungo, a rich gold

mine having been filled with water, was no longer worked : as it was, however, so situated, that, by cutting the rock, and making an opening beneath the mine, the water could be easily drawn off, this was attempted. At the moment of commencing the operation, so violent a storm of thunder and lightning arose, that the workmen were obliged to seek shelter elsewhere ; and these superstitious people imagining that the tutelar god and protector of the spot, unwilling to have the bowels of the earth thus rifled, had raised the storm to make them sensible of his great displeasure at such an undertaking, desisted from all further attempts, through the fear of incurring his displeasure.

27. Thibet, a mountainous country of India, contains a great abundance of gold, which is traced in the rivers flowing from that territory into the Gauges. In Hindostan, there are not any mines of gold ; but in the Irnada district, gold is collected in the river which passes Nelandambur in the Mangery Talui, a Nair having the exclusive privilege of this collection, for which he pays a small annual tribute. Silver is in general, rare throughout the oriental regions, and there is not any indication of this metal in India ; but in Japan there are several silver mines, more particularly, in the northern provinces, and the metal extracted from them is very pure and fine.

28. Turning to Europe, Dalmatia is said in ancient times to have produced an abundance of Gold. Pliny reports, that in the reign of the emperor Nero, fifty pounds of this precious metal were daily taken from the mines of that province ; and that it was found on the surface of the ground. It is added, that Vibius, who was sent by Augustus to subdue the Dalmatians, obliged that hardy and warlike people to work in the mines and to separate the gold from the ore.

29. Bossina, in Slavonia, contains many mineral mountains, and has rich mines of gold and silver. The district in which the latter are found is named the *Srebrarniza*, being derived from the word *srebr*, which signifies silver in all the Slavonian dialects. Their produce resembles the native silver of Potosi, and is found, combined with pure quartz, in small, thin leaves, resembling moss.

30. The kingdom of Norway formerly produced gold ;

but the expense of working the mines, and procuring the pure ore, being greater than the profit, these have been neglected. There are, however, silver mines, which are extremely valuable, and give employment to several thousands of persons. The principal of these is at Konigsberg, and was discovered in 1625, when the town was immediately built, and peopled with German miners.

31. In 1751, forty-one shafts, and twelve veins, were wrought in this mine, and gave employment to three thousand five hundred officers, artificers, and labourers. The silver ore is not, as was at first imagined, confined to the mountain between Konigsberg and the river Jordal, but extends its veins for several miles throughout the adjacent districts in consequence of which, new mines have been undertaken in several places, and prosperously carried on.

32. One of the richest and most ancient of the mines, named "Old God's blessing," has sometimes, in the space of a week, yielded several hundred pounds weight of rich ore. The astonishing depth of this mine, which is not less than a hundred and eighty fathoms perpendicular, fills the mind of the beholder with amazement; and the circumference at the bottom forms a clear space of several hundreds of fathoms.

33. Here the sight of thirty or forty piles burning on all sides in this gloomy cavern, and continually fed to soften the stone in the prosecution of the labours, seems, according to the notions commonly entertained, an apt image of hell; and the swarms of miners covered with soot, and bustling about in habits according to their several employments, may well pass for so many infernal spirits; more especially, when, at a given signal, when the mine is to be sprung in this or that direction, they exclaim aloud: "Berg-livet, berg-livet!" Take care of your lives.

34. The gold mines of Cremnitz lie forty miles south of the Carpathian hills; and twenty miles farther to the south, are the silver mines of Schemnitz. These are called mining towns; and the former is the principal, its rich ores being found in what is styled metallic rock. Its mines also produce a certain proportion of silver. Hungary is besides enriched by a mineral peculiar to itself, or one, at least, which has not hitherto been discovered elsewhere, namely, the opal—a gem preferred to all oth-

ers by the oriental nations. The opal mines are situated at Ozerwiniza, where they are found in a hill consisting of decomposed porphyry, a few fathoms beneath the surface. Their produce is of various qualities, from the opaque-white, or semi-opal, to the utmost refulgence of the lively colours by which this noble gem is distinguished.

35. Transylvania and the Bannet contain numerous and valuable mines, consisting chiefly of grey gold ore, and white gold ore. The finest gold is found at Olapian, not far from Zalathna, intermixed with gravel and sand. The sands of the Rhine, on the shores near Germersheim and Sels, also contain gold. The mountains of Spain were, according to the ancient writers, very rich in gold and silver; and accordingly Gibbon calls that kingdom "the Peru and Mexico of the old world."

36. He adds, that "the discovery of the rich western continent by the Phœnicians, and the oppression of the simple natives, who were compelled to labour in their own mines for the benefit of strangers, form an exact type of the more recent history of Spanish America." The Phœnicians were simply acquainted with the sea-coasts of Spain; but avarice as well as ambition carried the arms of Rome and Carthage into the heart of the country, and almost every part of the soil was found pregnant with gold silver, and copper.

37. A mine near Carthagena is said to have yielded daily twenty-five thousand drachms of silver or three hundred thousand pounds sterling a year. The provinces of Asturia, Gallicia, and Lusitania, yielded twenty thousand pounds weight of gold annually: the modern Spaniards have, however, chosen rather to import the precious metals from America, than to seek them at home.

38. Portugal is in many parts mountainous, and these mountains contain, beside others, rich ores of silver; but the Portuguese, like the Spaniards, being supplied with metals from their transatlantic possessions, and particularly with an abundance of gold and silver from Brazil, do not work the mines in their own country. Gems of all kinds, as turquoises and hyacinths, are also found in the above mountains, together with a beautifully variegated marble, and many curious fossils.

Note. Buenos Ayres is a country of South America extending from 15° to 35° south latitude.—Peru, in South America, lies between 1° north, and 25° south latitude. It is bounded on the north by Popayan, east by the Andes, south by Chili and La Plata, and west by the Pacific Ocean. Its capital is Lima.—Mexico lies between 16° and 37° north latitude. The face of the country is very much diversified; the climate is healthy.—New Granada is south of the gulph of Darien, extending from 3° to 10° north latitude.

The islands of Japan, in Asia, lie between 30° and 40° north latitude: the largest of these is 600 miles long and 130 broad. Its capital is Jeddo.—Dalmatia is a country of Europe, north of the gulf of Venice.—Sclavonia, a country of Europe, 300 miles long and 75 broad, lies between the Danube and Drave.—Norway, a kingdom of Europe, the most westerly part of the ancient Scandinavia, lies between 57° and 72° north latitude. It is bounded on the north and west by the Northern Ocean, east by Swedish Lapland and south by Categate. In some sections of Norway the climate is moderate, in others, winter commences about the middle of October with great severity, and continues to the middle of April. Norway produces but little grain.

Questions.

- What is the situation and extent of Buenos Ayres?
- What is its capital?
- What is the situation of Mexico?
- Where is New Granada?
- Where are the islands of Japan?
- Where is Dalmatia?
- Near what gulf is it situated?
- Between what rivers is Sclavonia, in Europe, situated?
- What is the situation and extent of Norway?
- What is the climate?

Sect. 3. Quicksilver Mines.

1. The quicksilver mines of Idria are the most interesting of these, and demand a particular description, as they have been celebrated in natural history, poetry, and

romance. The ban of Idria is a district immediately subject to the Chamber of Inner Austria, and lies westward of Carniola. The town, which is small, is seated in a deep valley, amid high mountains, on the river of the same name, and at the bottom of so steep a descent, that its approach is a task of great difficulty, and sometimes of danger.

2. The mines were discovered in 1497, before which time, that part of the country was inhabited by a few coopers only, and other artificers in wood, with which the territory abounds. One evening, a cooper having placed a new tub under a dropping spring, to try if it would hold water, on returning next morning, found it so heavy that he could scarcely move it. He at first was led by his superstition to suspect that the tub was bewitched; but perceiving at length a shining fluid at the bottom, with the nature of which he was unacquainted, he collected it, and proceeded to an apothecary at Laubach, who being an artful man, dismissed him with a small recompence, requesting that he would not fail to bring him further supplies.

3. The subterraneous passages of the great mine are so extensive, that it would require several hours to pass through them. The greatest perpendicular depth, computing from the entrance of the shaft, is 840 feet; but as these passages advance horizontally, under a high mountain, the depth would be much greater, if the measure were taken from the surface.

4. One mode of descending the shaft is by a bucket; but as the entrance is narrow, the bucket is liable to strike against the sides, or to be stopped by some obstacle, so that it may be readily overset. A second mode of descending is safer, by the means of a great number of ladders, placed obliquely, in a kind of a zig-zag: as the ladders, however, are wet and narrow, a person must be very cautious how he steps, to prevent his falling.

5. In the course of the descent, there are several resting places, which are extremely welcome to the wearied traveller. In some of the subterraneous passages the heat is so intense as to occasion a profuse sweat; and in several of the shafts the air was formerly so confined, that several miners were suffocated by an igneous vapour, or gaseous exhalation, called the fire-damp. This has

been prevented by sinking the main shaft deeper. Near to it is a large wheel, and an hydraulic machine, by which the mine is cleared of water.

6. To these pernicious and deadly caverns criminals are occasionally banished by the Austrian government; and it has sometimes happened, that this punishment has been allotted to persons of considerable rank and family. An accident of this nature, in the person of Count Alberti, laid the foundation of Mr. Sargent's elegant dramatic poem, entitled "the mine."

7. The Count having fought a duel with an Austrian general against the Emperor's command, and having left him for dead, was obliged to seek refuge in one of the forests of Istria, where he was apprehended, and afterwards rescued by a band of robbers who had long infested that quarter. With these banditti, he spent nine months, until, by a close investiture of the place in which they were concealed, and after a very obstinate resistance, in which the greater part of them were killed, he was taken and carried to Vienna, to be broken alive on the wheel. This punishment was, by the intercession of his friends, changed into that of perpetual confinement and labour in the mines of Idria—a sentence which, to a noble mind, was worse than death.

8. To these mines he was accompanied by the Countess, his lady, who belonged to one of the first families in Germany, and who, having tried every means to procure her husband's pardon without effect, resolved at length to share his miseries, as she could not relieve them. They were terminated, however, by his pardon being procured by the general with whom he had fought the duel, on the latter being recovered from his wounds; and this nobleman, on his return to Vienna, was again taken into favour, and restored to his fortune and rank.

Note. Idria, in Germany, is situated on the river Idria, in 46° north latitude. Germany, a country of Europe, 640 long and 550 broad, is bounded on the east by Hungary and Poland, north by the Baltic Sea and Denmark, west by France and south by the Alps and Switzerland.

Vienna, the capital of Germany is situated on the Dan-

ube, 350 north east of Rome and 565 east of Paris, in 48° north latitude.

Questions.

On what river is Idria, in Germany?

In what latitude?

What are the boundaries of Germany?

What is its length and breadth?

On what is Vienna situated?

In what direction from Paris?

Sect. 4. Iron Mines.

1. Native iron, the existence of which was formerly questioned, has been found in several places : it is, however, far from being common, and occurs in several mines. A mass of this description of iron was discovered in the district of Santiago del Estero, in South America, by a party of Indians, in the midst of a wide extended plain. It projected about a foot above the ground, nearly the whole of its upper surface being visible ; and the news of its having been found in a country where there are not any mountains, nor even the smallest stone, within the circumference of a hundred leagues, was considered as truly surprising.

2. Although the journey was attended with great danger, on account of the want of water, and abundance of wild beasts in these deserts, several individuals, in the hope of gain, undertook to visit this mass ; and, having accomplished their journey, sent a specimen of the metal to Lima and Madrid, where it was found to be very pure soft iron. As it was reported that this mass was the extremity of an immense vein of the metal, a metallurgist was sent to examine the spot, and by him it was found buried in pure clay and ashes.

3. Externally, it had the appearance of very compact iron, but was internally full of cavities, as if the whole had been formerly in a liquid state. This idea was confirmed by its having, on its surface, the impression of

human feet and hands of a large size, as well as that of the feet of a description of large birds, very common in South America. Although these impressions seemed very perfect, it was concluded, either that they were *lusus naturæ*, or that impressions of this kind were previously on the ground, and that the liquid mass of iron, in falling on it, received them.

4. It had the greatest resemblance to a mass of dough ; which, having been stamped with impressions of hands and feet, and marked with a finger, had afterwards been converted into iron. On digging round the mass, the under surface was found covered with a coat of scoriæ from four to six inches thick, undoubtedly occasioned by the moisture of the earth, the upper surface being clean. No appearance of generation was observed in the earth below or round it for a great distance.

5. About two leagues to the eastward, was a brackish mineral spring, and a very gentle ascent of from four to six feet in height, running from north to south ; with this exception, the adjacent territory was a perfect level. About the spring, as well as near the mass, the earth was very light, loose, and greatly resembling ashes, even in colour. The grass in the vicinity, was very short, small, and extremely unpalatable to the cattle : but that at a distance, was long, and extremely grateful to them.

6. From these concurrent circumstances it was concluded, that this mass of native iron, which was estimated to weigh about three hundred quintals, was produced by a volcanic explosion. It is stated as an undoubted fact, that in one of the forests of the above district of Santiago del Estero, there exists a mass of pure native iron, in the shape of a tree with its branches. At a little depth in the earth are found stones of quartz of a beautiful red colour, which the honey-gatherers, the only persons who frequent this rude territory, employ as flints to light their fires.

7. Several of these were selected on account of their peculiar beauty, they being spotted and studded, as it were, with gold : one of them, weighing about an ounce, was ground by the governor of the district, who extracted from it a drachm of gold. A fibrous kind of native iron has been found at Ebenstock, in Saxony, and also in Siberia, where one particular mass weighed 1600 pounds.

8. It resembled forged iron in its composition, and was

malleable when cold, but brittle when red hot. In Senegal, where it is most common, it is of a cubical form, and is employed by the natives in the manufacture of different kinds of vessels. Iron, although one of the imperfect metals, is susceptible of a very high polish, and more capable than any other metal of having its hardness increased or diminished by certain chemical processes.

9. It is often manufactured in such a way as to be *one hundred and fifty times*, and, as will now be seen, even above *six hundred and thirty times*, more valuable than gold. On weighing several common watch-pendulum springs, such as are sold, for ordinary work, by the London artists, at half a crown, ten of them were found to weigh but one single grain. Hence, one pound avoirdupois, equal to seven thousand grains, contains ten times that number of these springs, which amount, at half a crown each, to 8750 pounds sterling.

10. Reckoning the troy ounce of gold at four pounds sterling, and the pound, equal to 5760 grains, at 48 pounds sterling, the value of an avoirdupois pound of gold is 58,33, or 58l. 6s. 7d. The above amount of the value of the watch springs weighing an avoirdupois pound, being divided by that sum, will give a ratio of somewhat more than 150 to 1. But the pendulum-springs of the best kind of watches sell at half a guinea each; and at this price, the abovementioned value is increased in the ratio of four and one fifth to one; which gives an amount of 36,750l. sterling. This sum being divided by the value of the avoirdupois pound of gold, gives a quotient of more than 630 to 1.

11. It is the valuable property of iron, after it is reduced into the state of steel, that, although it is sufficiently soft when hot, or when gradually cooled, to be formed without difficulty into various tools and utensils, still it may be afterwards rendered more or less hard, even to an extreme degree, by simply plunging it, when red hot into cold water. This is called *tempering*, the hardness produced, being greater in proportion as the steel is hotter, and the water colder. Hence arises the superiority of this metal for making mechanics' instruments or tools, by which all other metals and even itself, are filed, drilled, and cut.

12. The various degrees of hardness given to iron, de-

pend on the quantity of ignition it possesses at the moment of being tempered, which is manifested by the succession of colour exhibited on the surface of the metal, in progress of its receiving the increasing heat. These are, the yellowish white, yellow, gold colour, purple, violet, and deep blue ;—after the exhibition of which the complete ignition takes place. These colours proceed from a kind of scorification on the surface of the heated metal.

13. The largest iron works in England are carried on in Colebrook Dale, in Shropshire. This spot, which is situated between two towering and variegated hills, covered with wood, possesses peculiar advantages, the ore being obtained from the adjacent hills, the coals from the vale, and abundance of limestone from the quarries in the vicinity. The romantic scenery which nature here exhibits, and the works which are carrying on, seem to realize the ancient fable of the Cyclops.

14. “The noise of the forges, mills, &c.” Mr. Young observes, “with all their vast machinery, the flames bursting from the furnaces, with the burning coal, and the smoke of the lime kilns, are altogether horribly sublime.” To complete the peculiarities of this spot, a bridge, entirely constructed of iron, is here thrown over the Severn. In one place it has parted, and a chasm is formed ; but such is its firm basis, that the fissure has neither injured its strength nor utility.

15. The great superiority of Swedish iron over that of all other countries, for the manufacture of steel, is well known, and is ascribed to the great purity of the ore from which the iron is smelted. Hitherto the British steel makers have not been able to employ British iron in their processes, it having been found too brittle to bear cementation ; but attempts are now making by some very spirited steel makers at Sheffield ; and from the products already obtained, great hopes are entertained of ultimate success.

16. One of the most remarkable of the Swedish mines, if the name can with propriety be applied to it, is Tabern, a mountain of considerable size, composed entirely of pure iron ore, and occurring in a large tract of sand over which it seems to have been deposited. This mountain has been wrought for nearly three centuries, notwithstanding which its size is scarcely diminished.

17. But the richest iron mine of Sweden is that of Danmora, in the province of Upland. It is in depth eighty fathoms ; occupies a considerable extent of territory ; and its ore is conveyed to the surface of the earth, through several pits or openings made for that purpose, by means of casks fixed to large cables which are put in motion by horses. The workmen standing on the edges of these casks, and having their arms clasped round the cable, descend and ascend with the utmost composure.

18. The water is drawn from the bottom by a wheel sixty-six feet in diameter, and is afterwards conveyed along an aqueduct, nearly a mile and a half in length. At certain distances from Danmora, are several furnaces, with large and populous villages, exclusively inhabited by the miners. In Wraxall's tour through the north of Europe, the mine of Danmora is described as yielding the finest iron ore in Europe, its produce being exported to every country, and constituting one of the most important sources of national wealth and royal revenue. The ore is not dug, as is usual in other mines, but is torn up by the force of gunpowder—an operation which is performed every day at noon, and is one of the most awful and tremendous that can be conceived.

19. " We arrived," observes the tourist, " at the mouth of the great mine, which is nearly half an English mile in circumference, in time to be present at it. Soon after twelve, the first explosion took place, and could not be so aptly compared to any thing as to subterraneous thunder, or rather volleys of artillery discharged under ground. The stones were thrown up, by the violence of the gunpowder, to a vast height above the surface of the ground, and the concussion was so great, as to shake the surrounding earth or rock on every side.

20. " As soon as the explosion had ceased, I determined to descend into the mine, to effect which, I had to seat myself in a large deep bucket, capable of containing three persons, and fastened by chains to a rope. When I found myself thus suspended between heaven and earth by a rope, and looked down into the dark and deep abyss beneath me, to which I could see no termination, I shuddered with apprehension, and half repented my curiosity. This was, however, only a momentary sensation, and be-

fore I had descended a hundred feet, I looked round on the scene with very tolerable composure.

21. "It was nearly nine minutes before I reached the bottom; and when I set my foot on the earth, the view of the mine was awful and sublime in the highest degree. Whether, as I surveyed it, terror or pleasure formed the predominant feeling, is hard to say. The light of the day was very faintly admitted into these subterraneous caverns: in many places, it was absolutely lost, and flambeaux were kindled in its stead.

22. "Beams of wood were laid across some parts, from one side of the rock to the other; and on these the miners sat, employed in boring holes for the admission of gunpowder, with the most perfect unconcern, although the least dizziness, or even a failure in preserving their equilibrium, must have made them lose their seat, and have dashed them against the rugged surface of the rock beneath. The fragments torn up by the explosion, previously to my descent, lay in vast heaps on all sides, and the whole scene was calculated to inspire a gloomy admiration.

23. "I remained three quarters of an hour in these frightful and gloomy caverns, which find employment for not less than one thousand three hundred workmen, and traversed every part of them which was accessible, conducted by my guides. The weather above was very warm, but here the ice covered the whole surface of the ground, and I found myself surrounded with the colds of the most rigorous winter, amid darkness and caves of iron.

24. "In one of these, which ran a considerable way beneath the rock, were eight wretched beings warming themselves round a charcoal fire, and eating the little scanty subsistence arising from their miserable occupation. They rose with surprise at seeing so unexpected a guest among them, and I was not a little pleased to dry my feet, which were wet with treading on the melted ice, at their fire.

25. "Having gratified my curiosity with a view of these subterraneous apartments, I made the signal for being drawn up, and felt so little terror while re-ascending, compared with that of being let down, that I am convinced, after five or six repetitions, I should have been perfectly indifferent to the undertaking. So strong is

the effect of custom on the human mind, and so contemptible does danger or horror become, when familiarized by continual trials !”

26. Throughout the whole extent of Sweden, the iron mines at present wrought, employ upwards of twenty-five thousand persons, and yield annually upwards of fifty seven thousand tons of metal. It has been calculated that the furnaces and forges, which give to the iron the degree of perfection requisite before it can be used, consume annually two millions four hundred thousand loads of charcoal.

Note. Madrid, the capital of Spain, is on the river Manzanares, containing 150,000 inhabitants.—Siberia is a large country comprehending the most northern part of the Russian empire in Asia. It is bounded on the east by the Eastern Ocean, south by Great Tartary, west by Russia and north by the Frozen Ocean. It extends 2000 miles from east to west, and 750 from north to south. The south part is a fertile country but the north is extremely cold, almost uncultivated and thinly inhabited.

Sweden, a kingdom of Europe, is bounded north by Danish Lapland and the Ocean, east by Russia, south by the Baltic and the gulf of Finland and west by Norway, being 300 miles in length and 350 in breadth. It is divided into five general parts, namely, Sweden Proper, Gothland, Norland, Lapland and Finland. Population about four millions.

Questions.

- Of what is Madrid the capital?
- On what river is it situated?
- Where is Siberia?
- Of what extent?
- What is the climate?
- What are the boundaries of Sweden?
- Into how many parts is Sweden divided?

Sect. 5. Mines of Copper, Tin, Lead, &c.

1. The purest copper obtained in Europe is the produce of the mines of the Swedish province of Dalecarlia. The following is a brief description of the principal of these immense and gloomy caverns, all of which boast a high antiquity. The traveller's curiosity is first attracted by the hydraulic machines which are destined to convey the water to the different quarters, and the power of which is such, that one of the wheels has a diameter of not less than forty four feet.

2. Another wheel, of proportionate magnitude, is employed to raise the ore from the mine to the surface of the earth, and is admirably constructed. Regular circles are

placed on each side, and round these the chain rises, taking a larger or smaller circumference, in proportion to the necessary circle to be made, so as to counterbalance the weight, and consequently the increased motion of the bucket.

3. Exteriorly a vast chasm of a tremendous depth presents itself to the view. This being the part of the mine which was first opened, either through the ignorance or neglect of those who had then the management of the works, the excavations so weakened the foundations of the hill, that the whole fell in, leaving a most chaotic scene of precipitated rocks, and a gaping gulf resembling the mouth of a volcano. Great care has been since taken that no such disaster should again occur.

4. Plans and sections are drawn of all the galleries, &c.; and, where the prosecution of the works, in the same direction, might be dangerous, orders are issued for the miners to stop and an iron crown is fixed on the spot, as a prohibition ever to proceed further. The workmen then explore in a different direction, while every subterraneous excavation is nicely watched.

5. The traveller passes into the great chasm by a range of wooden steps, which cross, in a variety of directions, the rough masses of fallen rocks, of gravel, and of the ancient machinery. Ere he reaches the entrance of the cavern, he has to descend thirty toises; and this being accomplished, proceeds horizontally to a considerable distance within. He now loses the pure air of day, and gradually breathes an oppressive vapour, which rolls towards him, in volumes from the mouths of a hundred caves leading into the main passage.

6. He now feels as if he were inhaling the atmosphere of Tartarus. The Swedish iron mines which are described above, are mere purgatories when compared with this Satanic dwelling. The descent is performed entirely by steps laid in a winding rock; and, in following the subterraneous declivity, the traveller reaches the tremendous depths of these truly Stygian dominions.

7. The pestilential vapours which environ him with increasing clouds, and the style of the entrance, remind him of Virgil's description of the descent of Æneas to the infernal regions. Here are to be seen the same caverned portico, the rocky, rough descent, the steaming sulphur,

and all the deadly stenches of Avernus. The wretched inmates of this gloomy cavern appear to him like so many spectres, as poetic fiction has described them : and he is induced, by the length of the way, joined to the excessive heat and its suffocating quality, to fancy that he will be made to pay dearly for his curiosity.

8. In one part the steam is so excessively hot as to scorch at the distance of twelve paces, at the same time that the sulphureous smell is intolerable. Near this spot, a volcanic fire broke out some years ago, in consequence of which, strong walls were constructed, as barriers to its powers, and several contiguous passages, which, had it spread, would have proved dangerous to the mine, closed up.

9. The visitor has now to traverse many long and winding galleries, as well as large vaulted caverns, where the workmen are dispersed on all sides, employed in hewing vast masses of the rock, and preparing other parts for explosion. Others wheel the brazen ore towards the black abyss where the suspended buckets hang ready to draw it upward. From the effect of such violent exercise, combined with the heat, they are obliged to work almost naked. Their groups, occupations, and primitive appearance, scantily lighted by the trembling rays of torches, form a curious and interesting scene.

10. The depth of the mine being at least twelve hundred feet, a full hour is required to reach to the bottom. The mass of copper lies in the form of an inverted cone. Five hundred men are employed daily ; but females are not admitted, on account of the deleterious quality of the vapours. This mine was anciently a State prison, in which criminals, slaves, and prisoners of war toiled out their wretched existence. Near the bottom is a rocky saloon furnished with benches.

11. It is called the Hall of the Senate on account of its having been the resting place of several Swedish Kings, who came, attended by the senators, to examine the works, and here took refreshments. It was in this mine that the immortal Gustavus Vasa, disguised as a peasant, laboured for his bread, in the course of a long concealment, after having been robbed by the peasant who served him as a guide.

12. In the year 1751, a very rich copper mine was

wrought in the county of Wicklow, Ireland. From this mine ran a stream of blue-coloured water, of so deleterious a nature as to destroy all the fish in the river Arklow, into which it flowed. One of the workmen, having left an iron shovel in this stream, found it some days after, encrusted with copper. This led one of the proprietors of the mine to institute a set of experiments, from which he concluded that the blue water contained an acid holding copper in solution; that iron had a stronger affinity for the acid than copper; and that the consequence of this affinity was the precipitation of the copper, and the solution of the iron, when pieces of that metal were thrown into the blue water.

13. These ideas induced the miners to dig several pits for the reception of this water, and to put bars of iron into them. The result was, that they obtained an abundance of copper, much purer and more valuable than that which they procured from the ore itself by smelting.

14. On the island of Anglesea, near Dulas bay, on the north coast, is Parys Mountain, which contains the most considerable quantity of copper ore perhaps ever known. The external aspect of the hill is extremely rude, and it is surrounded by enormous rocks of coarse white quartz. The ore is lodged in a basin, or hollow, and has on one side, a small lake, over the waves of which, as over those of Avernus, fatal to the feathered tribe, birds are never known to pass.

15. The effect of the mineral operations has been, that the whole of this tract has assumed a most savage appearance. Suffocating fumes of the burning heaps of copper arise in all parts, and extend their baneful influence for miles around. That the ore was worked in a very remote period, appears by vestiges of the ancient operations, which were carried on by trenching, and by heating the rocks intensely, when water was suddenly poured on them, so as to cause them to crack or scale.

16. In the year 1768, after a long search, which was so little profitable that it was on the eve of being abandoned, a large body of copper ore was found; and this has ever since been worked to great advantage, still promising a vast supply. The water lodged in the bottom of the bed of ore, being strongly impregnated with the metal, is drawn up, and distributed in pits, where the same process

is employed as in the Wicklow mine. The copper thus procured, differs little from native copper, and is very highly prized.

17. Cornwall has been in all ages, famous for its numerous mines of tin, which are, in general, very large, and rich in ore. The tin-works are of different kinds, dependent on the various forms in which the metal appears. In many places, its ore so nearly resembles common stones, that it can only be distinguished from them by its superior weight. In other parts, the ore is a compound of tin and earth, concreted into a substance almost as hard as stone, of a bluish or grayish colour, and to which the mundic, impregnated with copper, frequently gives a yellowish cast.

18. This ore is always found in a continued stratum, which the miners call *load*; and this, for the greater part, is found running through the solid substance of the hardest rocks, beginning in small veins near the surface, perhaps not above half an inch or an inch wide, and increasing, as they proceed, into large dimensions, branching out into several ramifications, and bending downward in a direction, which is generally, nearly east and west.

19. These loads, or veins, are sometimes white, very wide, and so thick, that large lumps of the ore are frequently drawn up of more than twenty pounds weight. The loads of tin ore are not always contiguous, but sometimes break off so entirely, that they seem to terminate; but the sagacious miner knows by experience, that, by digging at a small distance on one side, he shall meet with a separated part of the load, apparently tallying with the other end, as nicely as if it had been broken off by some sudden shock of the rock.

20. The miners of Cornwall follow the load, or vein, in all its rich and meandering curves, through the bowels of the flinty earth. The waters are sometimes drained from the mines, by subterraneous passages, formed from the body of the mountain to the level country. These passages are called *adits*, and are occasionally the labour of many years; but when effected, they save the constant expence of large water-works and fire-engines.

21. From the surface of the earth the workmen sink a passage to the mine, which they call a shaft, and place over it a large winch, or, in works of greater magnitude,

a wheel and axle, by which means, they draw up large quantities of ore at a time, in vessels called *kibbuls*. This ore is thrown into heaps, which great numbers of poor people are employed in breaking to pieces, and fitting the ore for the stamping mills.

22. A third form in which tin appears; is that of crystals; for this metal will, under proper circumstances, readily crystalize. Hence, in many parts of the mineral rocks, are found the most perfectly transparent and beautiful crystals of pure tin. Beside these crystals, in many of the cavernous parts of the rocks, are found those transparent crystals, called Cornish diamonds, they being extremely brilliant when well polished. The form is that of a six-sided prism pointed on the top, and they are sometimes four or five inches in length.

23. Among the most remarkable lead mines, may be cited those of Upper Louisiana, in North America, which have for many years been highly productive. That called Burton's mine is so extensive, that the mineral is calculated to cover two thousand acres of land. It is of two kinds, the gravel and fossil. The gravel mineral is found immediately under the soil, intermixed with gravel, in pieces of solid mineral, weighing from one to fifty pounds. Beneath the gravel is a sand rock, which being broken, crumbles to a fine sand, and contains mineral nearly of the same quality as that of the gravel.

24. But the mineral of the first quality is found in a bed of red clay, under the sand rock, in pieces of from ten to five hundred pounds weight, on the outside of which, is a spar, or fossil, of a bright glittering appearance, resembling spangles of gold and silver, as solid as the mineral itself, and of a greater specific gravity. This being taken off, the mineral is solid, unconnected with any other substance, of a broad grain, and what mineralogists call potters' ore.

25. In other mines, in the vicinity of the above, the lead is found in regular veins, from two to four feet in thickness, containing about fifty ounces of silver in a ton; but at the depth of twenty-five feet, the operations are impeded by water. The whole of this mineral tract is very rich and extensive.

26. In Great Britain there are numerous lead mines, among which, may be cited that of Arkingdale, in York-

shire, and those with which Shropshire abounds. In the south of Lanerkshire, and in the vicinity of Wanlockhead, Scotland, are two celebrated lead mines, which yield annually above two thousand tons of metal. The Susannah-vein Lead-hills, has been worked for many years, and has been productive of great wealth. The above are considered as the richest lead mines of Europe.

27. Several of the Irish lead mines have yielded a considerable proportion of silver; and mention is made of one, in the county of Antrim, which afforded, in thirty pounds of lead, a pound of that metal. Another, less productive of silver, was found at Ballysadare, near the harbour of Sligo, in Connaught; and a third in the county of Tipperary, thirty miles from Limerick. The ores of this last were of two kinds, most usually of a reddish colour, hard and glittering; the other, which was the richest in silver, resembled a blue marl. The works were destroyed in the Irish insurrections in the reign of Charles I. The mine, however, is still wrought on account of the lead it contains.

28. The following is the enumeration of the different substances in which metals are found. In granitic mountains, tin, lead, iron, zinc, bismuth, cobalt; and in gneis, or schistose granite, silver, copper, lead, tin, and zinc. In micaceous schist, are found copper, tin, lead and antimony. In hornblende slate, copper ore; and under argillate, or common slate, silver, copper, lead, and zinc. In steatite, sulphureous pyrites, and magnet. In primitive limestone, copper, lead, and zinc appear; and even in a strata of coal, native silver, galena, and manganese have been discovered.

Note. Ireland, an island of the Atlantic Ocean, is west of England and south west of Scotland. It is the most westerly land of England, from which it is separated by St. George's Channel. It is situated between 51° and 55° north latitude, and contains upwards of six million of people. Great-Britain, the most considerable of all the European islands, extends from 50° to 58° north latitude. It is separated from the continent of Europe by the English Channel and the straits of Dover; Scotland, or North Britain, is bounded on the west by the Atlantic Ocean,

north by the North Sea, east by the German Ocean, south east by England and south by the Irish Sea. Its extent from north to south is 270 miles and its greatest breadth 150. Population about two millions.

Questions.

What is the situation and extent of Ireland ?

How is it separated from England ?

Where is Scotland or North Britain ?

What is its length and breadth ?

Sect. 6. Coal Mines.

1. Coals are scattered, with a more or less sparing hand, over every continent, and almost over every kingdom of the globe; but there is not any country where coal mines are so rich and so frequent as in Great Britain, the opulence of which has been principally ascribed to this valuable mineral. It is, in truth, the very soul of her manufactures, and, consequently, of her commerce, every manufacturing town being established in the midst of a coal country. Of this, striking instances are afforded by Bristol, Birmingham, Wolverhampton, Sheffield, Newcastle, and Glasgow.

2. The coals of Whitehaven and Wigan are esteemed the purest; and the cannel and peacock coals of Lancashire are so beautiful, that they are suspected by some to have constituted the *gagates*, or jet, which the ancients ascribed to Great Britain. In Somersetshire, the Mendip coal mines are distinguished by their productiveness; they occur there, as indeed in every other part, in the low country, and are not to be found in the hills.

3. The beds of coal are not horizontal, but sloping, dipping to the southeast at the rate of about twenty-two inches per fathom. Hence, they would speedily sink so deep that it would not be possible to work them, were it not that they are intersected at intervals by perpendicular dykes or veins, of a different kind of mineral, on the other side of which, these beds are found considerably raised up. They are seven in number, lying at regular distances beneath each other, and separated by beds of a different kind of substance, the deepest being placed more than two hundred feet beneath the surface of the earth

4. The town of Newcastle, in Northumberland, has been celebrated during several centuries for its very extensive trade in coals. It was first made a borough by William the Conqueror, and the earliest charter for digging coals, granted to the inhabitants, was in the reign of Henry III. in 1239; but in 1306, the use of coal for fuel was prohibited in London, by royal proclamation, chiefly because it injured the sale of wood, with which the environs of the Capital were then overspread.

5. This interdict did not, however, continue long in force; and coals may be considered as having been dug for exportation at Newcastle for more than four centuries. It has been estimated, that there are twenty-four considerable collieries lying at different distances from the river, from five to eighteen miles; and that they produced, for an average of six years, up to the close of 1776, an annual consumption of three hundred and eighty thousand chaldrons, Newcastle measure, (equal to seven hundred and seventeen thousand six hundred and fifteen chaldrons, London measure,) of which about thirty thousand chaldrons were exported to foreign parts.

6. The boats employed in the colliery are called keels, and are described as strong, clumsy, and oval, each carrying about twenty tons; and of these, four hundred and fifty are kept constantly employed. In the year 1776, an estimate was made of the shipping employed in the Newcastle coal trade; and from this estimate it appears, that three thousand five hundred and eighty-five ships, were, during that year, engaged in the coasting trade, and three hundred and sixty three in the trade to foreign ports, their joint tonnage amounting to seven hundred and thirty-eight thousand two hundred and fourteen tons.

7. It is a common opinion among geologists, that pit coal is of vegetable origin, and that it has been brought to its present state by the means of some chemical process, not at this time understood. However extravagant this opinion may at first sight appear, it is supported by the existence of vast depositions of matter, half way, as it were, between perfect wood and perfect pit coal; which, while it obviously betrays its vegetable nature, has, in several respects, so near an approximation to pit coal, as to have been generally distinguished by the name of coal.

8. One of the most remarkable of these depositions exists in Devonshire, about thirteen miles southwest of Exeter, and is well known under the name of Bovey coal. Its vegetable nature has been ascertained by Mr. Hatchet, in a set of experiments, in which he found both extractive matter and resin—substances which belong to the vegetable kingdom. The beds of this coal are seventy feet in thickness, and are interspersed by beds of clay. On the north side they lie within a foot of the surface, and dip south at the rate of about twenty inches per fathom.

9. The deepest beds are the blackest and heaviest, and have the closest resemblance to pit coal, while the upper ones strongly resemble wood, and are considered as such by those who dig them. They are brown, and become extremely friable when dry, burning with a flame similar to that of wood, and assuming the appearance of wood which has been rendered soft by some unknown cause, and, while in that state has been crushed flat by the weight of the incumbent earth. This is the case, not only with the Bovey coal, but also with all the beds of wood coal which have been hitherto examined in different parts of Europe.

10. The coal mines of Whitehaven may be considered as the most extraordinary in the known world. They are excavations which have, in their structure, a considerable resemblance to the gypsum quarries of Paris, and are of such magnitude, and extent, that in one of them alone, a sum exceeding half a million sterling, was, in the course of a century, expended by the proprietors.

11. Their principal entrance is by an opening at the bottom of a hill, through a long passage, hewn in the rock, leading to the lowest vein of coal. The greater part of this descent is through spacious galleries, which continually intersect other galleries, all the coal being cut away, with the exception of large pillars, which, where the mine runs to a considerable depth, are nine feet in height, and about thirty six feet square at the base. Such is the strength there required to support the ponderous roof.

12. The mines are sunk to the depth of one hundred and thirty fathoms, and are extended under the sea to places

where there is, above them, sufficient depth of water for ships of large burden. These are the deepest coal mines which have hitherto been wrought; and perhaps the miners have not, in any other part of the globe, penetrated to so great a depth beneath the surface of the sea, the very deep mines in Hungary, Peru, and elsewhere, being situated in mountainous countries, where the surface of the earth is elevated to a great height above the level of the ocean.

13. In these mines there are three strata of coal, which lie at a considerable distance one above the other, and are made to communicate by pits; but the vein is not always continued in the same regularly inclined plane, the miners frequently meeting with hard rock, by which their further progress is interrupted. At such places there seem to have been breaks in the earth, from the surface downward, one portion appearing to have sunk down, while the adjoining part has preserved its ancient situation. In some of these places, the earth has sunk ten, twenty fathoms, and even more: while in others, the depression has been less than one fathom.

14. These breaks the miners call dykes; and when they reach one of them, their first care is to discover whether the strata in the adjoining part are higher or lower than in the part where they had been working: or, according to their own phrase, whether the coal be cast down or up. In the former case they sink a pit; but if it be cast up to any considerable height, they are frequently obliged, with great labour and expense, to carry forward a level, or long gallery through the rock, until they again reach the stratum of coal.

15. Coal, the chief mineral of Scotland, has been there worked for a succession of ages. Pope Pius II. in his description of Europe, written about 1450, mentions that he beheld with wonder black stones given as alms to the poor of Scotland. This mineral may, however, be traced to the twelfth century; and a very early account of the Scottish coal mines, explains with great precision, the manner of working the coal, not neglecting to mention the subterraneous walls of whin, which intersect the strata, particularly a remarkable one, visible from the river Tyne, where it forms a cataract, and passes by Prestonpans, to the shore of Fife.

16. The Lothians and Fifeshire, particularly abound with this useful mineral, which also extends into Ayrshire; and near Irwin is found a curious variety, named ribbon coal. A singular coal, in veins of mineral, has been found at Castle Leod, in the east of Rosshire; and it is conjectured that the largest untouched field of coal in Europe exists in a barren tract of country in Lanerkshire.

17. In North America, coal has been discovered in great abundance on both sides of James river, and is said to have been first discovered by a boy in pursuit of cray fish. This valuable mineral also abounds towards the Mississippi and the Ohio, that of Pittsburg being of a superior quality; but it is chiefly worked in Virginia, where the beds are very extensive. One of these beds, about twenty-four feet in thickness, was found to repose on granite, and is cited as a great singularity.

18. In the territory south of the Ohio, what is called stone coal is found in the Cumberland mountains; and in 1804, a coal mine was discovered on the river Juniata, in the vicinity of the Apalachian mountains. The bed is horizontal, on which account it is wrought with considerable advantage, and the mineral is upwards of ten feet in thickness. Notwithstanding these supplies at particular points of the extensive territory of the United States, coals are imported from Great Britain in very considerable quantities. In the space of one year, reckoning from the first of October, 1801, the importation amounted to not less than 18,473 chaldrons.

19. The process of mining is a combination of boring and digging. Shafts are sunk, levels are driven, and drains are carried off, by the help of picks or pick-axes, wedges, and hammers, the rocks being also sometimes loosened by blasting with gunpowder. In searching for coal, a shaft is sunk through the uppermost soft stratum, and the rock is then bored, by striking it continually with an iron borer, terminating in an edge of steel, which is in the mean time, turned partly round; and, at proper intervals, a scoop is let down to draw up the loose fragments.

20. In this manner, a perforation is sometimes made for more than an hundred fathoms, the borer being lengthened by pieces screwed on; it is then partly supported by a counterpoise, and worked by machinery. Should it

happen to break, the piece is raised by a rod furnished with a hollow cone, as an extinguisher, which is driven down on it. The borer is sometimes furnished with knives, which are made to act on any part at pleasure, and to scrape off a portion of the surrounding substance, which is collected in a proper receptacle.

21. Those who have the direction of deep and extensive coal mines, are obliged, with great art and care, to keep them ventilated with perpetual currents of fresh air, which afford the miners a constant supply of that vital fluid, and expel from the mines damps and other noxious exhalations, together with such other burnt and foul air, as is become deleterious, and unfit for respiration.

22. In the deserted mines, which are not thus ventilated with currents of fresh air, large quantities of these damps are frequently collected; and in such works, they often remain for a long time without doing any mischief. But when, by some accident, they are set on fire, they then produce dreadful explosions, and, bursting out of the pits with great impetuosity, like the fiery eruptions from burning mountains, force along with them ponderous bodies to a great height in the air.

23. Various instances have occurred, in which the coal has been set on fire by the fulminating damp, and has continued burning for several months, until large streams of water were conducted into the mine, so as to inundate the parts where the conflagration existed. By such fires, several collieries have been entirely destroyed, in the vicinity of Newcastle, and in other parts of England, as well as in Fifeshire, in Scotland. In some of these places, the fire has continued to burn for ages.

24. To prevent, therefore, as much as possible, the collieries from being filled with these pernicious damps, it has been found necessary, carefully to search for the crevices in the coal whence they issue, and at those places, to confine them within a narrow space, conducting them through large pipes into the open air, where, being set on fire, they consume in perpetual flame, as they continually arise out of the earth.

25. The late Mr. Spelling, engineer of the Whitehaven coal mines, having observed that the fulminating damp could only be kindled by flame, and that it was not liable to be set on fire by red hot iron, nor by the sparks pro-

duced by the collision of flint and steel, invented a machine called a steel mill, in which a wheel of that metal is turned round with a very rapid motion, and, by the application of flints, great plenty of sparks are emitted, which afford the miners such a light as enables them to carry on their work in close places, where the flames of a candle, or of a lamp, would, as has already happened in various instances, occasion violent explosions.

26. In that dreadful catastrophe, the explosion of the Felling Colliery, the particulars of which will be hereafter detailed, it will be seen that mills of this description were employed, in searching for the remains of the sad victims of the disaster; but this event happened before the invention of Sir Humphrey Davy's safety lamp, a discovery which, while it affords a more certain light, holds out every security to the miner against accidents which, without such a resource, might still be superadded to those already recorded, as arising from the flame of a candle or lamp.

27. A greater number of mines have, however, been ruined by inundations than by fires; and here that noble invention the fire-engine displays its beneficial effects. It appears, from nice calculations, that it would require about 550 men, or a power equal to that of 110 horses, to work the pumps of one of the largest fire-engines, having a cylinder of seventy inches diameter, now in use, and thrice that number of men to keep an engine of that size constantly at work.

28. It also appears, that as much water may be raised by such an engine, as can be drawn, within the same space of time, by 2520 men with rollers and buckets, after the manner now daily practised in many mines; or as much as can be borne on the shoulders of twice that number of men, as is said to be done in several of the mines of Peru. So great is the power of the elastic steam of the boiling water in those engines, and of the outward atmosphere, which, by their alternate actions, give force and motion to the beam, and, through it, to the pump rods which elevate the water through tubes, and discharge it from the mine!

29. There are four fire-engines, belonging to the Whitehaven colliery, which, when all at work, discharge from it about 1228 gallons of water every minute, at thirteen

strokes ; and, at the same rate, 1,768,320 gallons, upwards of 7000 tons, every twenty-four hours. By these engines, nearly twice the above mentioned quantity of water might be discharged from mines which are not above sixty or seventy fathoms deep, which depth is rarely exceeded in the Newcastle collieries, or in any other English collieries, with the exception of the above.

30. Coal pits have sometimes taken fire by accident, and have continued to burn for a considerable length of time. About the year 1648, a coal mine at Benwell, a village near Newcastle-upon-Tyne, was accidentally kindled by a candle : at first, the fire was so feeble that a reward of half a crown, which was asked by a person who offered to extinguish it, was refused. It gradually increased, however, and had continued burning for thirty years, when the account was drawn up and published in the Philosophical Transactions : it was not finally extinguished until all the fuel was consumed. Examples of a similar kind have happened in Scotland and in Germany.

Sect. 7. Felling Colliery.

1. But of all the recorded accidents relative to coal mines, that of Felling Colliery, near Sunderland, a concise narrative of which here follows, was the most disastrous. Felling is a manor about a mile and a half east of Gateshead. It contains several strata of coal, the uppermost of which were extensively wrought in the beginning of the last century. The stratum called the High-main, was won in 1779, and continued to be wrought till the 19th January, 1811, when it was entirely excavated.

2. The present colliery is in the seam called the Low-main. It commenced in October, 1810, and was at full work in May, 1812. This mine was considered by the workmen as a model of perfection in the purity of its air, and orderly arrangements—its inclined plane was saving the daily expense of at least 13 horses—the concern wore the features of the greatest possible prosperity, and no accident, except a trifling explosion of fire-damp, slightly burning two or three workmen, had occurred.

3. Two sets of men were constantly employed, except on Sundays. Twenty five acres of coal had been excavated.—The first shift entered the mine at four o'clock

A. M., and were relieved at their working posts by the next, at 11 o'clock in the morning. The establishment it employed under ground, consisted of about 128 persons, who from the 11th to the 25th of May, 1812, wrought 624 scores of coal, equal to 1300 Newcastle chaldrons, or 2455 London chaldrons.

4. About half past 11 o'clock on the morning of the 25th of May, 1812, the neighbouring villages were alarmed by a tremendous explosion in this colliery. The subterraneous fire broke forth with two heavy discharges from the Low-main, which were almost instantaneously followed by one from the High-main. A slight trembling, as from an earthquake, was felt for about half a mile around the workings; and the noise of the explosion, though dull, was heard to three or four miles distance, and much resembled an unsteady fire of infantry.

5. Immense quantities of dust and small coal accompanied these blasts, and rose high into the air, in the form of an inverted cone. The heaviest part of the ejected matter, such as corves, pieces of wood, and small coal, fell near the pits; but the dust, borne away by a strong west wind, fell in a continued shower from the pit to the distance of a mile and a half. As soon as the explosion was heard, the wives and children of the workmen ran to the pit: the scene was distressing beyond the power of description.

6. Of one hundred and twenty-eight persons in the mine at the time of the explosion, only thirty two were brought to day-light, twenty-nine survived the fatal combustion, the rest were destroyed. Nor from the time of the explosion till the 8th of July, could any person descend. But after many unsuccessful attempts to explore the burning mine, it was re-closed, to prevent the atmospheric air from entering it.

7. This being done, no attempt was afterwards made to explore it, till the morning of the last mentioned day; from which time to the 19th of September, the heart rending scene of mothers and widows examining the putrid bodies of their sons and husbands, for marks by which to identify them, was almost daily renewed; but very few of them were known by any personal mark, they were too much mangled and scorched to retain any of their features. Their clothes, tobacco-boxes, shoes, &c

were, therefore, the only indexes by which they could be recognized.

8. At the crane, twenty-one bodies lay in ghastly confusion; some like mummies, scorched as dry as if they were baked. One wanted its head, another an arm. The scene was truly frightful. The power of fire was visible upon them all; but its effects were extremely variable: while some were almost torn to pieces, there were others who appeared as if they had sunk down overpowered by sleep.

9. The ventilation concluded on Saturday the 19th of September, when the ninety-first body was dug from under a heap of stones. At six o'clock in the morning, the pit was visited by candle-light, which had not been used in it for the space of one hundred and seventeen days; and at 11 o'clock in the morning the tube furnace was lighted. From this time the colliery has been regularly at work: but the ninety-second body has never yet been found. All these persons, except four, who were buried in single graves, were interred in Heworth Chapel-yard, in a trench, side by side, two coffins deep, with a partition of brick and lime between every four coffins.

THE LAST DAY.—*Young.*

SEEST thou, Lorenzo, what depends on man?
 The fate of nature; as, for man, her birth;
 Earth's actors change earth's transitory scenes,
 And make creation groan with human guilt;
 How must it groan, in a new deluge whelm'd;
 But not of waters; at the destin'd hour,
 By the loud trumpet summoned to the charge,
 See, all the formidable sons of fire,
 Eruptions, earthquakes, comets, lightnings play
 Their various engines; all at once disgorge
 Their blazing magazines; and take by storm
 This poor terrestrial citadel of man.

Amazing period! when each mountain height
 Out burns Vesuvius; rocks eternal pour
 Their melted mass, as rivers once they pour'd;
 Stars rush; and final ruin fiercely drives

Her ploughshare o'er creation!—while aloft
 More than astonishment! if more can be!
 Far other firmament than e'er was seen,
 Than e'er was thought by man! Far other stars!
 Stars animate, that govern these of fire;
 Far other sun!—A sun, O how unlike
 The Babe of Bethlehem! how unlike the man
 That groan'd on Calvary!—Yet He it is;
 The man of sorrows! O how chang'd? What pomp!
 In grandeur terrible, all heav'n descends!
 A swift Archangel, with his golden wings,
 As blots and clouds that darken and disgrace
 The scene divine, sweeps stars and suns aside;
 And now, all dross remov'd, Heav'n's own pure day,
 Full on the confines of our ether, flames.
 While (dreadful contest) far, how far beneath!
 Hell, burning, belches forth her blazing seas
 And storms sulphureous! her voracious jaws
 Expanding wide, and roaring for her prey.

At midnight, when mankind are wrapt in peace,
 And worldly fancy feeds on golden dreams,
 Man, starting from his couch, shall sleep no more!
 The day is broke which never more shall close!
 Above, around, beneath, amazement all!
 Terrour and glory joined in their extremes!
 Our God in grandeur, and our world on fire!
 All nature struggling in the pangs of death!
 Dost thou not hear her? dost thou not deplore
 Her strong convulsions, and her final groan?
 Where are we now? Ah me! the ground is gone
 On which we stood! Lorenzo! while thou may'st,
 Provide more firm support, or sink forever!
 Where? how? from whence? vain hope, it is too late!
 Where, where for shelter—shall the guilty fly,
 When consternation turns the good man pale?

Great day! for which all other days were made;
 For which earth rose from chaos; man from earth;
 And an eternity the date of Gods,
 Descended on poor earth created man!
 Great day of dread, decision and despair!
 At thought of thee, each sublunary wish
 Lets go its eager grasp, and drops the world;
 And catches at each reed of hope in Heaven.

Already is begun the grand assize,
 In us, in all; deputed conscience scales
 The dread tribunal and forestalls our doom;
 Forestalls; and, by forestalling, proves it sure.
 Why on himself should man void judgment pass?
 Is idle nature laughing at her sons?
 Who conscience sent, her sentence will support;
 And God alone assert that God in man.



OF MOUNTAINS.—*Goldsmith.*

1. IN those countries which consist only of plains, the smallest elevations are apt to excite wonder. In Holland, which is entirely flat, a little ridge of hills is shewn near the sea-side which Boerhave generally pointed out to his pupils as mountains of no small consideration. What would be the sensations of such an auditory, could they at once be presented with a view of the heights and precipices of the Andes and the Alps.

2. Even in England, we have no adequate ideas of a mountain prospect; our hills are generally sloping from the plain, and clothed to the very top with verdure; we scarcely, therefore, lift our imaginations to those immense piles, whose tops peep up behind intervening clouds, sharp and precipitate, and reach to heights that human curiosity has never been able to attain.

3. Even mountains have their uses. It has been thought that the animal and vegetable part of creation would perish for want of convenient humidity, were it not for their assistance. Their summits are supposed to arrest the clouds and vapours which float in the regions of the air; their large inflexions and channels are considered as so many conduits prepared for the reception of those thick vapours and impetuous rains which descend into them.

4. The huge caverns beneath are so many magazines of water for the peculiar service of man: and those orifices by which the water is discharged upon the plain, are so situated as to render them rich and fruitful, instead of returning through subterraneous channels into the sea, after the performance of a tedious and fruitless circulation.

5. It is moreover certain that almost all our great ri-

vers find their source among mountains; and, in general, the more extensive the mountain, the greater the river: thus the river Amazon, the greatest in the world, has its source among the Andes, which are the highest mountains on the globe; the river Niger travels a long course of several hundred miles from the mountains of the Moon, the highest in Africa; and the Danube and the Rhine proceed from the Alps, which are probably the highest mountains of Europe.

6. The traveller as he ascends a mountain, finds the grass become more mossy, and the weather more moderate. Higher up the air is colder, and the earth more barren. In the midst of his dreary passage, he is often entertained with a little valley of surprising verdure, caused by the reflected heat of the sun collected into a narrow spot on the surrounding heights. But it more frequently happens that he sees only frightful precipices beneath, and lakes of amazing depths from whence rivers are formed, and whence springs derive their origin.

7. Near the summit vegetation is scarcely carried on; here and there a few plants of the most hardy kind appear. The air is intolerably cold; the ground wears an eternal covering of ice, and snow seems constantly accumulating. Upon emerging from this scene, he ascends into a purer and serener region, where vegetation has entirely ceased; where the precipices, composed entirely of rocks, rise perpendicularly above him; while he views beneath him all the combat of the elements; clouds at his feet, and lightnings dart upward from their bosom below.

8. A thousand meteors which are never seen on the plains, present themselves: the traveller's own image reflected as in a looking-glass, upon the opposite clouds; circular rainbows, mock suns, and the shadow of the mountain projected upon the body of the air. Such are, in general, the wonders that present themselves to a traveller in his journey either over the Alps or the Andes.

9. To enumerate the most remarkable mountains according to their size, we shall begin with the Andes, of which the following is extracted from an excellent description, given by Ulloa, who went thither by command of the king of Spain. "After," says he, "having travelled for three days through boggy roads, in which the mules at every step sunk very deep, we began at length

to perceive an alteration in the climate, and having been long accustomed to heat, we now began to feel it sensibly colder.

10. At Tariguagua we often see instances of the effects of two opposite temperatures, in two persons happening to meet ; one of them leaving the plains below, and the other descending from the mountain. The former thinks the cold so severe, that he wraps himself up in all the garments he can procure ; while the latter finds the heat so great, that he is scarcely able to bear any clothes whatsoever.

11. The one thinks the water so cold that he avoids being sprinkled by it ; the other is so delighted with its warmth, that he uses it as a bath. This difference only proceeds from the change naturally felt at leaving a climate to which one has been accustomed, and coming into another of an opposite temperature.

12. The ruggedness of the road is not easily described. In some parts the declivity is so great that the mules can scarce keep their footing, and in others the acclivity is equally difficult. There are some places where the road is so steep, and yet so narrow, that the mules are obliged to slide down, without making the least use of their feet. On one side of the rider, in this situation, rises an eminence of several hundred yards ; and on the other an abyss of equal depth ; so that if he, in the least, checks his mule, they must both unavoidably perish.

13. After having travelled nine days in this manner, slowly winding along the side of the mountain, we began to find the whole country covered with a hoar frost. At length, after a journey of fifteen days, we arrived upon a plain, on the extremity of which stands the city of Quito, the capital of one of the most charming regions upon earth. Here, in the centre of the torrid zone, the heat is not only very tolerable, but in some places the cold, also, is painful.

14. Here they enjoy all the temperature and advantages of perpetual spring ; their fields being all covered with verdure, and enamelled with flowers of the most lively colours. However, although this beautiful region be higher than any other country in the world, and although it required so many days of painful journey in the ascent, it is still overlooked by tremendous mountains ;

their sides covered with snow, and yet flaming with volcanoes at the top.

15. These seem piled one upon the other, and rise to a most astonishing height, with great coldness. However, at a determined point above the surface of the sea, the congelation is found at the same height in all the mountains. Those parts which are not subject to a continual frost have growing upon them a sort of rush very soft and flexible. Higher up, the earth is entirely bare of vegetation, and seems covered with eternal snow.

16. The most remarkable mountains are the Cotopaxi, Chimborazo, and Pinchincha. The first is more than three geographical miles above the surface of the sea; the rest are not much inferior. On the top of the latter I suffered particular hardships from the intensesness of the cold and the violence of the storms. The sky around was, in general, involved in thick fogs, which, when they cleared away, and the clouds by their gravity moved nearer to the surface of the earth, appeared surrounding the foot of the mountain, at a vast distance below, like a sea encompassing an island in the midst of it.

17. When this happened, the horrid noises of tempests were heard from beneath, discharging themselves on Quito and the neighbouring country. I saw lightnings issue from the clouds, and heard the thunders roll far beneath me. All this time, while the tempest was raging below, the mountain top where I was placed enjoyed a delightful serenity; the wind was abated, the sky clear, and the rays of the sun moderated the severity of the cold.

18. However, this was of no long duration, for the wind returned with all its violence; whilst my fears were increased by the dreadful concussions of the precipice, and the fall of enormous rocks, the only sound that was heard in this dreadful situation." If we compare the Alps with the Andes, we shall find them but little more than half the height of the latter. The highest of the Alps are not above one mile and a half, whereas those of the Andes are more than three miles perpendicular height from the surface of the sea.

19. The highest mountains of Asia are mount Taurus, Mount Caucasus, and the mountains of Japan; of these none equals the Andes in height, although Caucasus makes very near approaches. In Africa, the mountains of the

Moon, famous for giving source to the Niger and the Nile, are more celebrated than accurately known. Of the peak of Teneriffe we have more certain information. It was visited by a company of English merchants, who travelled up to the top, when they observed its height, and the volcano on its very summit.

20. They found it a heap of mountains, the highest of which rises over the rest like a sugar loaf, and gives a name to the whole mass. The difficulty and danger of ascending the tops of mountains have been supposed to proceed from the thinness of the air; but the more probable reason is to be looked for, from the rugged and precipitate ascent. In some places they appear like a wall of six or seven hundred feet high; in others there stick out enormous rocks that hang upon the brow of the steep, and every moment threaten destruction to the traveller below.

21. In this manner, almost all the tops of the highest mountains are bare and pointed, which proceeds probably from their being so continually assaulted by thunders and tempests. All the earthly substances with which they might have been once covered, have for ages been washed away from their summits, and nothing is left remaining but immense rocks, which no tempests have hitherto been able to destroy.

22. Nevertheless, time is every day and hour making depredations; and huge fragments are seen tumbling down the precipice, either loosened by frost or struck by lightning. Nothing can exhibit a more terrible picture than one of these enormous rocks, commonly larger than a house, falling from its height, with a noise louder than thunder, and rolling down the side of the mountain.

23. In the month of June, 1714, a part of a mountain in the district of Vallais, in France, suddenly fell down between two and three o'clock in the afternoon, the weather being calm and serene. It was of a conical figure, and destroyed fifty-five cottages in the fall. Fifteen persons, together with about one hundred beasts, were also crushed beneath the ruins which covered an extent of nine square miles.

24. The dust it occasioned, instantly overwhelmed all the neighbourhood in darkness. The heaps of rubbish were more than three hundred feet high; they stopped

the current of a river that ran along the plain, which is now formed into several new and deep lakes. In the same manner, the entire town of Pleurs, in France, was buried beneath a rocky mountain, at the foot of which it was situated.

Note. The Alps separate Italy from France and Germany; commencing on the side of France towards the Mediterranean, and terminating at the gulf of Venice.—Mount Taurus begins east of Carmania, and extends far into India.—Mount Caucasus reaches from the Black to the Caspian Sea.—The Mountains of the Moon lie between Abyssinia and Monomotapa.

Questions.

- Where are the Mountains of the Moon?
- Are they the highest in Asia?
- What river has its origin in these mountains?
- Where are the Alps?
- What countries do the Alps separate?
- Where are the head waters of the Danube and the Rhine?
- What are the highest mountains in Asia?
- Where does Mount Taurus commence?
- Into what country does it extend?
- What is the extent of Mount Caucasus?

OF RIVERS AND CATARACTS.

1. ALL rivers have their source in mountains, hills or elevated lakes; and it is in their descent from these that they acquire that velocity which maintains their future current. At first the course of a river is generally rapid; but it is retarded in its journey, both by the continual friction against the banks, by the many obstacles it meets with to divert its stream, and by the surface of the earth generally becoming more level as it approaches towards the sea.

2. The largest rivers of Europe are, first, the Wolga; which is about six hundred and fifty leagues in length, extending from Reschaw to Astrachan. The next in

order is the Danube; the course of this river is about four hundred and fifty leagues, from the mountains of Switzerland to the Black Sea. The Don or Tanais which is four hundred leagues from the source of that branch of it called the Sofna, to its mouth in the Euxine Sea.

3. The Dwina, which takes its rise in a province of the same name in Russia, then runs a course of three hundred leagues and disembogues into the White Sea, a little below Archangel. The Nieper, which rises in Muscovy, and runs a course of three hundred and fifty leagues, to empty itself into the Black Sea.

4. The largest rivers of Asia are the Hoanho, in China, which is eight hundred and fifty leagues in length. The Jenisca of Tartary, about eight hundred leagues in length. The Oby of five hundred leagues, running from the lake of Kila into the Northern Sea. The Gauges, one of the most noble and majestic rivers in the world, and about as long as the former; it rises in the mountains which separate India from Tartary; and running through the dominions of the Great Mogul, discharges itself by several mouths into the Bay of Bengal.

5. It is not only esteemed by the Indians for the depth and pureness of its stream, but for a supposed sanctity which they believe to pertain to its waters. It is visited annually by several hundred thousand pilgrims, who pay their devotions to the river, as to a god; for savage simplicity is always known to mistake the blessings of the Deity for the Deity himself.

6. Next to this may be reckoned the still more celebrated river Euphrates. Nor must the Indus be forgotten. The largest rivers of Africa, are the Senegal, whose course is said to be three thousand miles in length; and the celebrated Nile, which from its source among the mountains of the Moon, in Upper Ethiopia, to the Mediterranean, is thought to extend as far.

7. The annual overflowings of this river arise from a very obvious cause, which affects almost all the great rivers which have their source near the equator. The rainy season, which is periodical in those climates, floods the rivers; and as this always happens in our summer, so the Nile is at that time overflown. From these inun-

ditions the inhabitants of Egypt derive plenty and happiness.

8. But of all parts of the world, America, as it exhibits the most lofty mountains, so it supplies the largest rivers. The principal of these is the great river Amazon, which performs a course of nearly four thousand miles. The breadth and depth of this vast river is answerable to its vast length, and where its width is most contracted, its depth is augmented in proportion. So great is the body of its waters, that other considerable rivers, objects of its admiration, are swallowed up in its bosom.

9. It proceeds after their junction with its usual appearance, without any visible change in its breadth or rapidity, and remains great without ostentation. In some places it displays its whole magnificence, dividing into several branches, encompassing a multitude of islands; and at length discharging itself into the ocean, by a channel which is an hundred and fifty miles broad!

10. The Nile has its cataracts; the Velino in Italy has one more than an hundred and fifty feet perpendicular. Near the city of Gottenburgh in Sweden, a river rushes down from a prodigious precipice into a deep pit, with a terrible noise, and such dreadful force, that those trees designed for the masts of ships, which are floated down the river, are usually turned upside down in their fall.

11. They are often shattered to pieces, by falling sideways, and being dashed against the surface of the water in the pit: if they fall endways they drive so far below the surface, as to disappear for a quarter of an hour or more; the pit into which they are thus plunged, has been sounded with a line of several thousand yards, but no bottom has hitherto been found.

12. Of all the cataracts in the world, that of the Niagara, in Canada, is the greatest and most astonishing. This amazing fall of water is made by the river Niagara, in its passage from lake Erie to lake Ontario. This river is one of the largest in the world, and the whole of its waters are here poured down by a fall of one hundred and fifty feet perpendicular. It is not easy to bring the imagination to correspond with the greatness of the scene.

13. A river extremely deep and rapid, and that serves to drain the waters of almost all North America into the Atlantic Ocean, is here poured precipitately down a ledge of rocks, that rise, like a wall, across the whole bed of its stream. The width of the river a little above, is nearly three quarters of a mile broad; and the rocks where it grows narrower, are four hundred yards over.

14. Their direction is not strait across, but hollowing inwards, like a horse-shoe: so that the cataract, which bends to the shape of the obstacle, rounding inwards, presents a kind of theatre, the most tremendous in nature. Just in the middle of this circular wall of waters, a little island, that has braved the fury of the current, presents one of its points, and divides the stream at top into two, but it unites again long before it has got to the bottom.

15. The noise of the fall is heard at several leagues distance; and the fury of the waters at the bottom of their fall is inconceivable. The dashing produces a mist that rises to the very clouds; and that produces a most beautiful rainbow when the sun shines. It may be easily conceived, that such a cataract destroys the navigation of the stream; and yet some Indian canoes, as it is said, have been known to venture down it in safety.

16. Thus, to whatever quarter of the globe we turn, we shall find new reasons to be satisfied with that part in which we ourselves reside. Our rivers furnish all the plenty of the African stream, without its inundations; they have all the coolness of the polar rivulet, with a more constant supply; they want the terrible magnificence of huge cataracts, or extensive lakes, but they are more navigable, and more transparent.

17. They are less deep and rapid than the rivers of the torrid zone, yet more manageable, and only wait the will of man to take their direction. The rivers of the torrid zone, like the monarchs of the country, rule with despotic tyranny, profuse in their bounty, and ungovernable in their rage. The rivers of Britain, like its kings, are the friends, not the oppressors of the people; bounded by known limits, abridged in the power of doing ill, and only at liberty to distribute happiness and plenty.

Note. The Black Sea, anciently called the Euxine Sea, forms a part of the boundary between Europe and Asia. It is connected to the Archipelago by the sea of Marmora, and separated from the Levant by Asia Minor. It lies between 42 and 46° north latitude. The White Sea, a bay of the Frozen Ocean, is in the north of Russia.

Questions.

- Where is the source of the Wolga ?
 What is its length ?
 What is the extent of the Danube ?
 Into what sea does it run ?
 What is the length of the Don ?
 Where is its mouth ?
 Where is the Dwina ?
 Where does it rise ?
 What is its length ?
 Where does it discharge ?
 Where is the source of the Nieper ?
 Of what length ?
 Into what sea does it run ?
 Where is the Hoanho ?
 What is its length ?
 Where is the Jenisea ?
 Of what extent ?
 Where is the source of the Oby ?
 What is its length ?
 What sea does it enter ?
 Where is the Amour ?
 What is its length ?
 Into what sea are its waters discharged ?
 What are the rivers of Africa ?
 Has the Nile any Cataracts ?
 What is the perpendicular fall of the Velino in Italy ?
 What of the Niagara in North America ?
 Where is the Black or Euxine Sea ?
 How is it connected to the Archipelago ?
 What is the White Sea ?
 Where situated ?

OF THE OCEAN.—*Goldsmith.*

1. IF we look upon a map of the world, we shall find that the waters occupy considerable more than the land. Although the ocean is but one extensive sheet of waters, continued over every part of the globe without interruption, yet geographers have distinguished it by different names, as the Atlantic, the Northern, Southern, Pacific, and Indian oceans.

2. In this vast receptacle, almost all the rivers of the earth ultimately terminate; nor do such great supplies seem to increase its stores; for it is neither apparently swollen by their tribute, nor diminished by their failure; it continues the same. What indeed, is the quantity of water in all the rivers and lakes in the world, compared to that contained in this great receptacle?

3. If we should offer to make a rude estimate we shall find that all the rivers in the world flowing into the bed of the sea with the continuance of their present stores, would take up at least eight hundred years to fill it to its present height. In the temperate climates the sea is never frozen, but the polar regions are embarrassed with mountains of ice, that render them almost impassable.

4. These tremendous floats are of different magnitudes; sometimes rising more than a thousand feet above the surface of the water; sometimes diffused into plains of above two hundred feet in length; and in many sixty or eighty broad. They are usually divided by fissures; one piece following another so close, that a person may step from one to the other. Sometimes mountains are seen rising amidst these plains, and presenting the appearance of a variegated landscape, with hills and vallies, houses, churches, and towers.

5. There are two kinds of ice floating in these seas; the flat and the mountain ice; the one is formed of sea-water; the other of fresh. The flat, or driving ice, is entirely composed of sea water; which, upon dissolution, is found to be salt; and is readily distinguished from the mountain or fresh water ice, by its whiteness and want of transparency. This ice is much more terrible to mariners than that which rises up in lumps; a ship can avoid the one, as it is seen at a distance; but it often gets in among the other, which sometimes closing, crushes it to pieces.

6. The mountain ice is often incorporated with earth, stones, and brush wood, washed from the shore. On these are sometimes found, not only earth, but nests with bird's eggs at several hundred miles from land. These mountains are usually seen in the spring, and after a violent storm, driving out to sea, where they at first terrify the mariner, and are soon after dashed to pieces by the continual washing of the waves, or driven into the warmer regions of the south to be melted away.

7. A body of ice is often prominent far over the rocks. It does not melt on the upper surface, but underneath, and also cracks into several clefts from whence the water trickles out. By this it becomes, at last, so weak, that being overloaded with its own ponderous bulk, it breaks loose, and tumbles down the rocks with a terrible crash.

8. Where it happens to overhang a precipice on the shore, it plunges into the deep with a shock like thunder, and with such an agitation of the water, as will upset a boat at a considerable distance, as many a poor Greenlander has fatally experienced. In the ocean are many dangerous whirlpools; that called the *Maelstrom* upon the coast of Norway is considered as the most dreadful and voracious in the world.

9. A minute description of the internal parts is not to be expected, since none who were there, ever returned to bring back information. The body of the waters that form this whirlpool are extended in a circle, about thirteen miles in circumference. In the midst of this stands a rock, against which the tide in its ebb is dashed with inconceivable fury. At this time it instantly swallows up all things that come within the sphere of its violence, trees, timber, and shipping.

10. No skill in the mariner, nor strength of rowing, can work an escape; the sailor at the helm finds the ship at first go in a current opposite his intentions; his vessel's motion, though slow in the beginning, becomes every moment more rapid, it goes round in circles still narrower and narrower, till at last it is dashed against the rocks, and instantly disappears.

11. It is not seen again for six hours; till, the tide flowing, it is vomited forth with the same violence with which it was drawn in. The noise of this dreadful vortex still farther contributes to increase its terrors, which,

with the dashing of the waters, and the dreadful valley caused by their circulation, makes one of the most tremendous objects in nature.

Note. The Atlantic Ocean lies between the west continents of Africa and Europe, and the east continent of America. On one side of the equator it is called the North, and on the other the South Atlantic Ocean. The Pacific Ocean separates Asia from America. It is sometimes called the south sea, and, with regard to America, is the western Ocean.

Questions.

Where is the most dangerous whirlpool of the Ocean ?

What is its circumference ?

Where is the Atlantic Ocean ?

What is it called north of the equator ?

What south ?

Where is the Pacific Ocean ?

CONCLUSION,

INCLUDING A BRIEF VIEW OF THE UNIVERSE.

—*Goldsmith.*

1. THE universe may be considered as the palace in which the Deity resides, and this earth as one of its apartments. Those great outlines of nature, to which art cannot reach, and where our greatest efforts must have been ineffectual, God himself has finished with amazing grandeur and beauty. Our beneficent Father has considered these parts of nature as peculiarly his own ; as parts which no creature could have skill or strength to amend : and, therefore, made them incapable of alteration, or of more perfect regularity.

2. The heavens and the firmament shew the wisdom and the glory of the workman. Astronomers who are best skilled in the symmetry of systems, can find nothing there that they can alter for the better. God made these perfect, because no subordinate being could correct their defects. When, therefore, we survey nature on this side, nothing can be more splendid, more correct, or amazing.

3. We then behold a Deity residing in the midst of an universe, infinitely extended every way, animating all, and cheering the vacuity with his presence! We behold an immense and shapeless mass of matter formed into worlds by his power, and dispersed at intervals, to which even the imagination cannot travel! In this great theatre of his glory, a thousand suns, like our own, animate their respective systems, appearing and vanishing at the divine command.

4. We behold our bright luminary fixed in the centre of its system, wheeling its planets in times proportioned to their distances, and at once dispensing light, heat, and motion. The earth also is seen with its two-fold motion, producing by one the change of seasons, and by the other the grateful vicissitudes of day and night. With what silent magnificence is all this performed! With what seeming ease!

5. The works of art are exerted with an interrupted force; and their noisy progress discovers the obstructions they receive: but the earth, with a silent, steady rotation, successively presents every part of its bosom to the sun; at once imbibing nourishment and light from that parent of vegetation and felicity.

6. But not only provisions of heat and light are thus supplied, but its whole surface is covered with a transparent atmosphere that turns with its motion, and guards it from external injury. The rays of the sun are thus broken into a genial warmth; and while the surface is assisted, a gentle heat is produced in the bowels of the earth, which contributes to cover it with verdure. Waters are also supplied in healthful abundance, to support life and assist vegetation.

7. Mountains arise to diversify the prospect and give a current to the stream. Seas extend from one continent to the other, replenished with animals that may be turned to human support; and also serving to enrich the earth with a sufficiency of vapour. Breezes fly along the surface of the fields, to promote health and vegetation. The coolness of the evening invites to rest; and the freshness of the morning invigorates for labour.

8. Such are the delights of the habitation that has been assigned to man: without any one of these he must have been wretched; and none of these could his own industry have supplied. But while many of his wants are thus

kindly furnished on the one hand, there are numberless inconveniences to excite his industry on the other. This habitation, though provided with all the conveniences of air, pasturage and water, is but a desert place, without human cultivation.

9. The lowest animal finds more conveniences in the wilds of nature, than he who boasts himself their lord. The whirlwind, the inundation, and all the asperities of the air, are peculiarly terrible to man, who knows their consequences, and at a distance dreads their approach. The earth itself, where human art has not pervaded, puts on a frightful gloomy appearance.

10. The forests are dark and tangled, the meadows overgrown with rank weeds; and the brooks stray without a determined channel. Nature, that has been kind to every lower order of beings, has been quite neglectful with regard to man; to the savage uncontriving man the earth is an abode of desolation, where his shelter is insufficient, and his food precarious.

11. A world, thus furnished with advantages on the one side and inconveniences on the other, is the proper abode of reason, is the fittest to exercise the industry of a free and a thinking creature. These evils, which art can remedy, and prescience guard against, are a proper call for the exertion of his faculties, and they tend still more to assimilate him to his Creator.

12. God beholds, with pleasure, that being which he has made, converting the wretchedness of his natural situation into a theatre of triumph; bringing all the headlong tribes of nature into subjection to his will, and producing that order and unanimity upon earth, of which his own heavenly fabric is so bright an example. To convey some idea of the immensity of creation, and the omnipotence of its Author, the following brief view of the universe is subjoined.

13. When the shades of night have spread their veil over the plains, the firmament manifests to our view its grandeur and riches. The sparkling points with which it is studded, are so many suns suspended by the Almighty in the immensity of space, to worlds which roll all around them. The Heavens declare the glory of God, and the firmament sheweth his handy work.

14. The royal poet, who expressed himself with such loftiness of sentiment, was not aware that the stars he

contemplated were in reality suns. He anticipated these times, and first sang that majestic hymn, which future and more enlightened ages were to chant forth in praise to the great Creator. The assemblage of these vast bodies is divided into different systems, the number of which probably surpasses the grains of sand which the sea casts on its shore.

15. Each system has for its centre, a star, or sun, which shines by its native inherent light; and round which several orders of opaque globes revolve, reflecting, with more or less brilliancy, the light they borrow from it which renders them visible. What an august, what an amazing conception does this give of the works of the Creator!

16. 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, doubtless peopled with myriads of beings, formed for endless progression in perfection and felicity!

17. From what we know of our own system, it may be reasonably concluded, that all the rest are with equal wisdom contrived, situated, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants. Let us, therefore, take a survey of the system to which we belong; the only one accessible to us; and from thence we shall be better enabled to judge of the nature and end of the other systems of the universe.

18. Those globes which we perceive as wandering among the heavenly host, are the planets; the primary or principal ones have the sun for the common centre of their periodical revolution; while the others, which are called secondaries, or moons, move round their primaries, accompanying them as satellites in their annual revolution.

19. We know that our solar system consists of twenty nine planetary bodies; we are not certain but there may be more. Their number has been considerably augmented since the invention of telescopes; more perfect instruments, and more accurate observers may further increase their number. The discovery of the Georgium Sidus, or the Herschel, may be looked upon as a happy presage of future success.

20. Modern astronomy has not only enriched our heavens with new planets, but it has also enlarged the boundaries of the solar system. The comets, which from their fallacious appearance, their tail, their beard, the diversity of their directions, their sudden appearance, or disappearance, have been considered as meteors, lighted up in the air by an irritated power, are found to be a species of planetary bodies whose long routes are now calculated by astronomers; they also foretel their distant return, determine their place and account for their irregularities.

21. Many of these bodies at present acknowledge the empire of our sun, though the orbits they trace round him are so extensive, that many ages are necessary for the completion of a revolution. In a word, it is from modern astronomy that we learn that the stars are innumerable, and that the constellations, in which the ancients reckoned but a few, are now known to contain thousands.

22. The heavens of Thales and Hipparchus were very poor, when compared to those of later astronomers, of Tycho Brahe, Flamstead, de la Caille, and Herschel. The diameter of the great orbit which our earth describes, is more than 180 millions of miles; yet this vast extent vanishes into nothing, and becomes a mere point, when the astronomer wishes to use it as a measure to ascertain the distance of the fixed stars.

23. How great then is the real bulk of these luminaries, which are perceptible by us at such an enormous distance! The sun is about 1,392,500 times greater than the earth, and 539 times greater than all the planets taken together. If the stars are suns, as we have every reason to suppose, they must be either equal to, or exceed it in size.

24. Proud and ignorant mortal! lift up now thine eyes to heaven, and answer, if one of those luminaries which adorn the starry heaven, should be taken away, would the nights become darker? Say not then that the stars are made for thee; that it is for thee that the firmament glitters with effulgent brightness: feeble mortal! thou wert not the sole object of the liberal bounties of the Creator; when he appointed Sirius, and encompassed it with worlds.

25. Whilst the planets perform their periodical revolutions round the sun, by which the course of their year is regulated, they turn round their axes, a motion by which they obtain the alternate succession of day and

night. By what means are these vast bodies suspended in the immensity of space? What secret power retains them in their orbits, and enables them to circulate with so much regularity and harmony? Gravity, or attraction, is the powerful agent, the universal principle of this equilibrium, and of these motions.

26. It penetrates intimately all bodies. By this power they tend towards each other in a proportion relative to their bulk. Thus the planets tend towards the centre of the system, into which they would soon have been precipitated, if the Creator when he formed them, had not impressed upon them a projectile or centrifugal force which continually keeps them at a proper distance from the centre.

27. The planets by obeying at the same instant each of these motions are made to describe a curve. Thus the same force which determines the fall of a stone, is the ruling principle of the heavenly motions. Wonderful mechanism! whose simplicity and energy gives us unceasing tokens of the profound wisdom of its Author.

28. Our earth or globe, which seems so vast in the eyes of the emmets who inhabit it, and whose diameter is above 7970 miles, is yet nearly a thousand times smaller than Jupiter, who appears to the naked eye as little more than a shining atom. A rare transparent and elastic substance surrounds the earth to a certain height.

29. This substance is the air or atmosphere, the habitation of the winds, an immense reservoir of vapours, which, when condensed into clouds, either embellish our sky by the variety of their figures, and the richness of their colouring, or astonish us by the rolling thunder or flashes of lightning that escape from them; sometimes they melt away, at others, are condensed into rain or hail, supplying the deficiencies of the earth with the superfluity of heaven.

30. The moon, the nearest of all the planets to the earth, is likewise that of which we have the most knowledge. Its globe always presents to us the same face, because it turns round upon its axis precisely in the same space of time that it revolves round the earth. It has its phases, or gradual and periodical increase and decrease of light, according to its position in respect to the sun, which enlightens it and the earth on which it reflects the light it has received.

31. The face of the moon is divided into luminous and

obscure parts. The former seems analogous to land, and the latter to resemble our seas. In the luminous spots there have been observed some parts which are brighter than the rest; these project a shadow, whose length has been measured, and their track ascertained.

32. These parts are mountains, much higher than ours in proportion to the size of the moon, whose tops may be seen gilded by the rays of the sun, at the quadratures of the moon, and the light gradually descending to their feet, till they appear entirely bright. Some of these mountains stand by themselves, while in other places there are long chains of them.

33. Venus has, like the moon, her phases, spots and mountains. The telescope discovers to us also spots in Mars and Jupiter; those in Jupiter form belts; considerable changes have been seen among these, as if on the ocean's overflowing the land, and again leaving it dry by its retreat.

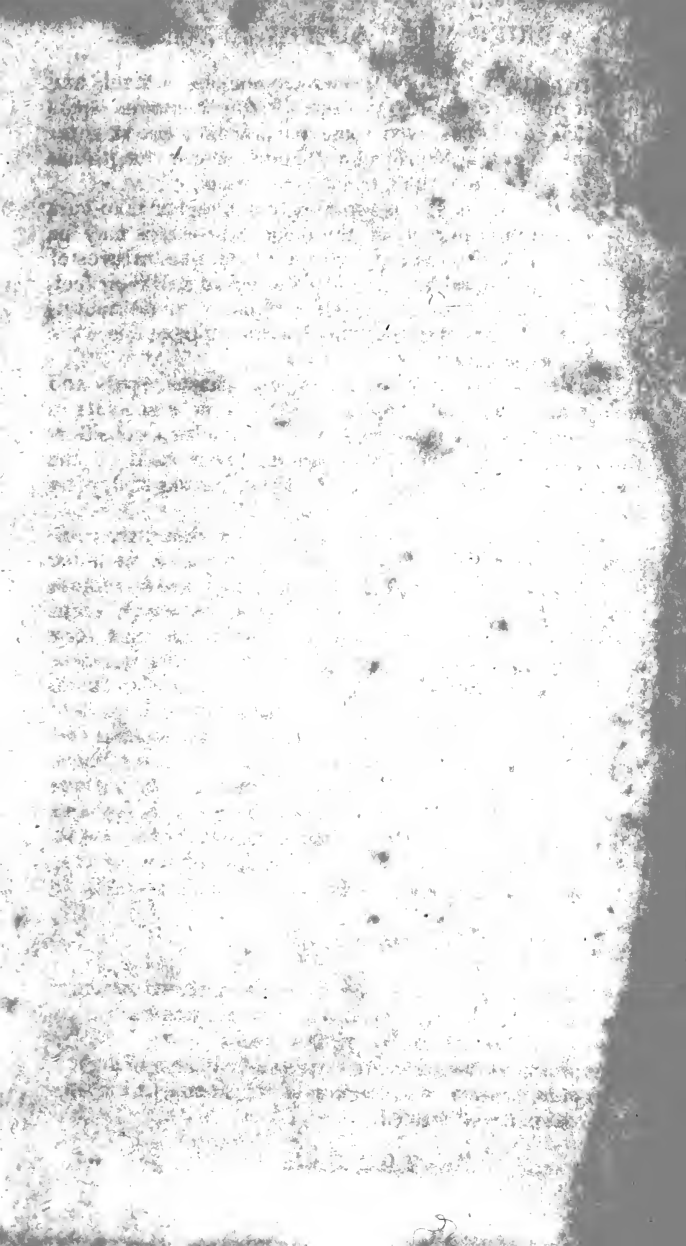
34. Mercury, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, are comparatively, but little known; the first because he is too near the sun; the two last because they are so remote from it. Lastly, the sun himself has spots, which seem to move with regularity, and whose size equals, and very often exceeds our globe itself. Every thing in the universe is systematical, all is combination, affinity and connexion.

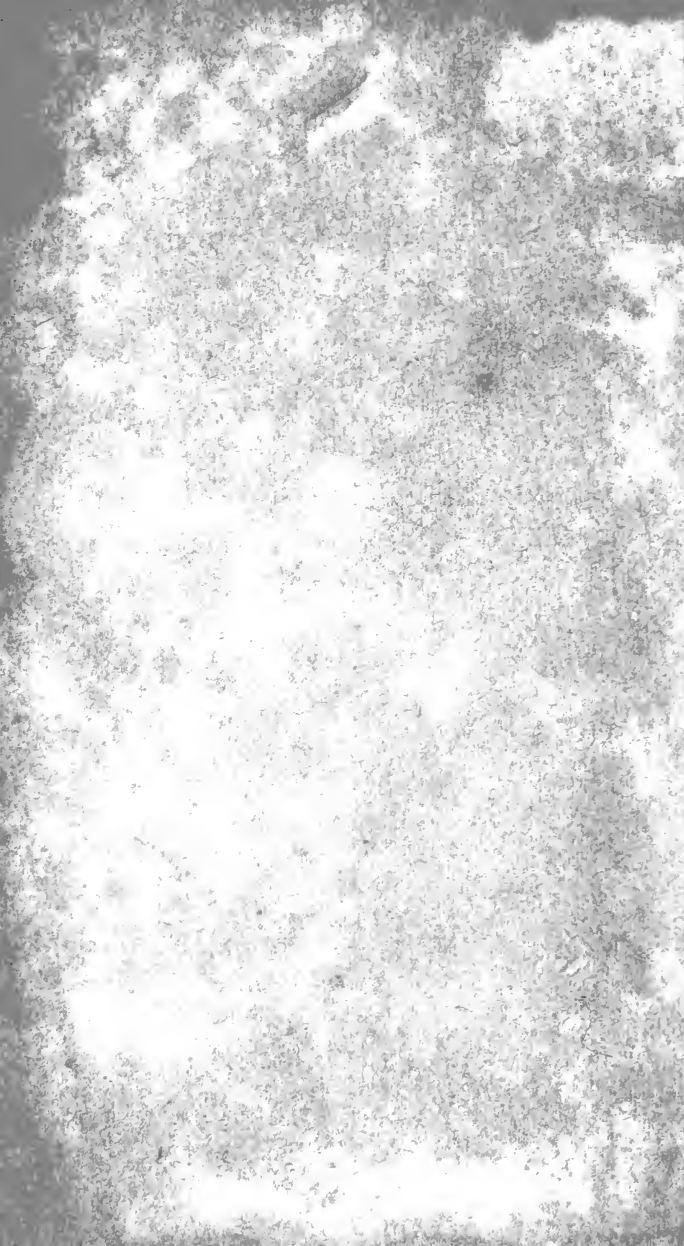
35. From the relations which exist between all parts of the world, and by which they conspire to one general end results the harmony of the world. The relations which unite all the worlds to one another, constitute the harmony of the universe. The beauty of the world is founded in the harmonious diversity of the beings that compose it, in the number, the extent, and the quality of their effects, and in the sum of happiness which it is capable of affording.

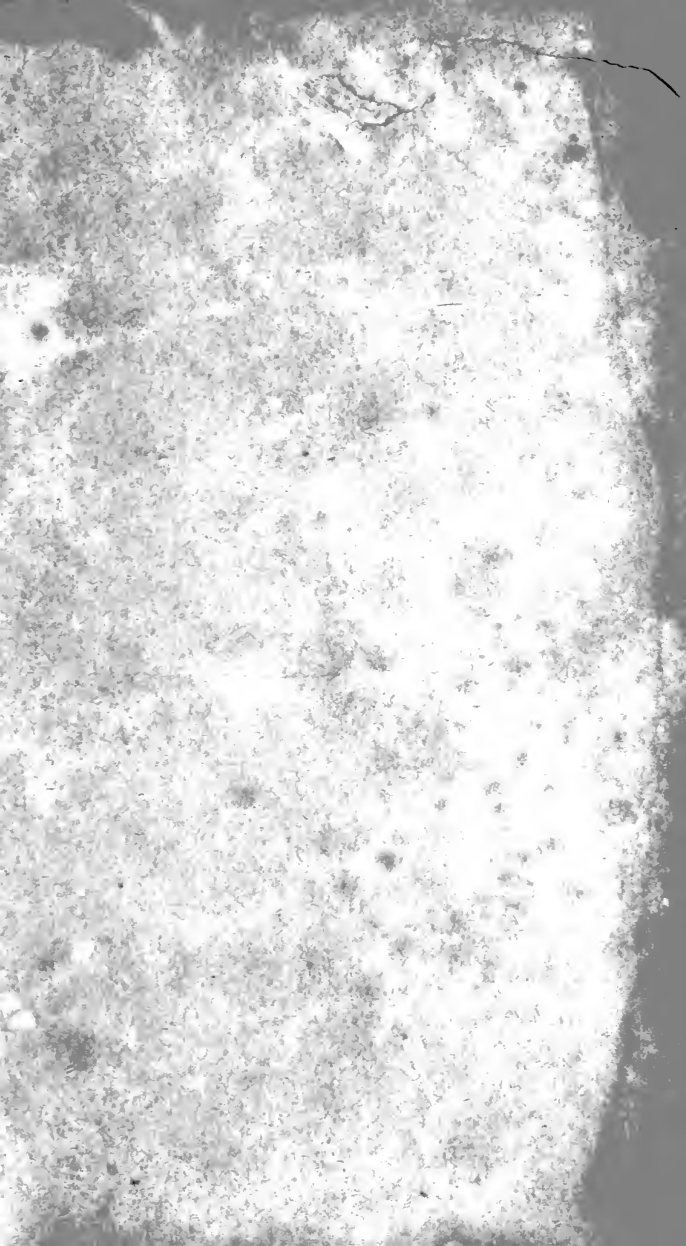
Questions.

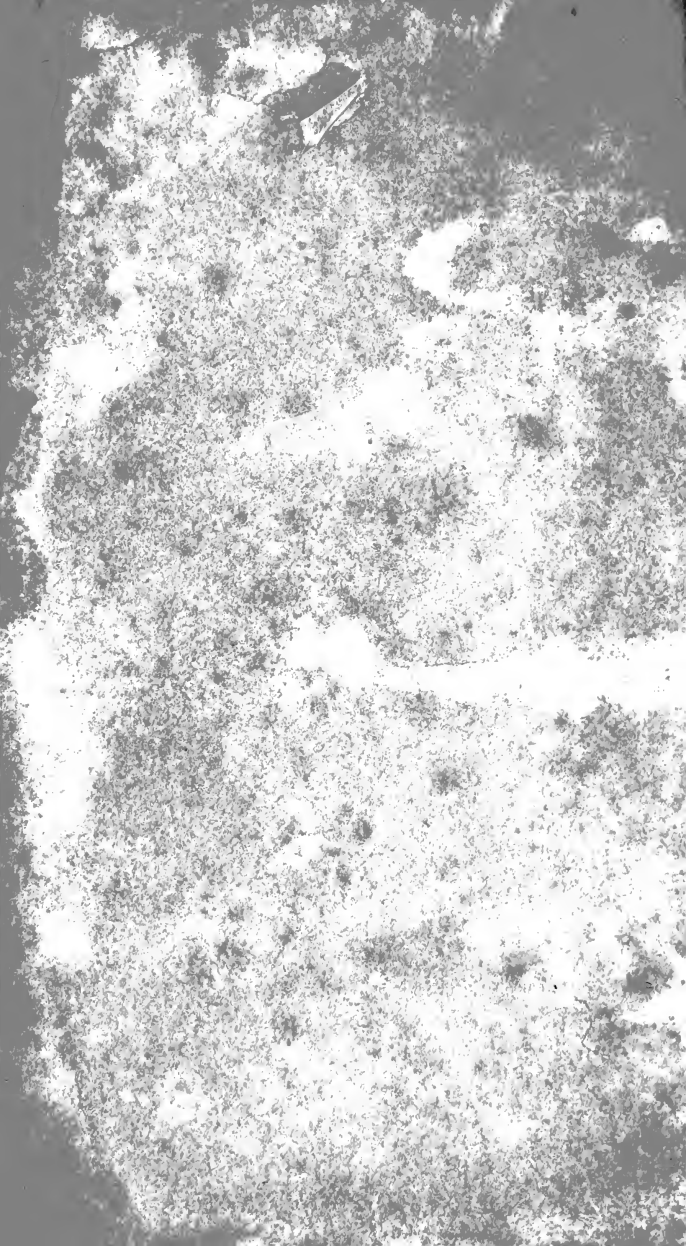
- How much larger is the Sun than the earth we inhabit?
 How much larger than all the rest of the planets?
 What regulates the course of the year?
 What produces the alternate succession of day and night?
 What maintains the equilibrium of the planets in the immensity of space?

THE END.









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